

H A B I T A T II

**THE
UNITED NATIONS
CONFERENCE ON
HUMAN SETTLEMENTS**

**ISTANBUL
3 - 14 JUNE 1996**

**NATIONAL REPORT
BY**

AUSTRIA

(Second Edition)

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PART A: INTRODUCTION

1. THE PROCESS

The Second United Nations Conference on Human Settlements (HABITAT II) will take place in Istanbul from 3 - 14 June 1996 as a follow-up to HABITAT I held in Vancouver in 1976. In accordance with the guidelines for national reports recommended by the HABITAT II Secretariat, which was established in Nairobi to prepare this "City Summit", a large number of representatives of governmental bodies at the federal, provincial and local levels, all parliamentary parties, scientific institutions, employer and employee representatives and non-governmental organisations active in the field of development co-operation were contacted in the course of 1994. After several meetings held in the autumn of 1994 and the spring of 1995, the Austrian National Committee for the HABITAT II Conference was formed from among this group, with the primary task of drafting the Austrian National Report. The list of members of the Austrian National Committee is given under Item 2.

When drafting the Austrian National Report, the Committee followed the recommendations of the HABITAT II Secretariat (HABITAT II: Outline for National Reports, in: HABITAT II: Guidelines for National Preparations). As regards Part C (The National Plan of Action), however, the Austrian contribution puts less emphasis on measurable targets, expected results and a five-year programme in the field of human settlements, since this would not be in accordance with the prevailing political system in Austria. Instead, it gives a qualitative overview of strategies for the future, above all those adopted by the federal provinces.

The Austrian National Report was completed in October 1995. The HABITAT II Secretariat in Nairobi was informed at regular intervals on the progress of preparatory work in Austria for HABITAT II.

The reporting procedure was organised and co-ordinated by the Federal Ministry for Foreign Affairs; the substantive co-ordination of the individual contributions to the Austrian National Report was assumed by the Federal Ministry for Economic Affairs.

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Amt der Kärntner Landesregierung
(Office of the Provincial Government of Carinthia)
Klagenfurt

Amt der Niederösterreichischen Landesregierung
(Office of the Provincial Government of Lower Austria)
Vienna

Amt der Steiermärkischen Landesregierung
(Office of the Provincial Government of Styria)
Graz

Arbeitsgemeinschaft Entwicklungszusammenarbeit
(Working Party on Development Co-operation)
Vienna

Bundeskanzleramt
(Office of the Federal Chancellor)
Vienna

Bundesministerium für Arbeit und Soziales
(Federal Ministry for Labour and Social Affairs)
Vienna

Bundesministerium für auswärtige Angelegenheiten
Federal Ministry of Foreign Affairs
Department VII.1
Vienna

Bundesministerium für Jugend und Familie
(Federal Ministry for Youth and Family Affairs)
Vienna

Bundesministerium für Justiz
(Federal Ministry of Justice)
Vienna

Bundesministerium für Umwelt
(Federal Ministry for the Environment)
Vienna

Bundesministerium für wirtschaftliche Angelegenheiten
(Federal Ministry for Economic Affairs)
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Bundesministerium für Wissenschaft, Forschung und Kunst
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(Vienna City Administration)
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(Austrian Conference on Regional Planning)
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Österreichischer Entwicklungsdienst (ÖED)
(Austrian Development Service)
Vienna

Österreichischer Städtebund
(Austrian Federation of Towns)
Vienna

Österreichischer Verband der gemeinnützigen Bauvereinigungen
(Austrian Association of Non-Profit Housing Associations)
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Österreichischer Wohnbund
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Vienna

Österreichisches Ökologieinstitut
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Parlamentsklub Die Freiheitlichen
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Parlamentsklub der Österreichischen Volkspartei (ÖVP)
(Group of People's Party MPs)
Vienna

Parlamentsklub der Sozialdemokratischen Partei Österreichs (SPÖ)
(Group of Social Democratic MPs)
Vienna

Parlamentsklub des Liberalen Forums
(Group of Liberal Forum MPs)
Vienna

Parlamentsklub Die Grünen
(Group of Green Party MPs)
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SEG Stadterneuerungs- und EigentumswohnungsgesmbH
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PART B: STOCK-TAKING, ASSESSMENT, PROBLEMS

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1. DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

1.1. Demographic development in Austria

According to the 1991 census, Austria has a total of 7,796,000 inhabitants, of whom 3,754,000 (48%) are male and 4,042,000 (52%) female.

17% of the population are children under 15 years of age, 63% are of working age (15 to 59). Compared with the figures of the 1981 census, the number of inhabitants of working age has increased by 6.2%.

The age structure in the western provinces of Austria differs markedly from that of the eastern part of the country. Whereas children under 15 account for 20.5 % of the population in Vorarlberg, the country's westernmost province, their share in the Province of Burgenland in the east is no more than 17.1%. Of all the Austrian provinces, Vienna has by far the lowest percentage of children (13.9%).

As regards the resident population, the following trends were observed during the 1981 to 1991 period:

In eastern Austria, the birth deficit was clearly lower than the decade before, which was mainly due to the development in Vienna (1971 - 1981: - 117,256, 1981 - 1991: - 77,167); it was more than offset by in-migration (almost 156,000 persons), which was two and a half times higher than between 1971 and 1981 (61,000). The excess of births over deaths in southern Austria declined almost by half; out-migration, at an average of 24,000 persons between 1971 and 1981, dropped to about 4,000 persons. In western Austria, the excess of births over deaths remained almost the same (1971 - 1981: 110,000), whereas the population gain through migration was more than twice as high as the decade before.

The slightly positive migration balance of the peripheral districts, which more than compensated the declining birth rate, is particularly noteworthy. Peripheral districts recorded a population gain by approx. 14,000 persons due to in-migration, compared with a population loss by almost 48,000 between 1971 and 1981.

Moreover, the demographic development of the past decade has been characterised by continued suburbanisation and a stabilisation of developments in rural regions. The urban population increased by about 200,000, i.e. 6%, with suburban regions accounting for most of the increase.

¹ Austrian Conference on Regional Planning (ÖROK): Seventh Regional Planning Report, p.26

The strongest population increases between 1981 and 1991 were recorded in districts in the vicinity of major cities, e.g. plus 19.7% in the Salzburg region, and a few districts in the western provinces.

1.2. Senior citizens

Retired persons make up the age group with the greatest amount of free time and the highest budget: today, every other senior-citizen household has a disposable income of more than ATS 20,000 per month.

The 1991 population census recorded 1,565,000 retired persons aged 60 and above. i.e. 7.6 % more than in 1981. Retired persons, who had made up 19.2 % of the population in 1981, accounted for 20.1%, i.e. up by 0.8%, in 1991. This rise in the number of persons older than 60 is due not only to the fact that people born in higher-fertility years reached retirement age, but also to the increase of life expectancy in the 1980s.

1.3. Households²

The most recent estimate for the period between 1992 and 2030 forecasts a rise in the number of households by 25%. From 3.09 million in 1991, the number of households will probably increase to 3.40 million in the year 2000 (+ 9.8%) and 3.69 million (+ 19.3%) in 2015.

According to this forecast, by 2030 Austria will have 3.83 million households, which corresponds to an increase by 739,000, i.e. 23.9%, in a period of 40 years starting in 1991.

The number of single households is expected to rise most sharply, i.e. from 880,000 (1991) to 971,000 (2000) to 1.19 million (2030; + 35.6% compared with 1991). Thus, by 2030, 31.1% of the population will be living in single households (1991: 29.7%). The number of multi-person households, currently standing at 2.21 million, will continue to increase until 2024 (2.65 million; + 19.9% over 1991) and fall slightly to 2.64 million by 2030.

The average size of households (2.71 persons in 1981) will drop from the current average of 2.50 persons to 2.10 persons over a period of forty years.

²Austrian Central Statistical Office (ÖSTAT), Journal 11/1992

According to an ÖROK study,³ the number of households will grow twice as fast in western Austria as in eastern and southern Austria; in major cities the increase will be a mere 25% of the increase to be expected in the surrounding regions and peripheral districts. Owing to the increasing volume of international in-migration, the differences between the major cities and the remaining districts will become less pronounced. These structural differences will account for regional variations in the demand for housing.

³Development of households, housing construction and housing needs in Austria between 1961 and 2031 (edited by Heinz Faßmann, Peter Findl and Rainer Münz, with the assistance of Eva Bauer and Michael Wagner), Vienna 1992

2. DEVELOPMENT OF THE SETTLEMENT SYSTEM IN AUSTRIA BETWEEN 1961 AND 1991*

2.1. Preliminary remarks

The typical characteristics of the Austrian settlement system, which stand out in any international comparison, result from two factors. Firstly, the country emerged after 1918 with a specific settlement system, the historical heritage of a major European power. Vienna, a city with more than 2 million inhabitants, had been the administrative centre of the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy, an empire of more than 50 million people. When the Republic was proclaimed in 1918, the population had shrunk to no more than six million. Thus, in relation to the total population, Vienna was much too large, and the towns ranking next in terms of size, i.e. provincial capitals and district towns, were far too small. This asymmetry, and the low degree of urbanisation resulting from it, has marked the Austrian settlement system to this very day.

Secondly, the development of the settlement structure of Austria has been determined by the topographical conditions of the country. With the Alps accounting for about 60% of its total area, no more than 40% is available for permanent settlement. Given this limitation, all the vital functions of human settlement (housing, work, transport, recreation) are in fierce competition for suitable land. Hence, it is crucial for Austria to have a well-balanced regional policy in the ecologically sensitive Alpine regions.

2.2 Classification of communities by size

A clear distinction between the urban and rural components of the settlement system is not always possible. There is no clear definition of rural areas, nor can urban areas be identified merely on the basis of community size. Classification is particularly difficult in the case of low-population communities.

Hence, the division of the settlement system into urban and rural regions, with 5000 inhabitants being the upper limit for rural communities, permits no more than a rough classification. On this basis, 3.5 million inhabitants (45%) of Austria live in rural regions, whereas 4.3 million (55%) are town-dwellers. In 1961, the share of urban areas was even lower, i.e. 3.8 million or 53%. Thus, the degree of urbanisation in Austria is very low by international comparison, with urban inhabitants accounting for 86 % of the population in Germany, 63% in Switzerland and 70% in Italy.

*Authored by Dr. Heinz Faßmann, Institute for Urban and Regional Research, Austrian Academy of Science, Vienna

⁴Baratta Mario (ed.): Der Fischer Weltatmanach 1995, Frankfurt/M. 1994

The share of rural regions in the overall settlement system is shrinking.

In 1991, 28% of the population lived in communities of up to 2,500 inhabitants, such communities constituting the core elements of the rural area.

In 1961, communities of that size accounted for more than one third of the Austrian population. The decrease of the rural population is directly related to structural change in agriculture. Increased productivity in agriculture, the loss of jobs in farming and related sectors, and the widening relative prosperity gap between town and country resulted in a rural exodus.

Table 1: Residential population by community sizes 1961 - 1991

Community sizes	1961	1971	1981	1991
	absolute figures in units of 1,000			
up to 2,500	2,314	2,288	2,238	2,214
2,500-5,000	972	1,130	1,156	1,282
5,000-10,000	598	646	773	847
10,000- 50,000	845	979	915	963
50,000-500,000	718	829	941	950
Vienna	1,628	1,620	1,531	1,540
Austria	7,074	7,492	7,555	7,796
	in per cent			
up to 2,500	32.7	30.5	29.6	28.4
2,500-5,000	13.7	15.1	15.3	16.4
5,000-10,000	8.5	8.6	10.2	10.9
10,000-50,000	11.9	13.1	12.1	12.4
50,000-500,000	10.1	11.1	12.5	12.2
Vienna	23.0	21.7	20.3	19.8
Austria	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Austrian Central Statistical Office (ÖSTAT), census results, own calculations

The situation is different in communities of between 2,500 and 5,000 inhabitants. This category includes larger villages, towns with courts and small towns with a small population. Many of these settlements can be classified as being part of the rural area, whereas others are more urban in character. In Austria, a total of 1.3 million people live in communities of between 2,500 and 5,000 inhabitants, i.e. 300,000 more (+ 31.9%) than 30 years ago. This development is the result of the merger of local authorities into larger units, on the one hand, and of migration within Austria, on the other hand.

As regards communities which are classified as towns on account of their size, the distribution of population is marked by a dichotomy. A relatively high percentage of the population live in communities of between 5,000 and 50,000 inhabitants, on the one hand, and in the country's capital, on the other. Although the population of Vienna fell from 1.63 million in 1961 to 1.54 million in 1991, Vienna still accounts for almost one fifth or even a quarter of the Austrian population, depending on whether only the city proper is considered or also the greater Vienna area.

Another 25% of the Austrian population live in small and medium-sized towns of between 5,000 and 50,000 inhabitants. Already in the Middle Ages, many of these small towns received a charter granting them town status or the right to hold a market. Since subsequent economic developments concentrated primarily on the larger towns of the Habsburg Empire and, later on, of the Republic of Austria, apart from a few industrial locations, many of the medieval and baroque buildings have remained largely intact. Hence, small and medium-sized towns possess noteworthy architectural treasures, many of which have been saved from decay through state support and private investment. Above all, towns which are located within the catchment area of major conurbations have experienced a remarkable social revival in recent decades. A great deal of money is being spent on maintaining them in excellent condition.

Overall, the country's small and medium-sized towns are among the fastest growing settlement structures. During the past thirty years, communities of between 5,000 and 10,000 inhabitants have recorded a population growth of 42% and communities of between 10,000 and 15,000 inhabitants a growth of 14%. The impact of regional planning, which aims to provide a well-balanced infrastructure through the establishment of schools, hospitals and other public facilities, is not to be underestimated in this context.

The dichotomy of the urban settlement structure is partially caused by the relatively small size of the provincial capitals. Compared with Vienna - but also in relation to the population figures of some provinces - the provincial capitals are too small. Some 12% of the 7.8 million Austrians live in towns of between 50,000 and 500,000 inhabitants. Except for Eisenstadt and Bregenz, all the provincial capitals belong to this category.

There has been a remarkably rapid increase of population in communities of between 50,000 and 500,000 inhabitants. Over the past thirty years, the provincial capitals (Bregenz and Eisenstadt excluded) have gained 32% in terms of population.

Thus, provincial capitals, after small towns, are the second-fastest growing component of the settlement structure. However, this development has by no means eliminated the dichotomy of the urban system.

2.3. Ranking of communities by size

The dichotomy of the urban system, which is dominated by the City of Vienna on the one hand and a large number of small and medium-sized towns of between 5,000 and 50,000 inhabitants on the other, is the product of the country's historical heritage. After 1918, with the loss of the capitals of the countries once united under the Habsburg Monarchy, above all Budapest and Prague, a settlement structure could not develop according to the natural ranking of communities by size. What remained in the Republic of Austria was Vienna as an oversized capital and a large number of small and medium-sized towns.

This dichotomy has survived without much change to the present day, despite the fact that the provincial capitals have been "catching up", as stated above, during the past thirty years. Ultimately, this may be regarded as the achievement of an explicit policy of "central settlements", with the aim of providing small and medium-sized towns with vital public functions and, thus, halting their shrinkage.

These structural characteristics and the changes in the Austrian settlement system can be illustrated through the rank-size approach, which ranks all urban settlements according to their population figures and assigns a corresponding rank order to them. This method reveals that the ranking of Austrian towns by size has changed only moderately during the past thirty years.

The first seven Austrian towns in order of size have experienced slightly diverging demographic developments during the past thirty years, but have remained in the same order. Vienna continues to be by far the largest town, followed by Graz, Linz, Salzburg, Innsbruck, Klagenfurt and Villach. A slight population decline was recorded in Vienna, whereas population figures have stagnated in Graz and Linz and increased in western Austria, above all in Salzburg and Innsbruck. Re-rankings have taken place only from rank eight downwards: in the 1970s, for example, St. Pölten was "overtaken" by Wels.

The causes for the "decline" or "rise" of urban settlements on this ranking scale are most varied. In some cases, changing community borders may have resulted in changes in population figures, but mostly communities move up or down in rank because of their location. In communities close to major cities, an increasing number of inhabitants have become commuters in the last few decades. This has resulted in a massive population increase and a higher place on the ranking scale.

The opposite is the case with communities which are remote from major conurbations or affected by out-migration as a result of economic restructuring.

Thus, the urban system in Austria is characterised by a "primacy distribution". Compared with Graz, Linz, Salzburg, Innsbruck and all other towns, the primacy of Vienna is maintained by a wide margin.

The stability of this settlement system with its specifically Austrian features is quite remarkable. There is a certain trend towards a more balanced distribution by size, but - assuming a continuation of the current changes - it will take a very long time to establish itself.

2.4. The East-West differential

For centuries, the settlement structure and the distribution of the population throughout Austria were determined by the geo-political orientation of the Habsburg Empire. Given the Central European focus of the Monarchy, the majority of the population lived in the east of Austria, the Alpine regions in the west being in a peripheral location. Hence, the eastern provinces were hit hardest by the break-up of the political, cultural and economic links of the past.

After 1945, the distribution of the population and the settlement structure in Austria were again subject to change as a result of external political influences. The eastern provinces of Lower Austria, Burgenland, and parts of Vienna were under Soviet occupation. Economically disadvantaged through being cut off from ERP funds⁵ and through the dismantling of industrial enterprises, these parts of the country suffered considerable out-migration. The losses caused by East-West migration and the delayed beginning of reconstruction could not be made up for until several decades later.

By 1991, the population of Vienna had dropped to 1.54 million, down from 1.62 million in 1951. More recently, Styria has also been among the provinces with a declining population. Since 1971, the province has lost 10,000 inhabitants. In Burgenland and Lower Austria, the population has stagnated or increased only slightly since 1951.

The western provinces recorded a much stronger population growth, above all the Province of Vorarlberg, whose population grew from 193,700 in 1951 to 331,500 in 1991. Thus, the population of the westernmost province of Austria increased by as much as 71.7 %. The situation was similar in Salzburg and the Tyrol. Between 1951 and 1991, Salzburg recorded an increase of its resident population by 154,500 persons (up by 47.2 % from 1951), the Tyrol by 203,900 persons (47.7%).

⁵ ERP: European Recovery Program (Marshall Plan)

The population gains in the western provinces mainly result from higher birth rates and lower death rates. Since 1951, the Tyrol, Vorarlberg, Salzburg and Upper Austria have recorded a considerable excess of births over deaths. It was not unusual for the population to increase by more than 10% within a decade solely as a result of high birth rates and low death rates. Between 1961 and 1971, in particular, the excess of births over deaths was very high in the western provinces. Compared with that, the effect of in-migration was far less significant. Although a positive migration balance was recorded in Vorarlberg, the Tyrol and Salzburg after 1961, as well as in Lower Austria and Upper Austria after 1971, the contribution of in-migration to population growth in the western provinces was less significant than that of high birth rates.

Given the scarcity of land suitable for human settlement in the western provinces, the high population growth led to considerable problems in terms of regional planning. In the provinces of the Tyrol, Vorarlberg and Salzburg, less than 25% of the territory is inhabitable, whereas in Lower Austria and Burgenland as much as 60% and 66 % respectively is suitable for permanent settlement. Along the narrow valleys of the western provinces (above all along the Inn and Salzach Rivers), traffic, industry, recreation and housing compete for the little space available. As a result of this massive consolidation of vital societal facilities, the price of land has gone up considerably, and conflicts have arisen over its use.

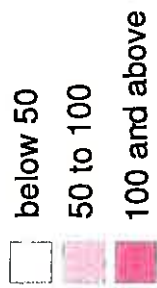
The population density in Austria is 93 persons per km² of territory, which is a very low figure by West European standards. However, given the fact that only less than 39% of the territory is suitable for permanent settlement, the actual population density in the inhabitable parts of the country is comparable to that of the Netherlands (334 persons/km²), Belgium (320 persons/km²) or Germany (240 persons/km²).

There are major variations between the nine Austrian provinces in terms of population density. Not surprisingly, the highest population density is to be found in the Province of Vienna, with 4.711 persons per km² available for permanent settlement. High population densities are also to be found in the western parts of the country, i.e. Vorarlberg, the Tyrol and Salzburg, provinces in which only minor parts of the territory are suitable for permanent settlement. In these provinces, human settlements are confined to a few valleys and some foothills of the Alps. The eastern provinces of Burgenland and Lower Austria, where the differences between permanently inhabitable land and total territory are less significant, are more sparsely populated.

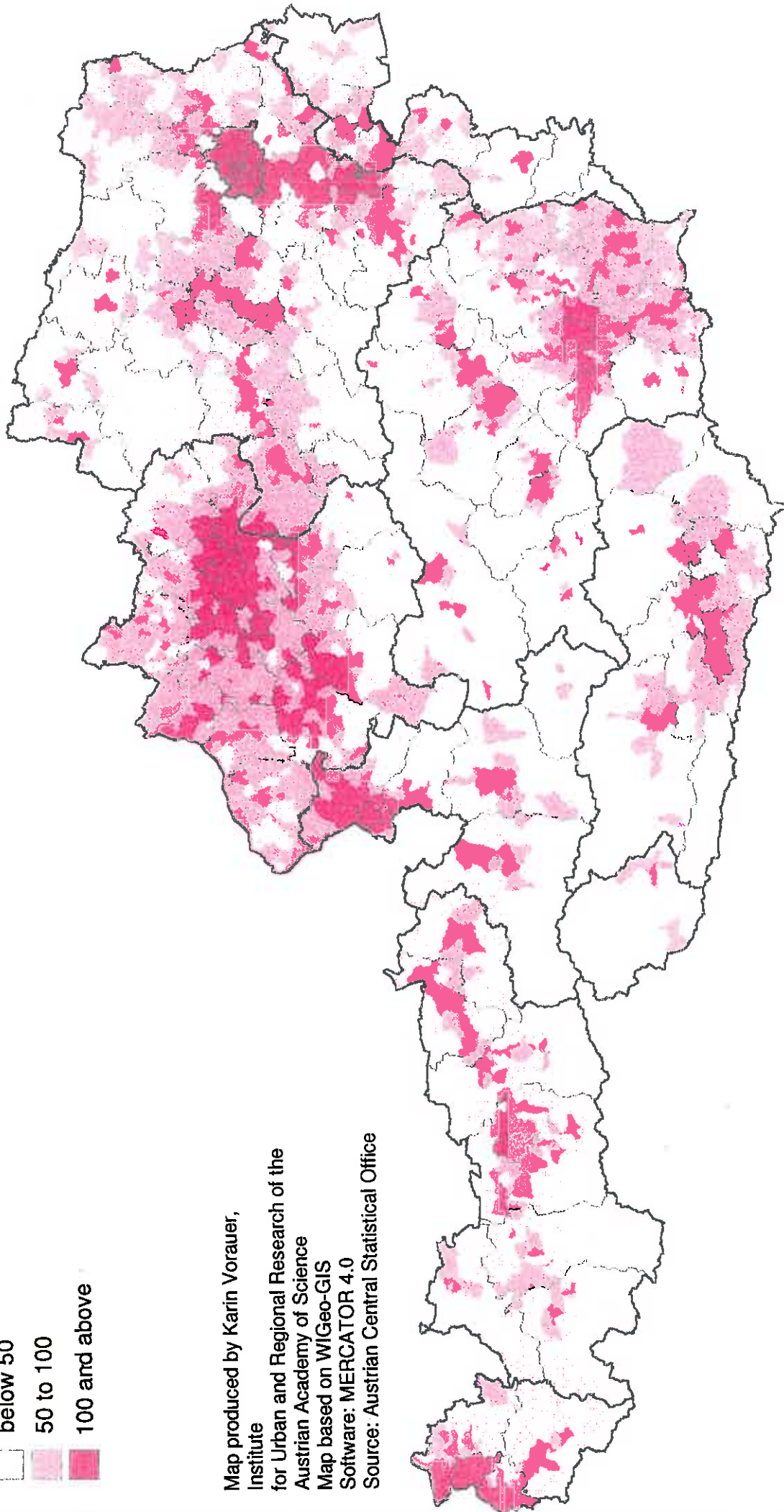
The following maps illustrate these phenomena and their evolution over the past three decades up to 1991.

POPULATION DENSITY IN AUSTRIA IN 1991

Residential population per qkm









Map produced by Karin Voraue,
Institute
for Urban and Regional Research of the
Austrian Academy of Science
Map based on WIGeo-GIS
Software: MERCATOR 4.0
Source: Austrian Central Statistical Office



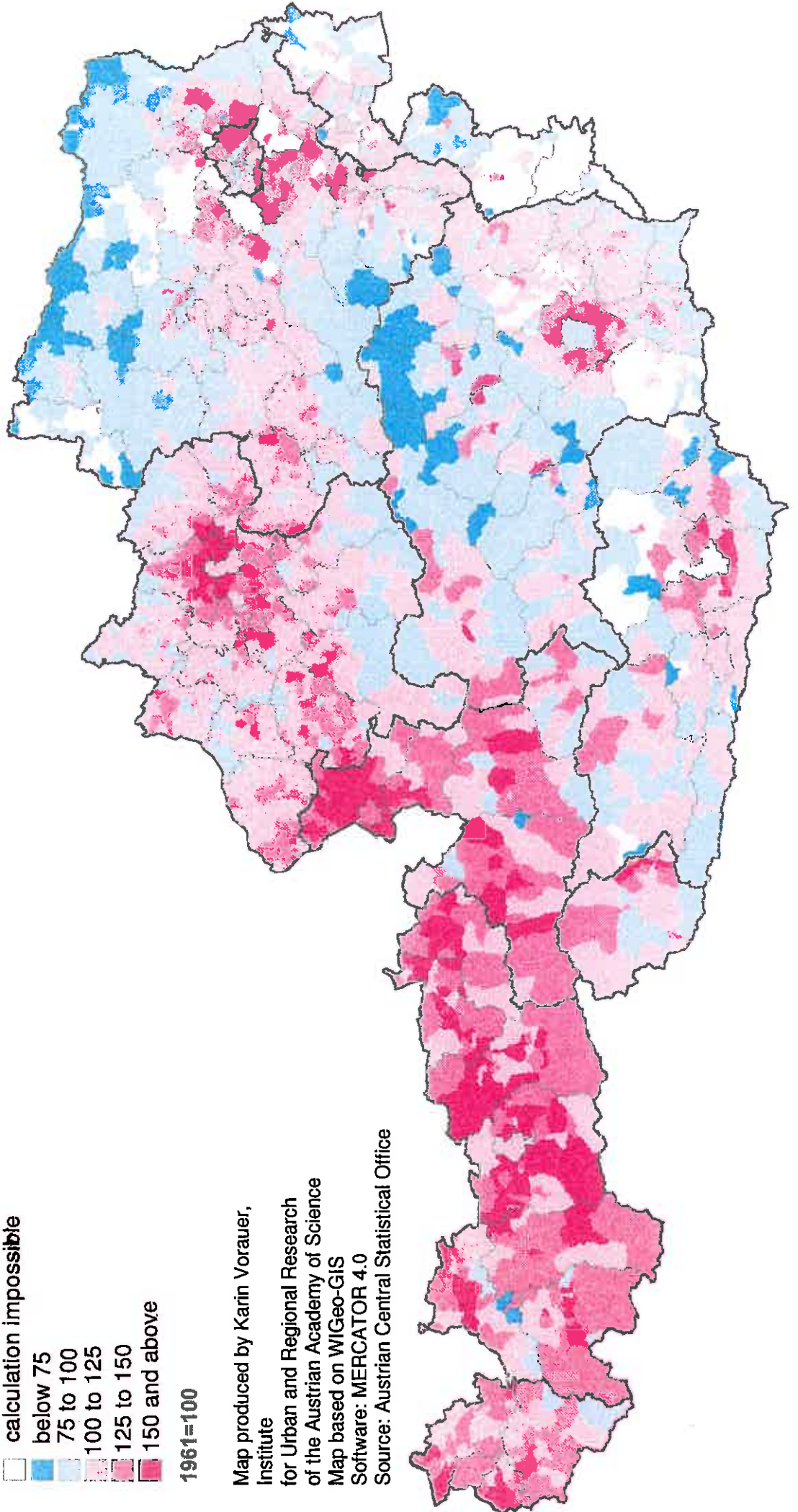
DEVELOPMENT OF POPULATION DENSITY IN AUSTRIA 1961 - 1991

Residential population per qkm Changes 1961 - 1991

-  calculation impossible
-  below 75
-  75 to 100
-  100 to 125
-  125 to 150
-  150 and above

1961=100

Map produced by Karin Vorauer,
Institute
for Urban and Regional Research
of the Austrian Academy of Science
Map based on WIGEO-GIS
Software: MERCATOR 4.0
Source: Austrian Central Statistical Office



2.5. Outlook

By European standards, Austria presents a relatively low degree of urbanisation, with a relatively large number of inhabitants living in rural regions. The urban settlement system is marked by a clear dichotomy between the capital of Vienna on the one hand, and numerous small and medium-sized towns on the other hand, with no towns ranking in size in between. The preceding chapter explained this phenomenon as the product of an inherited settlement structure and analysed its long-term persistence.

In spite of the high level of persistence in the Austrian settlement structure, some changes do occur: communities grow in size or decline. The reasons for these changes are clearly identifiable. Communities in suburban catchment areas and communities in the western provinces tend to grow, whereas settlements in peripheral locations, remote from the catchment area of major towns, tend to shrink, as do settlements in regions with declining industries which are oversized in relation to the local economy.

Regional demographic forecasts⁶ point to a continued growth of central districts and suburban communities. This growth is largely independent of external influences and results from internal migration or, in the western provinces, from higher birth rates. Given the growing demand for space for housing, recreation, traffic and labour, the specific regional planning problems of the western provinces will become even more intense in the future.

However, the future growth or decline of core towns, particularly in the east of Austria and, above all, Vienna, will depend on in-migration from abroad and thus be subject to external and political influences. Without in-migration, Vienna and Graz would shrink at a relatively fast rate, whereas in-migration would keep the population figures more or less constant.

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⁶see Faßmann, Findl and Münz, 1992

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3. OUTLINE OF THE HOUSING SITUATION IN AUSTRIA*

3.1. Introduction (Austria - socio-economic system and housing situation)

The Austrian political system is based on a democratic constitution, which forms the basis of a federal state. Following the establishment of the democratic system after the end of the First World War, the country was in a permanent state of economic and political crisis. Against this background, the country lived through an authoritarian regime, saw the rise to power of National Socialism and, finally, entered into the Second World War. At the end of the war, a complete reorientation took place. Since 1945, the two major parties (Social Democrats and People's Party) have ruled the country through alternating single-party and coalition governments, all of them based on the overriding consensus of a social welfare state.

Within Europe or the group of OECD countries, Austria is a country with a relatively high level of economic prosperity. Within the European Union, which Austria joined at the beginning of 1995, the country ranks in the top third in terms of its per-capita gross domestic product and is one of the net payers. Within the OECD, Austria holds a position in the upper half. In terms of unemployment, the Austrian situation is much more favourable than the EU average, and in terms of economic growth and inflation the country is close to the EEA average. Austria has consistently pursued a hard-currency policy. Recently, the simultaneous occurrence of economic stagnation, rising public-sector spending and the demands of European integration have resulted in an extremely tight budgetary situation, which will have to be dealt with in the years to come.

As can be seen from a comparison of the data available, the housing situation appears to be somewhat less favourable than the economic situation in general, both with regard to the size of dwellings available and their technical standard, i.e. fixtures and fittings. However, it should be noted that housing conditions have improved greatly over the past twenty years. Whereas public-sector spending on housing subsidies has tended to increase in many other countries, Austria has succeeded in improving housing conditions, while keeping the amount of public funding for housing purposes relatively constant (about 1.1% of GDP or 3.4% of total public-sector spending) at a level which is below that of many other countries. Compared to other countries, Austria has opted for a different approach, above all in the field of subsidised housing construction: the main emphasis is on supply-side, property-linked measures, with a clear preference for direct public-sector loans over interest and debt-service subsidies. The system of indirect subsidies and person-linked subsidies is of lesser importance.

*Authored by Mag. Eva Bauer, Austrian Association of Non-Profit Housing Construction Associations, Vienna

Housing costs are subject to relatively strict regulation by a variety of instruments. For decades, there was little room for housing costs to evolve in accordance with the market situation; a wider margin for the free play of market forces has been allowed only recently and, hence, the most noticeable development in costs in recent years has been the fact that housing costs have been catching up. Over the past 20 years, housing costs as a percentage of disposable income have increased sharply: in fact, the share of disposable income accounted for by housing costs has doubled during that period. However, this has not had a negative impact on the level of consumption, given the fact that disposable incomes have grown in real terms. Similar tendencies can be observed in other European countries, although they are more pronounced in Austria.

Another characteristic of the Austrian housing situation is worthy of mention: the majority of housing-policy measures go beyond the narrow framework of providing low-cost housing for the socially underprivileged. Housing policy in Austria comprises economic-policy aspects as well as income and social-policy considerations. In addition, housing policy is associated with urban, regional and traffic planning.

3.2. Housing stock and housing supply

3.2.1 Status quo

As regards housing supply, Austria holds an average rather than a top-ranking position among the European countries, even though the percentage of new dwellings built has increased in recent years.

	Dwellings completed	Dwellings approved	Housing construction rate (dwellings completed per 1,000 inhabitants)
1985	41,153	35,470	5.5
1986	38,838	33,308	5.1
1987	38,494	35,664	5.1
1988	39,226	36,211	5.2
1989	37,947	37,759	5.0
1990	36,553	36,196	4.7
1991	40,372	42,007	5.2
1992	40,889	51,846	5.2
1993	43,449	58,316	5.4
1994	48,851	60,984	6.1

It should be pointed out that the quality of the data available for international comparisons of the housing supply situation leaves much to be desired, and any statement based on these data needs, therefore, to be interpreted with care. For example, the sources available for international comparison (OECD, EUROSTAT) do not distinguish between house ownership and flat ownership.

Housing stock in Austria (see diagram on page 27)

According to the results of the 1991 census of buildings and dwelling units, approx. 45% of all dwellings were to be found in single- and two-family houses. These include dwellings occupied by tenants and those used as second homes. Just over one third of all dwellings are owner-occupied. About 43% of all owner-occupied dwellings have been built with some form of public support. Approximately one sixth of all flats count as privately owned; within this category, too, some are tenant-occupied. Most of these flats have been built with public subsidies. Local authorities - mostly municipalities - and non-profit housing associations own about 10% each of all flats and rent them out to tenants. This sector is often classified as low-cost social housing, but this classification does not fully apply in the Austrian case, even though almost all of these flats have been subsidised by the state. The number of flats built by profit-making developers for renting is fairly limited, and public subsidies have been granted for approximately 50% of them. Between 12 and 15% of all rented flats are owned by private house owners - most of them were built before 1918, at a time when housing subsidies did not yet exist. About half of these dwellings have no modern conveniences (WC and/or bathroom).

In addition, there are flats in multi-storey buildings used as second homes, and others for which no particular use was indicated at the time of the census.

Depending on the level of analysis chosen and the assumptions made, the rate of home ownership varies between 50 and 60% of the total housing stock.

A comparison between the total housing stock and the dwellings built during the most recent construction period reveals the current trends: both owner-occupied houses - including subsidised dwellings - and owner-occupied flats are gaining in importance. The rate of home ownership within the most recent housing stock is between 60 and 75%.

Rented flats built by non-profit building associations account for a growing percentage of newly built dwellings. The percentage of dwellings owned by local authorities is declining. Taken together, the two sectors are less important today than they used to be. The number of flats rented out by private owners of residential real estate is negligible within the most recent housing stock.

3.2.2. Changes in the housing supply situation between 1971 and 1991 (see diagrams on pages 31 - 34)

For a number of reasons, it took a relatively long time for the housing supply situation in Austria to improve decisively. The 19th century had left the country with a rather large stock of small and poorly equipped dwellings in its large cities, above all Vienna. The City of Vienna's inter-war housing construction programme constituted a major step forward in terms of the size and quality of dwellings, compared with the stock of private housing available at that time, but the real progress achieved was still rather moderate. The rate of housing construction declined sharply between 1934 and 1939 and under the Nazi regime, for the country's economy was focused primarily on preparing for war. Housing was "created" primarily through the expulsion and extermination of the Jewish population. The amount of destruction caused by the war was also relatively high in Austria.

Hence, the first post-war housing construction programmes concentrated on repairing and rebuilding in order to overcome the most acute housing shortage. In terms of size and technical standard, the newly built dwellings remained on a low level. As late as 1961, there were fewer dwellings than households in Austria. It was only through the high rate of housing construction in the 1960s that "normal" housing conditions were created in Austria. Substantial improvements of the housing supply situation were achieved in the 70s and 80s:

During this period, the quantitative ratio of households to dwellings improved markedly. Whereas in 1971 there were 1.04 households per "inhabited dwelling" (i.e. 4% of all households had to share a dwelling with another household), the corresponding figure for 1991 was down to 1.02 households per "dwelling serving as main residence". This change is due to the improvement of the housing situation and also to social developments (declining number of multi-generational households). Even in 1971, the total number of dwellings (i.e. dwellings serving as main residence plus secondary residences and uninhabited dwellings) already exceeded the number of households - with 105 dwellings available for 100 households; by 1991, the ratio had increased to 113 dwellings for 100 households. This is due to the increasing number of second homes used for leisure-time pursuits and the growing number of (temporarily) uninhabited dwellings.

The size of dwellings has also increased considerably over the past 20 years. In 1971, the average size of dwelling was 66 m², with more than 50% of all dwelling units consisting of one or two

rooms. By 1991, the average size had increased to 85 m², i.e. by almost one third; the number of dwellings with one or two rooms declined in absolute terms (combination of small units into larger dwellings, demolition), their share in the total housing stock falling to 37%.

The improvement of the housing situation is also due to the fact that households have become smaller, a trend accounted for by the declining average number of children, the higher life expectancy and the growing number of persons living on their own. Whereas in 1971 the average number of persons per household was 2.9, in 1991 the figure was down to 2.5 in 1991 (almost identical with the average number of inhabitants per dwelling). These developments - larger dwellings and smaller households - have resulted in a clear improvement of the individual housing supply situation: whereas the average floor space available per inhabitant was 22 m² in 1971, it had increased to 33 m², i.e. up by 50%, by 1991. The percentage of over-occupied dwellings has dropped sharply over the past 20 years: measured by present-day standards, about one third of all dwellings (approx. 790,000 dwellings) were classified as over-occupied in 1971, the corresponding figure for 1991 being down to 12% (about 340,000 dwellings). At the same time, the number of dwellings to be classified as under-occupied has increased noticeably over the past ten years.

Even more remarkable than the growth of housing supply in terms of available floor space is the improvement of housing quality: in 1971, no more than about 360,000 dwellings, i.e. 15% of the total housing stock, qualified for inclusion in the "top category"; by 1991, this figure had increased to almost 2 million, with more than two thirds of all dwellings meeting the criteria of top-category housing. The number of most poorly equipped dwellings dropped by more than half over the same period (1971: 735,000, 1991: 337,000). This was due both to the large number of dwellings being upgraded and to the elimination of sub-standard dwellings from the housing stock.

A comparison of the corresponding developments in the 70s and 80s shows that the relative improvement of the housing supply during the 70s was greater than during the subsequent decade. This is due to two factors: the rate of new housing construction was higher between 1971 and 1981 (approx. 59,000 newly built dwellings per year) than between 1981 and 1991 (about 47,000 newly built dwellings per year); at the same time, the number of households showed the opposite development - an annual net increase by 22.700 households between 1971 and 1981, compared with an annual net increase by 25.100 between 1981 and 1991. This accounts, at least partly, for the growing demand for housing in recent years.

The socio-economic situation in (large) towns differs from that of rural regions for a variety of social and economic reasons. There is also a difference in housing conditions between towns and the country, which is why trends in Vienna are similar to, but more or less pronounced than in the rest of the country.

Both households and dwellings tend to be smaller in towns, the smaller size of dwellings being due to the lack of owner-occupied houses. In 1971, the average size of flats in Vienna was 56 m², i.e. 10 m² below the Austrian average; by 1991, the difference had increased to 17 m² (Vienna: 68 m²; Austria: 85 m²). The share of dwellings with 1 and 2 rooms in Vienna, which accounted for almost 70% in 1971, still stood at 53% in 1991.

Nevertheless, due to the large number of small households, the average living space available per person in Vienna corresponds to the Austrian average (25m² per person in 1971, 33 m² in 1991). The rate of over-occupation has also dropped sharply in Vienna (1971: 29% of all flats over-occupied; 1991: 12%).

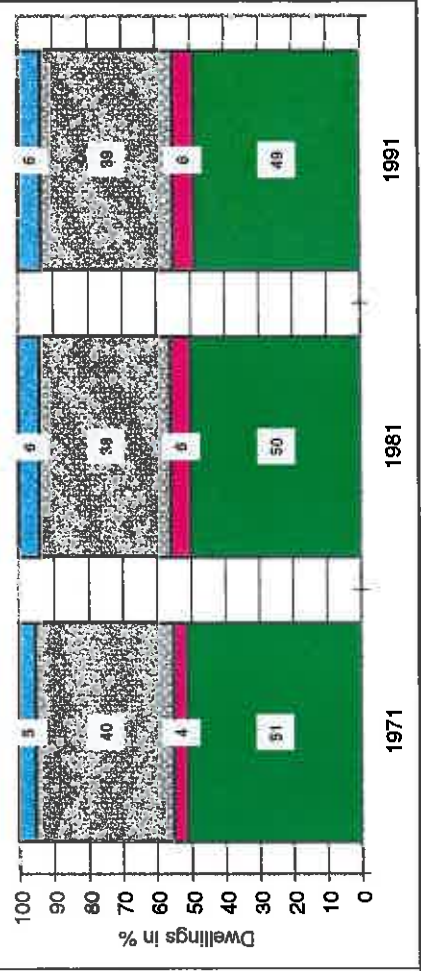
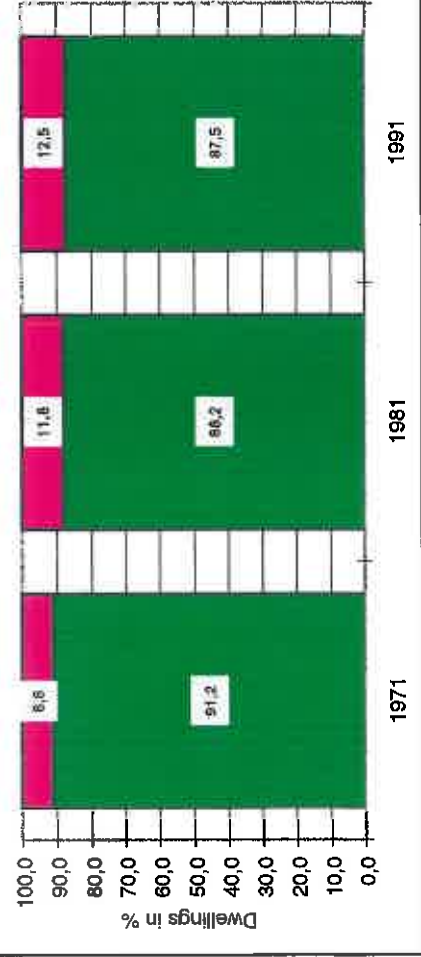
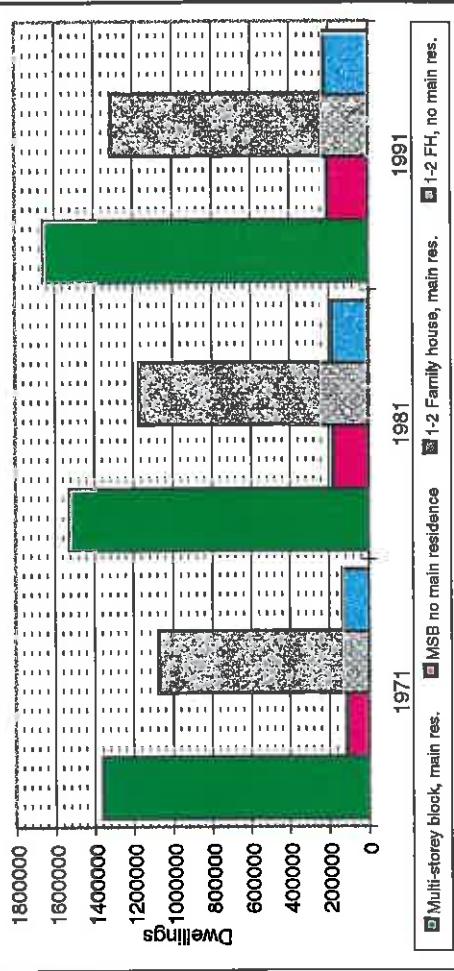
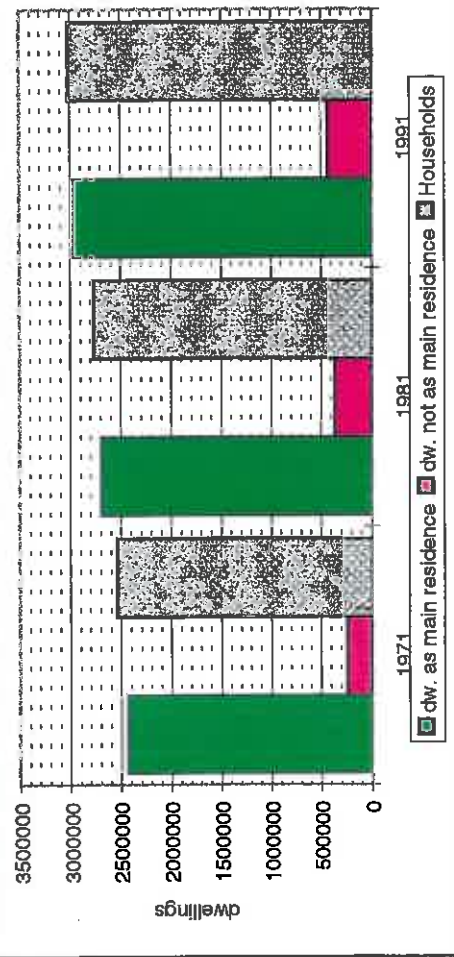
Between 1971 and 1991, the standard of fixtures and fittings in dwellings in Vienna improved considerably: the percentage of top-rated dwellings increased from 8 % to 65 %, whereas the share of lower-rated dwellings fell from 33% to 18% (1971: 239,999 flats; 1991: 137.000 flats).

The balance were bottom-rated dwellings, the percentage of which dropped further to 10% by 1994.

A comparison between the 70s and 80s shows that the trend to be observed throughout Austria also applies to Vienna, though to a much greater extent. Whereas the number of households declined between 1971 and 1981 in absolute terms, the average rate of housing construction reached a record level (9,600 dwellings completed per year). Between 1981 and 1991, the average rate of housing construction was around 7,100 dwellings completed per year, whereas the net increase in the number of households was 2,200.

Austria: DWELLING UNITS - UTILISATION 1971 - 1981 - 1991

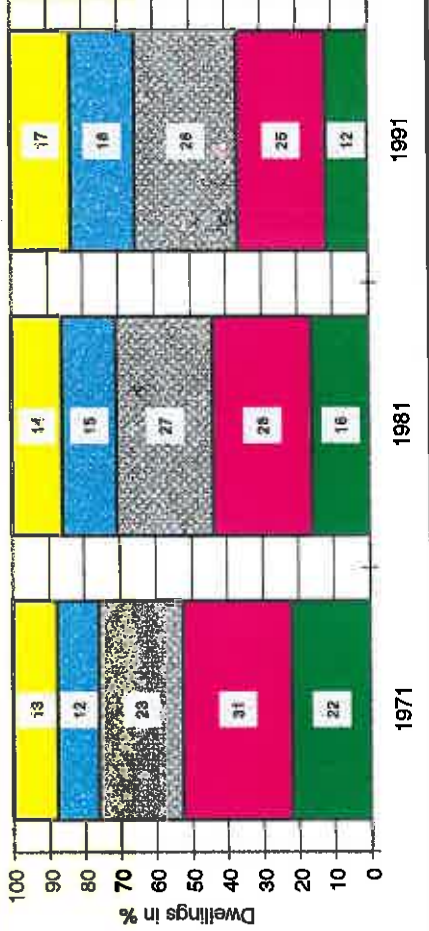
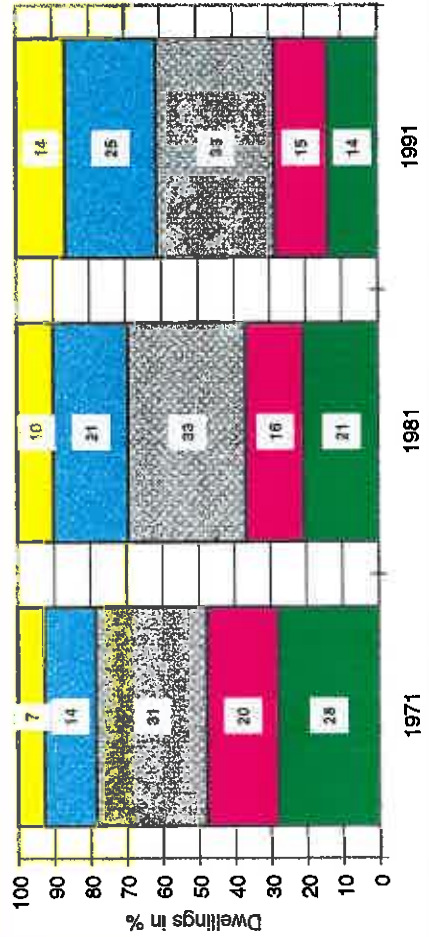
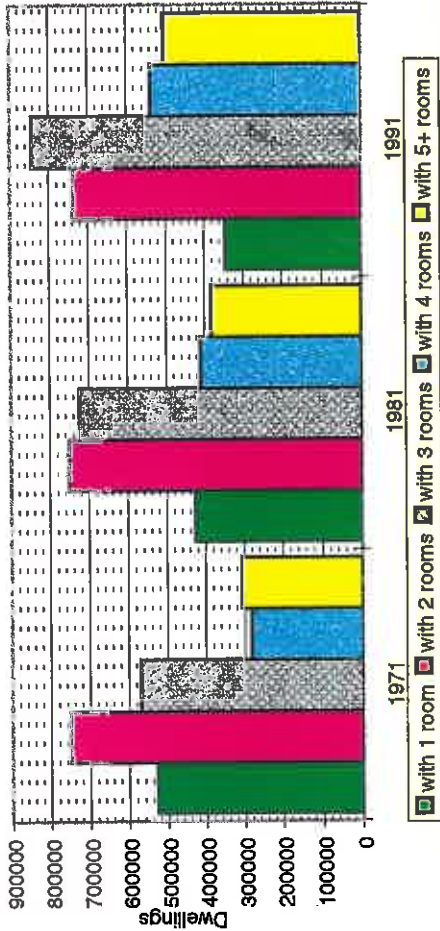
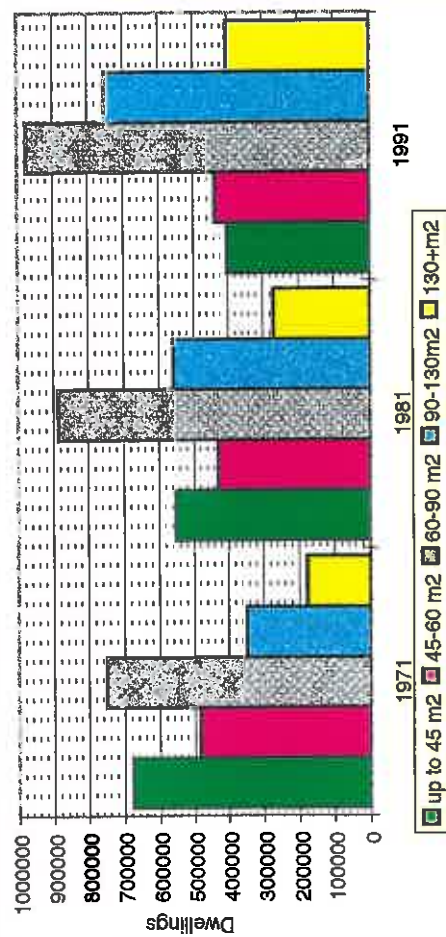
Dwelling units by utilisation	1971			1981			1991			annual change			change in %		
	1971	1981	1991	1971/81	1981/91	1981/91	1971/81	1981/91	1981/91	1971/81	1981/91	1971/81	1981/91	1981/91	
Dwellings total	2665942	3052036	3393271	38609	34124	393271	38609	34124	38609	34124	393271	38609	34124	11,2	
dw. as main residence	2431807	2692883	2967604	26108	27472	2967604	26108	27472	26108	27472	2967604	26108	27472	10,7	
dw. not as main residence	234135	359153	425667	12502	6651	425667	12502	6651	12502	6651	425667	12502	6651	53,4	
Households	2536000	2763000	3014000	22700	25100	3014000	22700	25100	22700	25100	3014000	22700	25100	9,0	
Dwellings/household	1,05	1,10	1,13											5,1	
Household/dw. as main res.	1,04	1,03	1,02											-1,6	
"Multiple households"	104193	70117	46396	-3408	-2372	46396	-3408	-2372	-3408	-2372	46396	-3408	-2372	-33,8	
as % of all households	4,1	2,5	1,5												



Austria: DWELLING UNITS BY SIZE 1971 - 1981 - 1991

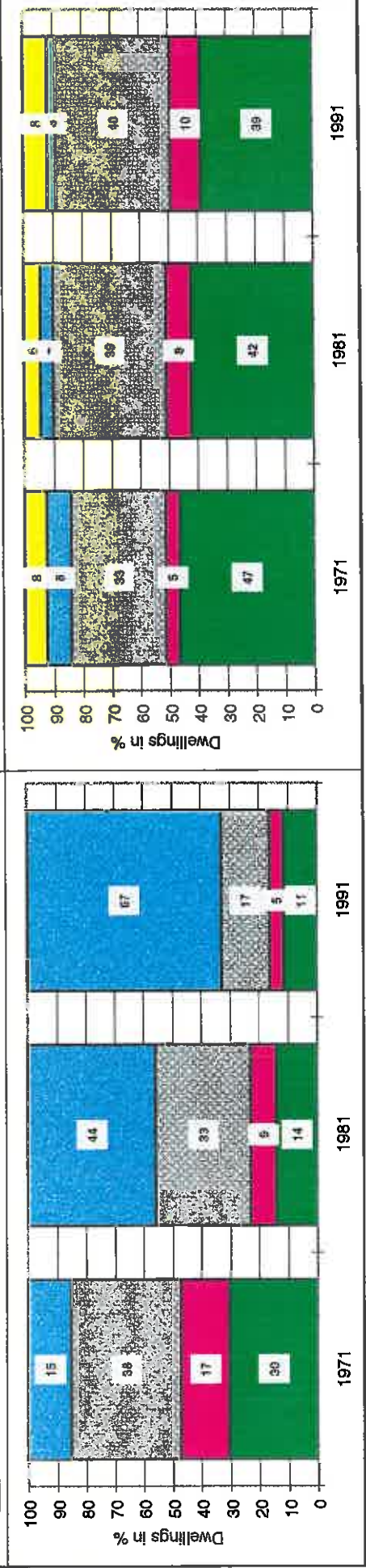
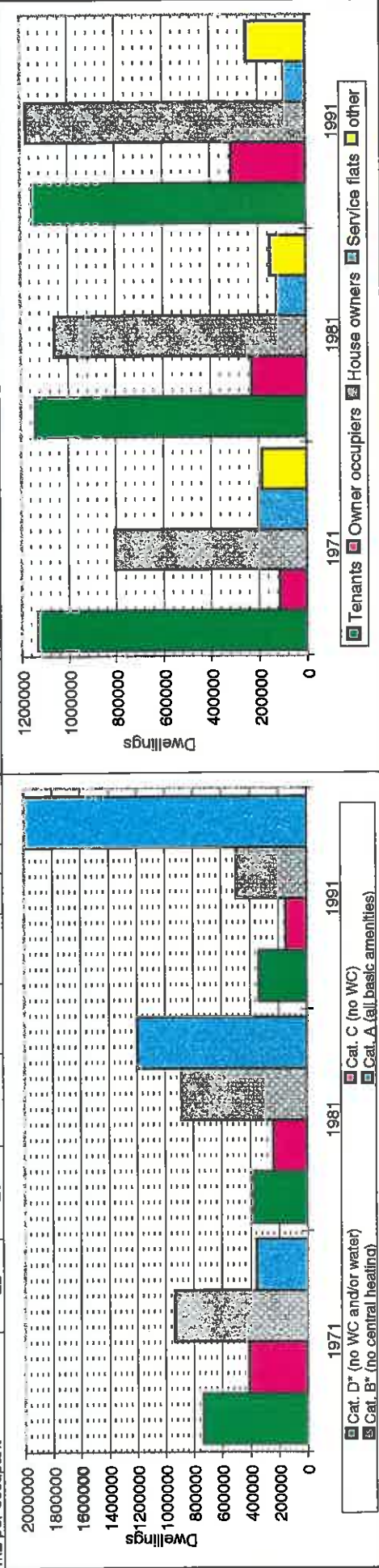
Dwellings by m ²		annual change		change in %	
	1971	1981	1971/81	1981/91	1981/91
Dwellings as main res.	2431807	2692883	2967604	2967604	2967604
up to 45 m ²	678668	552625	402216	-12424	-18.4
45-60 m ²	482253	429539	437048	-5271	-10.9
60-90 m ²	748893	884185	974681	13529	18.1
90-130m ²	347550	557597	751388	21005	60.4
130+m ²	176338	268937	402271	9260	52.5
m ² per dwelling	66	77	85	16.7	10.4
m ² per occupant	22	28	33	27.3	17.9

Dwellings by rooms (kitchen not included)		annual change		change in %	
	1971	1981	1971/81	1981/91	1981/91
Dwellings as main res.	2431807	2692883	2967604	2967604	2967604
with 1 room	527262	426181	527262	-8052	-19.2
with 2 rooms	749169	750788	737787	162	0.2
with 3 rooms	568961	722489	843480	15363	27.0
with 4 rooms	281542	410683	537778	12914	45.9
with 5+ rooms	305068	382742	502902	7767	25.5
Rooms per person	0.91	1.05	1.23	15.5	17.1
Persons per room	1.10	1.00	0.81	-9.1	-18.7



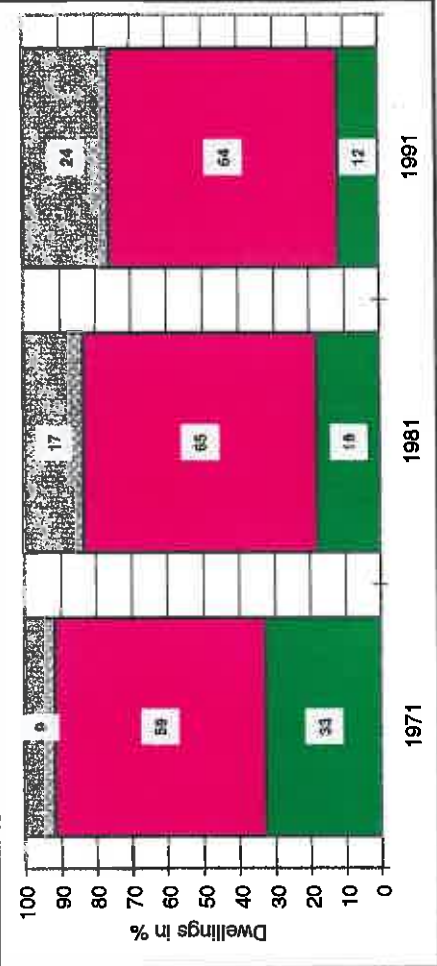
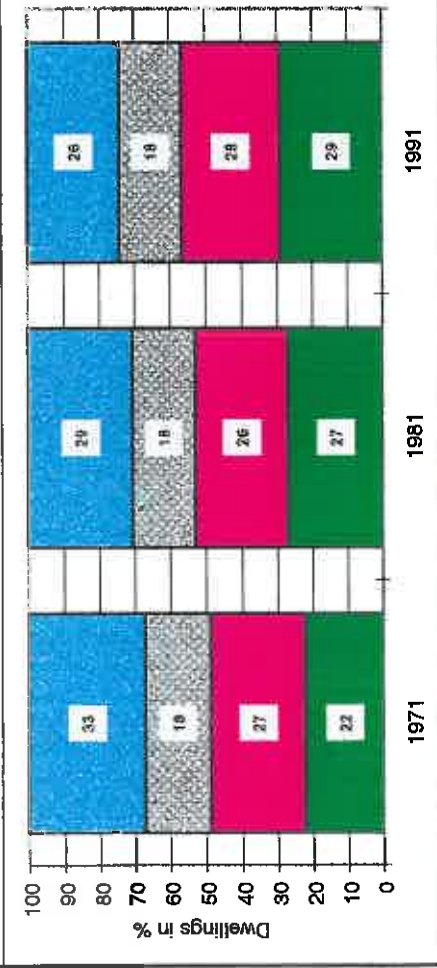
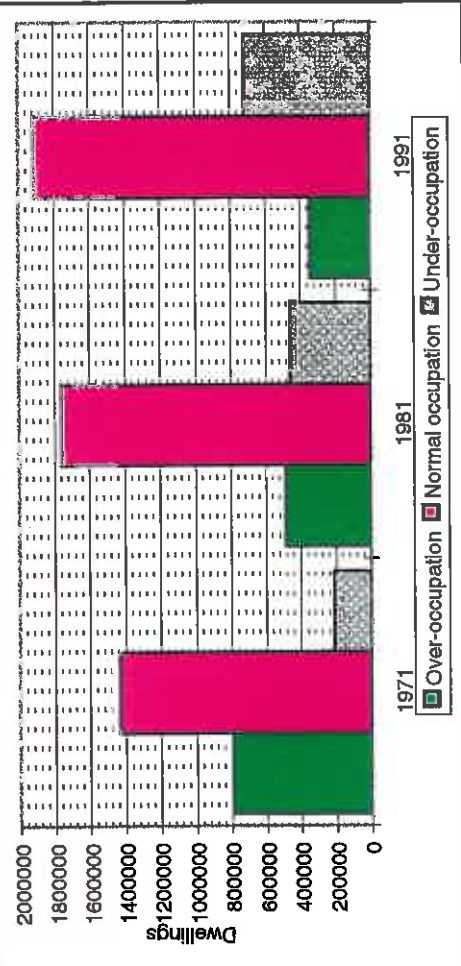
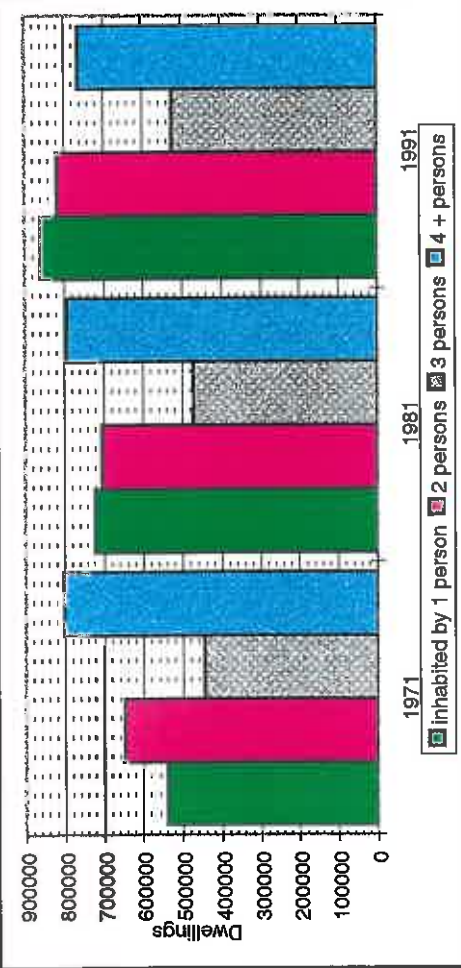
Austria: DWELLING UNITS - TECHNICAL STANDARD - OWNERSHIP 1971 - 1981 - 1991

Dwellings by technical standard		annual change			change in %		
* 1991 different classification	1971	1981	1991	1971/81	1981/91	1971/81	1981/91
Dwellings as main res.	2431807	2692883	2967604	2692883	2967604	27472	10,2
Cat. D* (no WC and/or water)	735301	380535	336975	-35477	-4356	854	0,8
Cat. C (no WC)	409195	235501	143715	-17369	-9179	8425	103,3
Cat. B* (no central heating)	928780	882776	492054	-4600	-39072	11476	37,3
Cat. A (all basic amenities)	358626	1194071	1994860	83545	80079	1174311	25365
Cat. A - newly built			59000	46900		88579	-7928
	66	77	85			244903	-3659
m2 per dwelling	22	26	33			9570	-19,7
m2 per occupant							64,1
							15,5
							-9,1
							-18,7



Austria: DWELLING UNITS - INHABITANTS 1971 - 1981 - 1991

	Dwellings by inhabitants			annual change			change in %		
	1971	1981	1991	1971/81	1981/91	1981/91	1971/81	1981/91	1981/91
Dwellings as main res.	2431807	2692883	2967604	26108	27472	27472	10,7	27472	10,2
inhabited by 1 person	539908	723053	860737	18315	13768	13768	33,9	13768	19,0
2 persons	647799	703962	818492	5616	11453	11453	8,7	11453	16,3
3 persons	443517	472665	525528	2915	5286	5286	6,6	5286	11,2
4 + persons	800583	793203	762847	-738	-3036	-3036	-0,9	-3036	-3,8
Persons in private households	7305100	7444382	7660445	13928	21606	21606	1,9	21606	2,9
Persons/household	2,88	2,69	2,54						
Occupants/inhabited dwelling	3,00	2,76	2,58						



3.3. The elements of Austrian housing policy

In the 19th century, when the fast development of industrial production was accompanied by rapid urban growth, housing construction was left to the private sector. State intervention was by and large limited to fiscal measures. However, it was during this period that the principal instruments of housing policy (protection of tenants, housing subsidies, non-profit provision of housing) emerged in the form of ideas, demands and to some small degree in the form of institutions.

3.3.1. Protection of tenants

Like many other countries, Austria enacted statutory provisions for the protection of tenants in the last years of the First World War. These provisions, which were taken over by the Republic, protect tenants from having their leases arbitrarily terminated and regulate the right to pass on rented flats as well as the time limitation on tenancy contracts. Though repeatedly revised, the pertinent provisions are still applicable today.

3.3.2. Rent control

The regulation of rents or in other words of the cost of flats is a core element of any housing policy. In Austria, the level and the development of housing costs are influenced by means of several control mechanisms:

- statutory rent control for privately owned or council flats completed before 1945;
- principle of cost coverage applying to flats built by non-profit building societies;
- housing subsidies.

3.3.2.1. Statutory maximum rents

Statutory rent restriction was first enacted in Austria in 1917, together with the provisions for the protection of tenants, and incorporated into the new Rent Law in 1922.

The low level of post-war rents, which corresponded to the social and economic conditions of the time, remained unchanged for decades. The only permissible way of increasing rents was to pass on maintenance costs to the tenants by way of an official procedure. The only type of housing exempt from rent control was privately financed new housing which played a secondary role, both in the inter-war period and in the period of reconstruction. This strict ceiling on rents, which resulted in a reduction of rents in real terms, is blamed for the emergence of a gray market of one-off payments.

The maximum-rent regulation was not relaxed until the late 60s, when gradual deregulation set in. The possibility of building up reserves for the maintenance and improvement of old housing stock from tenant contributions was not introduced until the beginning of the 80s. Apart from conceding additional payments for maintenance work, nothing was done to modify a key principle: no interference with existing contracts of tenancy; new regulations apply to new tenancies only. For two years now, new tenancies have come under the "benchmark system". Under this system flats can be let at a rent fixed by the Ministry of Justice, which is based on the price of building land and on construction costs. This rent can be marked up or down, depending on the location and the technical standard. Opinions vary as to the effects of this change in rent legislation, which had been discussed at great length. It was expected to lower the level of rents for flats which were to be newly let, a level which had previously been considered too high.

3.3.2.2. Rent ceilings for subsidised housing

Housing subsidies have been crucial for the construction of new buildings after the Second World War and have had a substantial influence on rent and price levels.

Provisions stipulating that the rents paid for subsidised flats should cover costs are either laid down in the subsidy laws or for non-profit developers in the Wohnungsgemeinnützigkeitsgesetz (Non-profit Housing Act). Hence, the rents in state-subsidised buildings depend on the construction and financing costs, which are decisively influenced by subsidisation. After the war, subsidies granted for reconstruction were designed in the interest of moderate housing costs to promote moderate wage and price developments and the stabilisation of the economy. As a result, rents were hardly higher than those paid for pre-war flats. The increase in the construction costs of new housing and the frequent modifications of the conditions for funding and subsidising over the last few decades have resulted in a highly heterogeneous cost structure. More recent flats differ from older ones not only in the (higher) level of costs but also in the development of rents and repayments: up to the 70s, the financing and subsidising structures generated nominally constant repayments; after that there was a shift towards dynamic rents and graduated grants or annual subsidies.

Since the principle of cost coverage also governs the construction of subsidised owner-occupied flats, the same applies, by and large, to flats built by non-profit developers.

3.3.2.3. Coverage of non-profit housing costs

In addition, mention should be made of the cost-coverage principle laid down in the Non-profit Housing Act which ties rents and sales prices to construction and financing costs. A certain number of recognised instruments for equity capital formation are exempted from this provision. Recently, the stringent principle of cost coverage was relaxed when low-rent flats in old-stock houses were re-let.

3.3.2.4. Development of housing costs over the past 20 years

Up to the end of the 60s, rent legislation was very restrictive and although the costs of new buildings were higher than those of pre-war housing, rents hardly followed suit. Both the rent legislation and the subsidy system were gradually reoriented from the 70s onwards: the low-rent system was discarded when flats were re-let and dynamic rents and repayments were introduced for new buildings as were dynamic maintenance contributions for existing housing stock. The result was a marked upward trend in the average rent level. In the past twenty years, Europe has been characterised by a constantly growing gap between the consumer price index and the rent index. This trend has been particularly strongly marked in Austria, since a catching-up process has been taking place in recent years. From the sparse data, which must be interpreted with caution, it is apparent that in the course of the 80s the share of household income spent on housing costs in Austria rose from a relatively low level to that of other countries. It is estimated that the percentage of household income spent on housing has doubled over the past twenty years. It must be underlined, however, that despite the higher level of rents, the corresponding development of personal income and the increase in the productive activity of women have resulted in an increase in real wages.

3.3.3. Housing subsidies

3.3.3.1 General remarks

The concept of subsidised housing goes back to the discussions on housing policy conducted in the 19th century. In Austria the practice was first instituted at the beginning of the 20th century, but in quantitative terms it was insignificant. This is, on the one hand, explained by the difficult economic situation and, on the other hand, by the differences between the two political camps. The municipal housing programme implemented between the wars by the Municipality of Vienna as a special form of housing subsidisation, was the first state subsidy scheme to have a tangible impact on the construction of new buildings. The municipal housing programme and the discussion triggered by it reflected the ideological conflict and the dramatic inter-war situation in Austria, which ended in civil war and the establishment of authoritarian rule.

After the end of the Second World War, political consensus was first of all reached on the need for subsidising reconstruction and new building. The public funds required were raised through rent taxation - based on the idea of taking from those provided with housing and giving to those deprived of it by the war -, public sector bonds, taxation of wages and salaries (housing subsidy contribution); later a certain percentage of income and corporation tax was set aside for the purpose. Subsidies have been granted in different forms, depending on different housing-policy objectives and priorities (new building, reconstruction), but also on the different approaches of the political parties to housing policy. These differences are overlapped by regionally varying conditions and local political interests. The Federal Provinces have sought to decentralise the subsidisation of housing from its inception, and from the mid-50s onwards steadily expanded their autonomy. In one vital respect, however, this principle is not adhered to: public funds are raised at the national level.

Object-related subsidies (subsidies for construction projects) are by far the most important element in Austria's housing subsidy system. Subject-related subsidies (subsidies granted to individuals) play a secondary role and are coupled with object-related subsidies. A further element consists of tax incentives in the form of tax rebates on expenditure on the provision of housing; in quantitative terms they are of secondary importance. The state-assisted system of saving through building societies is also important. This provides primarily low-interest loans for the building of owner-occupied flats and houses.

3.3.3.2. Subsidised housing - object-related and subject-related subsidies

Object-related subsidies are the most important element in the Austrian system of subsidised housing. Since 1948, state loans as well as building subsidies and annual subsidies have been granted under this heading. Initially the recipients of such loans and subsidies were mostly municipalities and non-profit developers as well as owner-occupiers and private persons building their own homes. In recent years, subsidies have been increasingly granted to commercial developers as well.

For many years, on average 40 to 60% of the building costs of rented and owner-occupied flats were covered by low-interest, long-term state loans. The remaining costs were covered by mortgages from private banks, by developers' own funds and partly also by tenants' contributions to real-property and building costs. This system is rounded off by subsidies covering part or all of the repayments (interest and annuity subsidies).

Depending on the income of the household, people living in subsidised flats may be eligible for housing allowance; under some subsidising systems, loans will also be granted to subsidise the funding required from the tenants.

The immense importance of object-related subsidies is evident from the high percentage of subsidised flats built after 1945: 76% of multi-storey buildings (up to 100% of rented flats, about 70% of owner-occupied flats) and about 45% of owner-occupied homes were built with subsidy funds.

The funds for housing subsidies are raised by earmarking about 10% of the income and corporation tax as well as by exacting a one per cent payroll tax, with equal contributions from employers and employees. The money is collected by the Federal State and transferred to the Federal Provinces which decide how it should be used. The repayments of previously granted loans are added to the subsidy funds. In 1994, about ATS 24 billion were raised by the state, which was about 1.1% of the gross domestic product or 3.4% of public expenditure. Recently, about ATS 33 billion were spent on subsidies, about 82% of the amount on building new housing and 18% on improving old stock. The major part of the funds spent on new building went into object-related subsidies (94%), the largest share of which was made up by public loans and grants for covering construction costs (83% of the expenditure on new building). Subject-related subsidies account for approximately 6% of the total and flow primarily into housing allowances. The percentage of subject-related subsidies has declined over the past 15 years.

In addition to this there are further subsidies from the Federal Provinces, most of which are granted for the construction of owner-occupied homes.

To the extent permitted by these data, a comparison with other European countries shows that public spending on housing has been especially consistent in Austria and that the emphasis is on object-related subsidies.

3.3.3.3. Tax incentives and saving through building societies

In Austria, expenditure on the provision of housing - in particular the repayment of and interest on loans - can be deducted from the taxable base. However, this applies only to flats built by certain developers. Subsidies granted under building society schemes also include tax concessions. Tax exemptions under these headings amount to approximately ATS 6 to 8 billion or about 0.3 to 0.4% of the gross domestic product. At the end of 1994, Austria's building societies were administering 4.9 million contracts in the "saving-up" stage. At the end of 1994, deposits with building societies amounted to approximately ATS 162.4 billion or 10.8% of all savings deposits.

3.3.4. Non-profit housing associations

The non-profit housing associations are another characteristic feature of the Austrian housing system. They are rooted in the cooperative movement, on the one hand, and in state-subsidised housing schemes, on the other. The latter were based on the principle of earmarking public funds and marked the beginnings of the non-profit housing system. The building cooperative movement began to emerge as early as the 19th century; the functional link between non-profit housing associations and subsidised housing was established at the beginning of the 20th century.

What has already been said about the development of subsidised housing also applies to the activities of the non-profit housing associations: before 1945 both played a marginal role in housing construction. Up to 1918, urban tenement buildings were primarily constructed by private developers. In the inter-war period, private building activity declined, and the municipalities assumed responsibility for most of the construction work carried out. Under the authoritarian corporate state and during the Nazi era, building activity in general decreased, but the relative importance of the non-profit housing industry increased.

When housing subsidies were introduced throughout the country, non-profit construction gradually became the most important element in urban housing construction. Non-profit housing associations built approximately 30% of all the flats constructed after 1945; this amounts to a 60% share of all flats in multi-storey buildings.

In the course of time, the character of the non-profit housing associations changed as they adjusted to the environment created by the housing industry and housing policy. Currently, the most

significant elements, which are laid down in a specific law, are:

- * earmarking the assets of non-profit associations;
- * restricting investments and re-investments to the housing industry;
- * limiting profit distribution;
- * cost coverage.

Adherence to the non-profit principle is checked through a special audit system and public supervision.

The restrictions on the operating area and on capital gains are offset by exemption from corporation tax.

Currently, there are more than 200 non-profit housing associations in Austria, somewhat more than half of them are cooperatives and the rest public and private limited companies.

3.3.5. Municipal housing

In Austria, non-profit and municipal housing construction are, to a degree, complementary.

Municipal funding and construction of housing started in the 20s. In a period marked by serious economic difficulties and political instability, it was primarily the programme of the Municipality of Vienna which set a benchmark in housing construction. The funding system has to be seen in connection with the imposition of rent restrictions on private housing stock. This permitted the introduction of a tax on rents which was used for funding the construction of new municipal housing intended to improve the living conditions of deprived households. This building programme of the Municipality of Vienna was part of the political and ideological programme of the Social-Democratic Party in Vienna, which, in the 30s, was a central point of political conflict. The elimination of democracy also marked the end of the municipal housing scheme.

In the years of reconstruction after the Second World War, the municipalities initially took on most of the responsibility for the construction of new flats for renting. They were financed in part with state housing subsidies; in Vienna, the municipality continued to use its own funds. Interest payments and amortisation were dispensed with when fixing the rents. Most Austrian municipalities which had, in the beginning, been actively involved in housing construction gradually handed the task of constructing new buildings over to non-profit housing associations. In Vienna, even in the 70s, most of the subsidised rented flats were still built by the municipality. Up to the 70s, the major part of the funds came from the municipal budget. In the past decade the construction of four fifths of subsidised housing in Vienna has passed into the hands of non-profit developers.

An important element is the cooperation between municipalities and non-profit developers, building sites being made available by the municipalities in return for the right to a certain number of flats. Although this is not a standard principle of Austrian housing policy, it is widely practiced.

3.3.6. Subsidisation of owner-occupied housing

In Austria as everywhere else home ownership is steadily gaining ground.

In rural areas and in the areas around towns, the construction of owner-occupied homes is on the increase; in recent years, a slight decline has been registered only in areas with limited resources of building land (in the western part of Austria).

Private ownership of homes in multi-family blocks of flats, which was introduced in Austria in 1948, is common primarily in urban areas. Initially most of the funds came from the housing reconstruction fund. In the 60s, the non-profit developers expanded their activities in the home-ownership sector, drawing on state subsidies for housing construction; at times, more public funds flowed into owner-occupied housing than into rented housing.

In recent years, the trend has been reversed. Public subsidies for owner-occupied flats have been reduced, the share of such flats in the total amount of housing built has declined slightly; however, this trend has been offset by giving tenants the option of buying their flats.

4. PROVISION FOR CHILDREN AND YOUNG PEOPLE UNDER THE PREVAILING HOUSING SYSTEM - ILLUSTRATED BY THE EXAMPLE OF SPORTS FIELDS, PLAYGROUNDS*

4.1. General remarks

When building and developing housing estates with a view to the needs of children and young people, provision has to be made for sufficient leisure-time facilities. Under the Austrian constitution, statutory responsibility for the provision of sufficient social space where children and young people can meet lies, first and foremost, with the Federal Provinces. The scope of activities of the Federal State is restricted to the sphere of private law, as a rule to co-financing, subsidising and other civil-law options.

Detailed statutory regulations for the provision of play space have been laid down by the Federal Provinces for housing estates only. For all other types of construction, the planning offices have been granted the authority to design public sports and play grounds tailored to the needs of children and young people. The "Spielplatzrecht" (Playground Law) contains few binding standards - even with regard to the involvement of those concerned. Moreover, it is not standardised, since most of the competence lies with the individual Federal Provinces.

4.2. Public playgrounds

In Lower Austria, Upper Austria and Styria the construction of public playgrounds for children and young people is stipulated by law. In these Federal Provinces, each municipality is obliged to build at least one public playground. In Styria, for example, the "Raumordnungsgesetz" (Regional Planning Act) stipulates that at least one public playground and one public sports facility has to be provided for a residential area intended for more than 1,000 residents, either on the building land itself or at a reasonable distance from it. Land-utilisation plans that fail to comply with this provision are not approved by the Provincial Government.

Public playgrounds have to meet certain minimum requirements as regards size, location, design and equipment. These requirements are partly laid down by law and partly by statutory regulations. The responsibility for constructing public playgrounds lies with the municipality.

In only three Federal Provinces does the law lay down the express obligation of the Federal Province to provide public playgrounds which meet the requirements of children and young people, once the residents in an area exceed a certain number. Hence it is obvious that the majority of the Federal Provinces leave it to the municipalities to design the playgrounds.

*Authored by Dr. Ewald Filler, Federal Ministry of Youth and Family, Vienna

What is striking about the prevailing regulations is that they focus on children and young people and so neglect the function of such playgrounds as community meeting places.

In the remaining Federal Provinces, the rules pertaining to public playgrounds are usually included in the Regional Planning Law, the planning and construction being left largely to the discretion of the municipalities.

In a few Federal Provinces (such as Salzburg, the Tyrol, Carinthia) the municipalities are authorised to determine the siting of public playgrounds in their local development plans and in this way to control land-utilisation.

All Federal Provinces, however, have made provisions for a certain area to be set aside as open space or green area. This does not imply an obligation to use such areas for playgrounds. The ultimate decision rests with the municipality.

The final decision on whether, how and how many public playgrounds are built is largely left to the municipalities and is in each and every case a matter of the democratic decision-making processes within the individual municipality.

4.3. Non-public playgrounds

4.3.1. All Federal Provinces stipulate that non-public playgrounds have to be provided wherever residential buildings are constructed. The principal regulations are contained in the Special Planning Law and in the Building Law. In all Federal Provinces a children's playground has to be attached to every building containing several flats. The number of flats for which a playground and recreation ground is obligatory varies from Federal Province to Federal Province. This rule ceases to apply, if there is an other playground in the immediate vicinity which can be reached safely, or if accessible community facilities can be used.

Certain features of playgrounds are laid down in statutory regulations, as regards other features only minimum requirements are made. Particular attention has to be paid to safety aspects: safe access to the playgrounds is essential, and they must be protected from danger. In some cases minimum dimensions are fixed, which vary considerably from Province to Province and are graded according to the age of the children; in other cases the dimensions depend on the size of the housing estate.

In some Federal Provinces, the owner of a housing estate can buy himself out of the obligation to build a playground by paying an equalisation levy. This rule applies, if the construction of the playground would involve unreasonable costs or if the building site is not suitable for the purpose. The amounts count as municipal taxes and are earmarked for the construction of public playgrounds.

The idea behind the different statutory regulations in all the Federal Provinces, with the exception of Vienna, is to provide outdoor play space. Another point they have in common is that playgrounds have to be separated from other spaces.

4.3.2. The provisions concerning public playgrounds, which are laid down in the Regional Planning Law, can also be applied to non-public playgrounds. In addition, the authorisation (or obligation) of municipalities to make provision for the sites of playgrounds for toddlers and children in their land-utilisation plans is laid down in individual regional planning acts.

4.3.3. The regulations under the Building and Regional Planning Laws of the Federal Provinces are based on the principle that the playgrounds attached to residential buildings are the exclusive domain of children and must therefore be specially and exclusively designed for children. What is again being neglected is the idea that children at play should be seen as part of the social interaction between the occupants of a block of flats and should be integrated into an overall concept of the social encounter of all age groups.

4.4. Participative playground design

4.4.1. The future users of children's playgrounds and sports fields have no statutory right to participate in the design of these facilities. When playgrounds are designed in accordance with the building regulations, only the principal and the neighbours have the right to be parties to the proceedings. The future tenants or owner-occupiers usually have no say in the pre-construction proceedings. The developer and the co-owner can enter into discretionary agreements on the involvement of the future occupants in the design of the playground, and can, in theory, also grant children the right to a say in the matter.

Whenever the Regional Planning Laws stipulate that provision must be made for playgrounds in land-utilisation plans, the regulations concerning the right of citizens to a say become applicable: the adult citizens of a municipality are entitled to inspect the draft plans and to raise objections. To what extent children and young people are involved in formulating these objections is a matter of family democracy and cannot be defined in statutory terms. Even "municipal popular initiatives" and municipal referenda, which individual Federal Provinces have provided for, are open only to those eligible to vote i.e. to adult members of the municipality. This means that the participation of children and young people in the planning and design of playgrounds is not possible under positive law.

It is usually the municipality in its private law capacity that decides on the detailed design and construction of public playgrounds. The law neither excludes nor stipulates the participation of future users in the decision-making process. It is at the sole discretion of the municipal bodies, whether children are asked about their expectations and wishes and are involved in the concrete planning of the playgrounds.

4.4.2. Participation in the planning and building of playgrounds takes place at a purely informal level. Much can be achieved, however, without relying on statutory standards: under all building regulations, the family-oriented design of non-public playgrounds, which goes beyond the minimum-standard playgrounds designed for children only, can be implemented *praeter legem* through the joint action of all those concerned. The prevailing law permits extensive involvement in the designing of playgrounds both of co-owners and holders of dwelling rights. Any conflict of interests has to be solved before results become legally binding.

4.5. From the mandatory provision of playgrounds to the designing of living space

The statutory provisions guarantee the provision of separate children's playgrounds. In the interest of encouraging social interaction in the immediate surroundings of residential buildings, playgrounds ought - as mentioned above - to become meeting places which also offer opportunities for children to play. Under the prevailing law, municipalities may go beyond the mandatory minimum standards in designing public playgrounds. Some ideas which could be put into practice are:

- the participative planning and design of playgrounds
- providing playgrounds not only for children but for families, by adding facilities that make the playgrounds attractive meeting places for families
- relating the number of public playgrounds to the housing structure and density
- paying more attention to the interests of young people who have outgrown children's playgrounds
- encouraging recreative sports and cultural activities in which the whole family can participate
- encouraging and promoting the provision of meeting areas which are equally attractive for children and adults, such as integrated residential and play streets; transforming public squares into areas where all age groups can find and develop their own public living space.

5. BEST PRACTICES

5.1. PROJECT No.1: URBAN RENEWAL IN VIENNA

(see Diagram on pages 52 - 55)

5.1.1. Individuals in charge, institutions

- Wiener Bodenbereitstellungs- und Stadterneuerungsfonds (WBSF)
(Vienna Land Procurement and Urban Renewal Fund)
Prokurist Dr. Wolfgang Förster, Deputy Director
1081 Wien, Lichtenfelsgasse 3
Phone: 0043/1/408 88 52 15
Fax: 0043/1/408 88 52 46
The Fund is responsible for the management of all urban and housing renewal projects.

- Magistrat der Stadt Wien, Magistratsabteilung 25
(Vienna Municipal Administration, Department 25 - Technical and Economic Audits for Residential Buildings, Special Questions of Urban Renewal)
Head of Department: SR Dipl.-Ing. Hubert Mayer
1082 Wien, Rathausstraße 4
Phone: 0043/1/4000/90511
Fax: 0043/1/4000-99-90515

- Magistrat der Stadt Wien, Magistratsabteilung 50
(Vienna Municipal Administration, Department 50 - General and Legal Questions on Housing, Housing Subsidies, Housing Improvement and Housing Rehabilitation)
Head of Department: OSR Dr. Otto Maisel
1082 Wien, Doblhoffgasse 6
Phone: 0043/1/4000/90011
Fax: 0043/1/4000-99-90015

- 13 area-renewal teams and 1 mobile area-renewal team, co-ordinated by the Building Directorate of the Vienna Municipal Administration, Department 2
OSR Dipl.-Ing. Horst Berger
1082 Wien, Bartensteingasse 167
Phone: 0043/1/4000/82721
Fax: 0043/1/4000-99-82720

- Private house owners, tenants and entrepreneurs

5.1.2. Initial situation, key data

The situation in Vienna continues to be marked by the surge in housing construction in the last quarter of the 19th century. Of a total of 155,000 buildings in Vienna, some 40% date from before 1918.

In 1984, 320,000 flats (39% of the total number) were of a poor or very poor technical standard; by 1994, the number had dropped to 200,000 (23%), with the number of sub-standard flats (without bathroom and WC) down to 74,700, i.e. 10.1 % of the total number of flats.

Beside the large percentage of rented flats within the total stock of old housing, the significant part played by municipal housing is another characteristic feature of the housing situation in Vienna.

With its total stock of 220,000 flats, the Municipality of Vienna is one of the world's largest owners of residential property. As such, it has a decisive influence not only on the housing market, but also on the urban landscape, as is illustrated by the large-scale programme of rehabilitation currently under way.

Located - for decades - on the eastern periphery of free Europe, with a declining population and a large stock of historical buildings, Vienna was fortunate to have a municipal administration with political vision. Hence, the city was spared the extensive programmes of complete redevelopment undergone by other European cities.

Here are a few key data:

- As of 1994, a total of 5.400 applications for rehabilitation subsidies for residential buildings had been filed.
- 2,800 residential buildings - two thirds of them privately owned and one third owned by the municipal authorities or non-profit housing associations - with a total of 128,337 flats were recommended for subsidisation within the framework of urban renewal programmes.
- The rehabilitation of 1,789 buildings with a total of 84,108 flats has already been completed.
- A total of ATS 15 billion (US \$ 1.5 billion) have been spent on renovation projects already completed. Including the projects recommended for subsidisation but not yet completed, the amount of capital expenditure will total ATS 30 billion, the share of non-repayable public funds being 26.4 billion (US \$ 2.6 billion).
- The number of flats equipped with all modern conveniences (central heating, bathroom, WC) has increased from 238,000 (40% of the total stock of flats) in 1984 to 580,000 flats (68%).

5.1.3. Objectives and strategies

The most important objectives and strategies of urban renewal in Vienna can be summarised under the heading of "gentle" urban renewal, a policy based on the following principles:

- The measures taken must be geared to the needs and possibilities of people living in a densely built-up urban area.
- The complete package of measures is to be designed, structured and adapted to include the whole range of instruments from individual measures (e.g. rehabilitation of individual buildings) to measures of "comprehensive urban renewal" (rehabilitation of individual buildings and blocks of buildings, renewal of public spaces, etc.).
- One of the declared objectives of "gentle" urban renewal is to improve the quality of dwellings, while giving absolute priority to a socially secure situation for the tenants and to the continued provision of affordable housing.
- The policy of public subsidisation is committed to the principle of granting the highest subsidies for the improvement of buildings and flats of the poorest quality (elimination of sub-standard flats).
- The principle of "gentle" urban renewal is based on the co-operation, including the financial co-operation, of the public sector, owners of residential buildings and tenants. This is the only way to create an incentive for investments and, at the same time, to ensure social security and to achieve the goals of urban-development policy.
- "Gentle" urban renewal implies not only the improvement of building stock, but also an endeavour to find integrated solutions to the well-known problems of densely built-up areas, such as social tension, unemployment, uneasy co-existence of ethnic groups, improvement of public spaces, etc. Hence, an interdisciplinary and co-ordinated approach is essential.

5.1.4. Description of the model and the measures taken

Broadly speaking, the Vienna model of "gentle" urban renewal has its roots in the establishment of the first area-renewal project launched in 1974. The breakthrough and the actual beginning of the project dates back to 1984, when the Housing Improvement Act was adopted at the federal level and the Vienna Land Procurement and Urban Renewal Fund was created by the Municipality of Vienna.

After the system of subsidies for housing construction had become part of the mandate of the federal provinces, the adoption of the 1989 Act on Housing Subsidies and Housing Improvement in Vienna helped to improve the functioning of the system of subsidisation and gear it more specifically to local requirements.

The most important measure provided for by the system is "basic rehabilitation", which is defined as the thorough and comprehensive renovation of inhabited buildings.

It covers the renovation and improvement of the building as a whole (including supply and disposal installations to permit improvements of flats and also the combination of small units into larger ones) and improvements in the individual flats.

The division of responsibility between owners and tenants, based on the greatest possible consideration of individual needs, is a fundamental principle. Active tenant participation is an important prerequisite for a subsidy to be granted.

Up to 90% of the rehabilitation costs are covered by non-repayable one-time grants and debt-servicing contributions from the public sector. The highest subsidies are granted for the improvement of sub-standard dwellings (flats without bathroom or WC).

Since the adoption of the 1989 Act on Housing Subsidies and Housing Improvement, block renewal, i.e. the rehabilitation of entire blocks of buildings with mixed ownership structures, has been possible.

This measure is aimed at the comprehensive renewal of urban areas, above all through the rehabilitation of buildings and flats, upgrading of the residential environment, renovation of courtyards and transforming courtyards into green areas shared by a number of different properties, creation of low-traffic zones, retention of non-polluting businesses and preservation of the local supply infrastructure.

To implement the measures, the Vienna Land Procurement and Urban Renewal Fund sets up project management teams who co-operate closely with district authorities, owners of residential buildings, small businesses and the inhabitants of the buildings concerned.

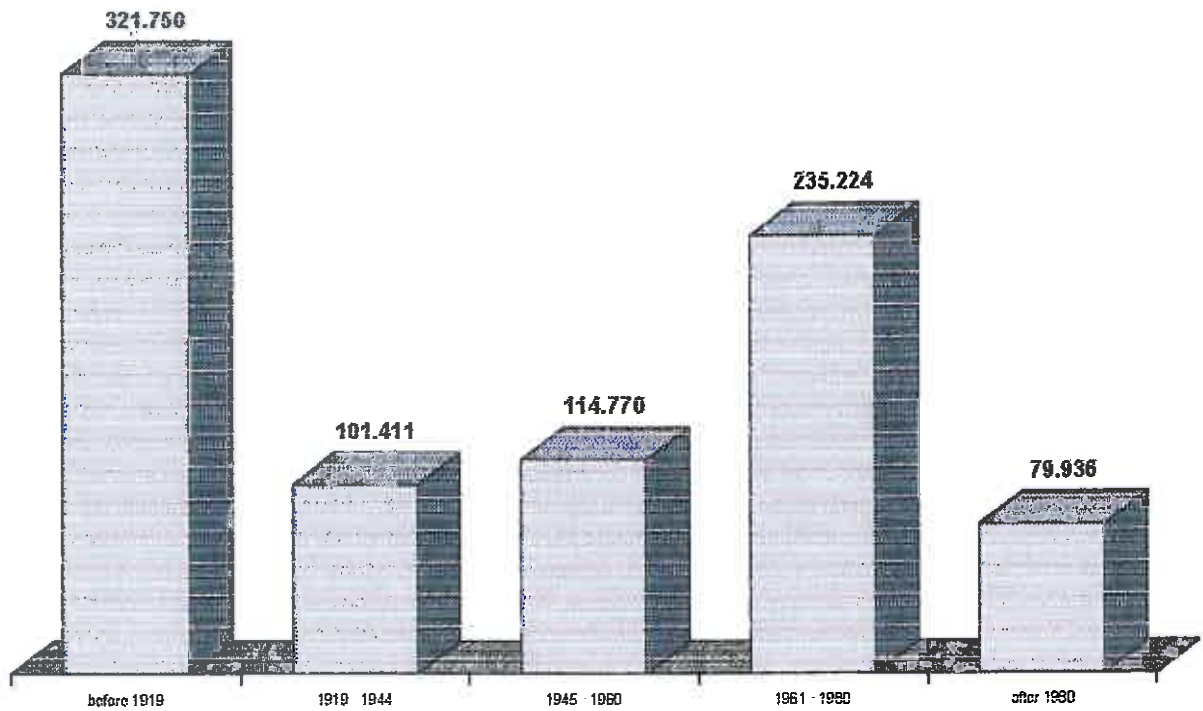
A total of 13 area-renewal project teams, including a mobile renewal team, have been set up by the Municipality of Vienna, most of them during the past ten years, with the task of implementing the comprehensive renewal of larger areas with specific conditions (social structure, stock of buildings).

The main function of these interdisciplinary teams is to advise tenants and owners on matters of housing improvement, to draw up plans for the design of public spaces and, above all, to co-ordinate their implementation.

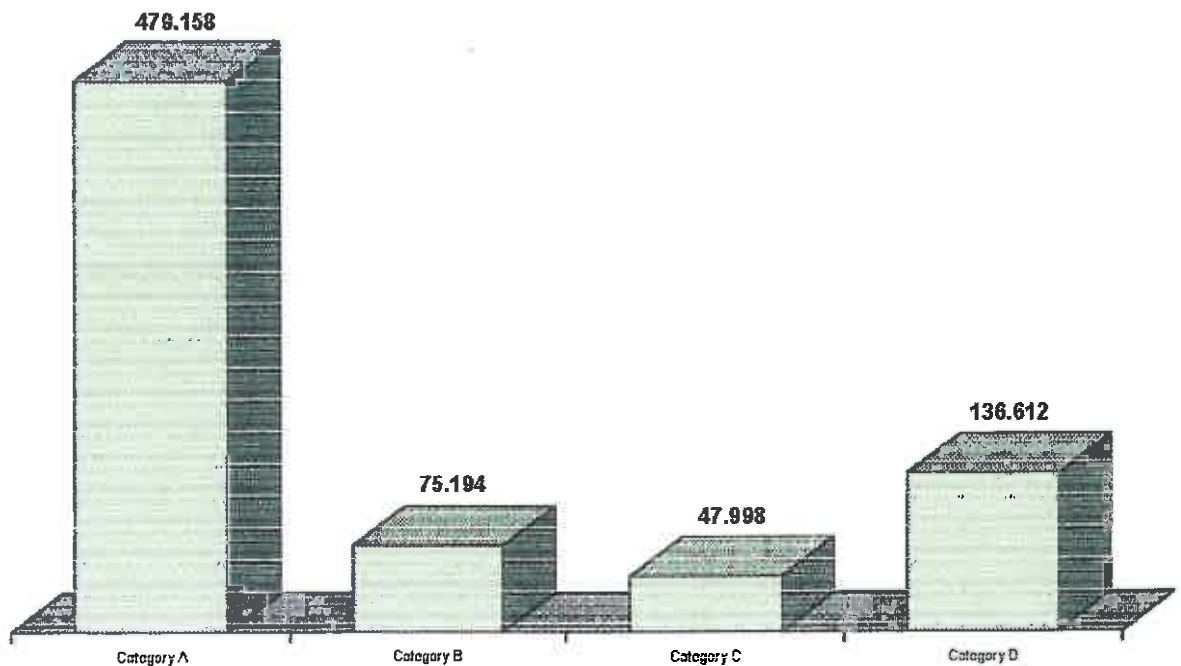
Many of these teams have assumed an integrative function and contributed to the solution of social problems and the organisation of cultural activities.

The Vienna Land Procurement and Urban Renewal Fund has developed into a core component of the "gentle" urban renewal programme. Beside providing land for the construction of subsidised housing, it also performs the audits required in connection with subsidised housing improvement and co-ordinates the renovation work.

VIENNA HOUSING STOCK: PERIODS OF CONSTRUCTION



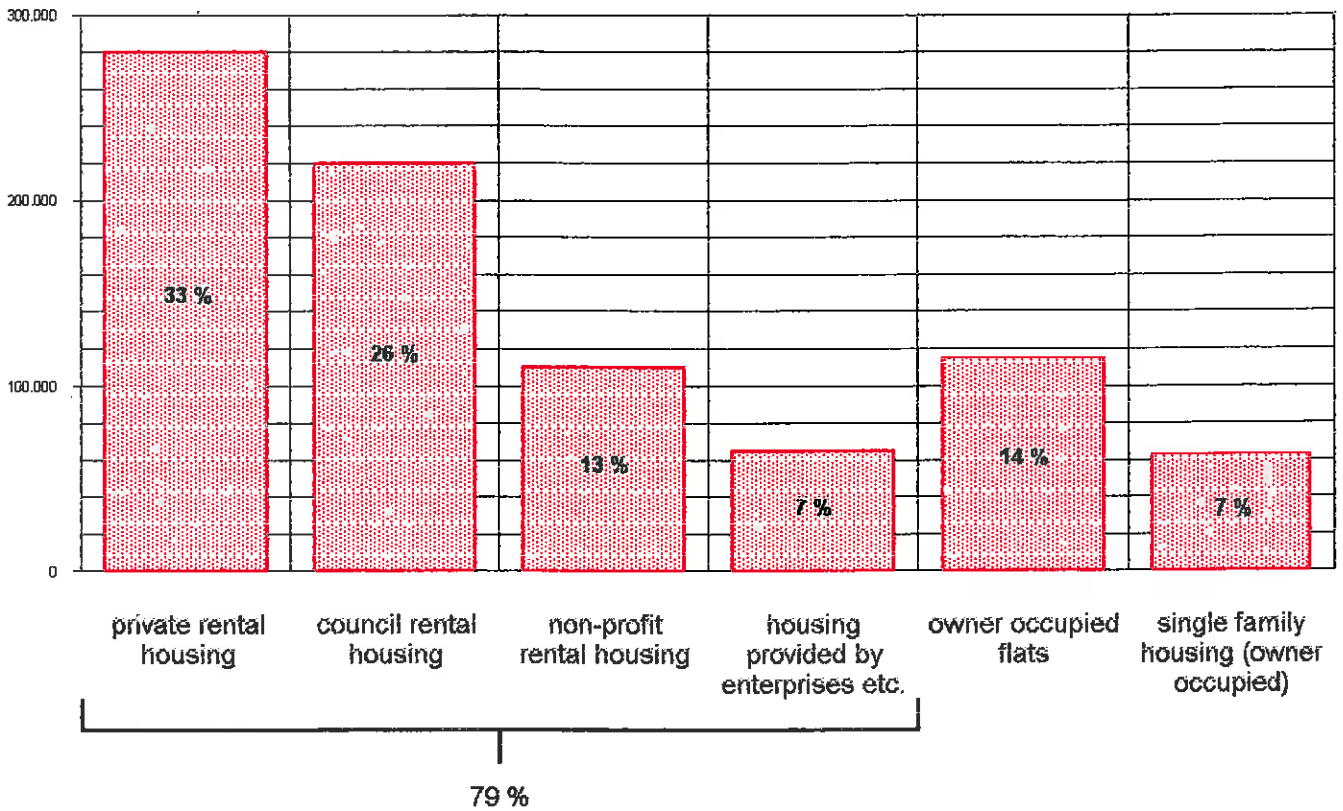
VIENNA HOUSING STOCK: TECHNICAL STANDARDS



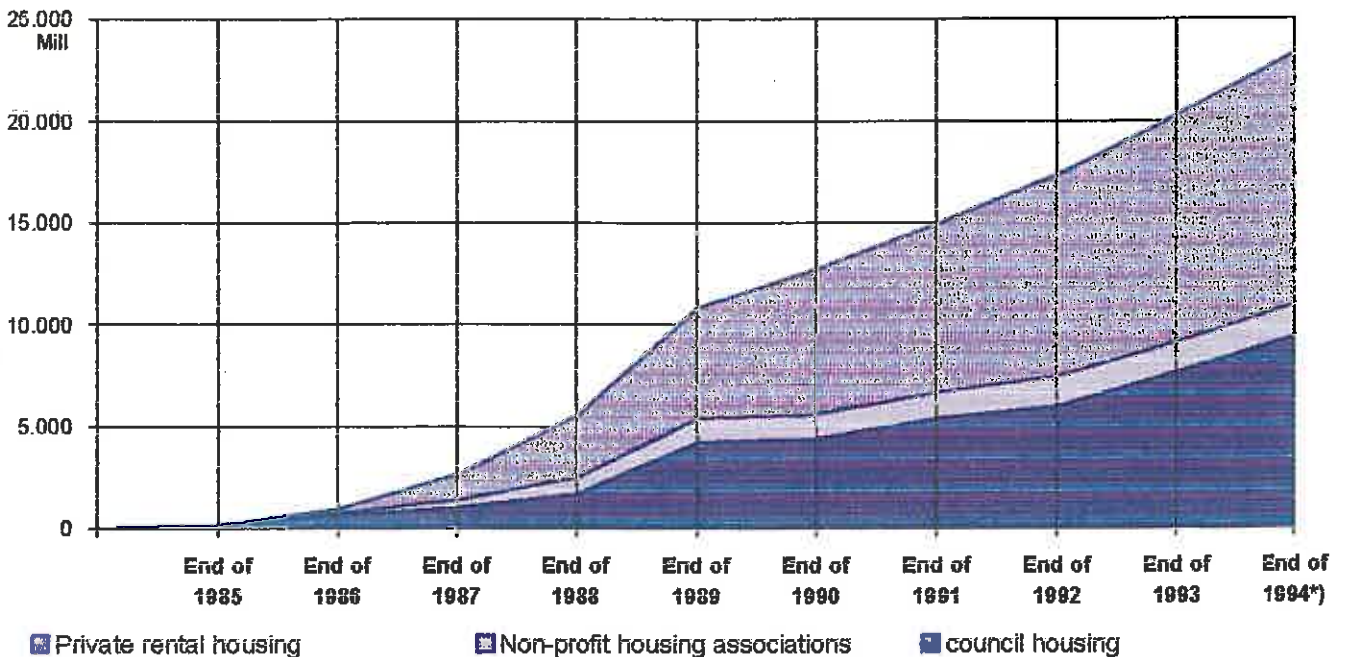
Category A: Central heating, bathroom, WC
Category B: Bathroom, WC

Category C: Water supply, WC
Category D: WC or water supply outside the flat

VIENNA HOUSING STOCK: PROPERTY RIGHTS

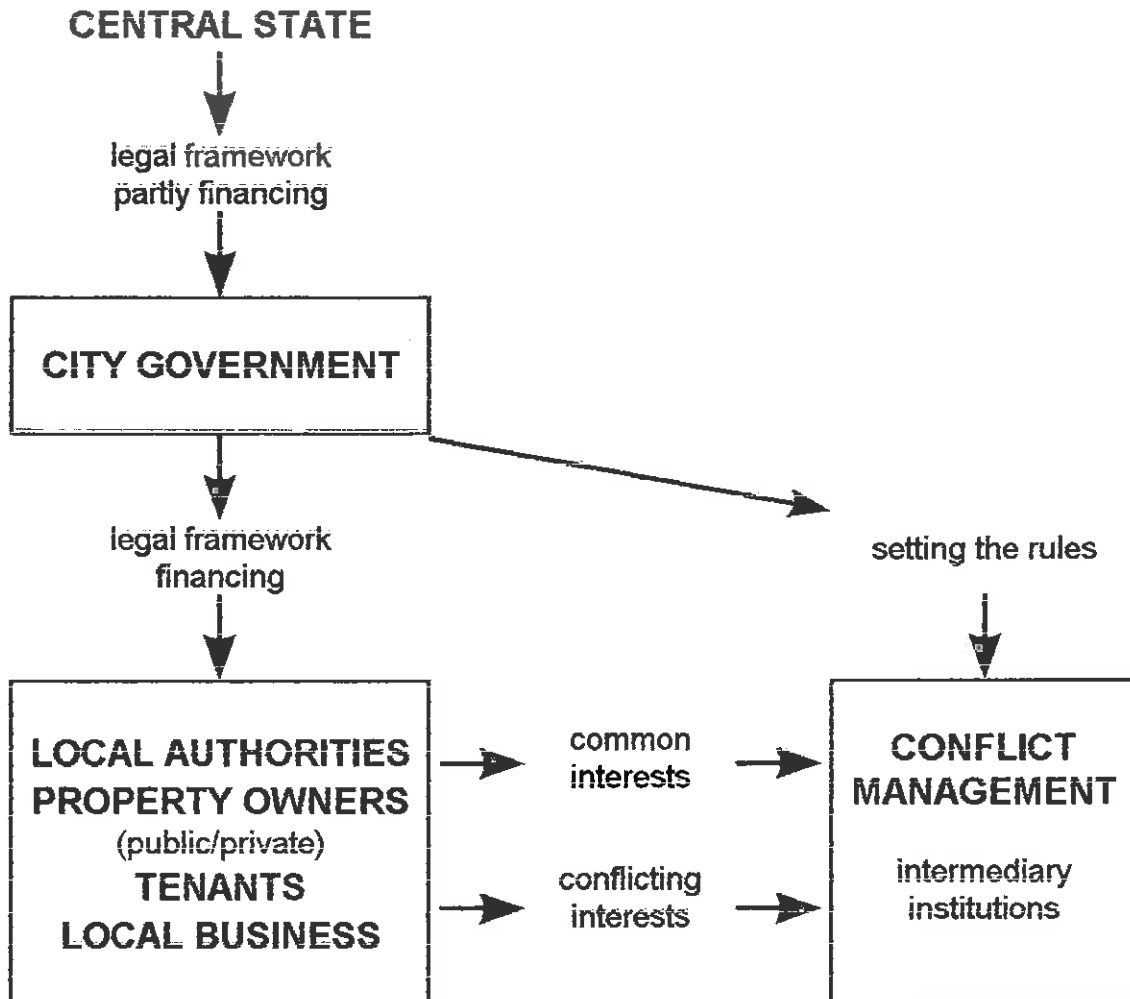


VIENNA SUBSIDIZED HOUSING PROJECTS (according to total building costs)



URBAN RENEWAL:

VARIOUS ACTORS ON THE URBAN STAGE



VIENNA URBAN RENEWAL

"SOCKELSANIERUNG" (OVERALL REHABILITATION OF INHABITED BUILDINGS)

OWNER



**APPLICATION AT WBSF
REHABILITATION SCHEME**
(Architect)



1) <u>"general parts of building"</u> (facades, windows, roof, pipes ...) = responsibility of owner, tenants have to accept	2) <u>Empty apartments:</u> modernization to "Category A" (central heating, bath) = responsibility of owner	3) <u>Inhabited apartments:</u> partly modernization, = responsibility of tenants, owner has to accept
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WBSF
Control of rehabilitation scheme
and of costs; priorities of different
applications by point system;
Recommendation to City of Vienna



various city administration
departments;
public tender



"SCHLICHTUNGSSTELLE"
(city department setting the rents,
public proceedings including tenants)



RENEWAL SUBSIDIES
(City of Vienna)
a) initial subsidy, mostly 25 %
b) plus: annual subsidies to bank loan
c) plus: allowances to tenants



Subsidies deriving from:
- earmarked state taxes
- city budget
- other sources: courtyard
improvement program,
"Kulturschilling" (TV-
fees!),...



WBSF
Control of building process and of costs

5.2. PROJECT No.2: "WOMEN AT WORK FOR HOUSING IN VIENNA"
(see diagrams on pages 60 - 62)

5.2.1. Individuals in charge, institutions

- Magistrat der Stadt Wien, Magistratsabteilung 57
(Vienna Municipal Administration, Department 57 - Advancement of Women and Co-ordination of Women's Concerns)
Head: Dipl.Ing. Eva Kail
Project initiator and substantive co-ordinator
1082 Wien, Friedrich-Schmidt-Platz 3
Phone: 0043/1/4000/83511
Fax: 0043/1/4000-99-83511

- Magistrat der Stadt Wien, Magistratsabteilung 50
(Vienna Municipal Administration, Department 50 - General and Legal Matters in the Field of Housing and Housing Subsidies, Housing Improvement and Renewal)
Head: OSR Dr. Otto Maisel
1082 Wien, Doblhoffgasse 6
Phone: 0043/1/4000/90011
Fax: 0043/1/4000-99-90015

- Two developers:
Magistrat der Stadt Wien, Magistratsabteilung 24
(Vienna Municipal Administration, Department 24 - Urban Housing Construction)
Head: SR Dipl.Ing. Norbert Reiter
1082 Wien, Lange Gasse 30
Phone: 0043/1/4000/90411
Fax: 0043/1/4000-99-90410

- Wohnbauvereinigung für Privatangestellte (GPA-WBV)
(Housing Association of Private-Sector Employees)
Director Elisabeth Weihsmann
1010 Wien, Werdertorgasse 9
Phone: 0043/1/533 34 14
Fax: 0043/1/533 81 38

5.2.2. Initial situation, general framework

The project is to be viewed against the background of the major housing construction programme launched by the City of Vienna at the beginning of the 1990s, which increased the housing construction rate from between 5,000 and 6,000 subsidised new flats to about 10,000 within a period of three years.

Besides its quantitative focus, the programme was also intended to promote innovative forms of urban development.

As a matter of principle, contracts were awarded on the basis of urban-development competitions for all projects involving more than 300 dwellings.

Upon an initiative of the Women's Office within the Vienna Municipal Administration (Department 57), a model housing project was launched in 1993, which

- is being planned and implemented almost exclusively by women experts (architects, landscape architects, municipal staff in charge of administration and implementation), and
- gives special consideration to women's needs in terms of housing construction and urban development.

Several projects of this kind, though on a smaller scale (up to a maximum of 70 flats), have already been implemented in Europe, most of them in peripheral urban locations with a low population density.

For the Vienna model, a representative project involving about 380 flats (on a plot of land of 2.3 hectares) in an urban-development area of the 21st district of Vienna was chosen. The area is located in the vicinity of more densely built-up settlement areas, well served by public transport and with an adequate supply infrastructure.

5.2.3. Objectives and strategies

Between October 1993 and February 1994, a competition was organised for the best urban-development design. Entries were submitted by seven Austrian women architects.

The jury consisted of a panel of mostly female experts under the patronage of Mrs. Schütte-Lihotzky, the well-known architect from Vienna.

The tender specifications included:

- high-quality urban development and architectural design for implementation in a suburban area;
- design of buildings and free spaces so as to promote the creation of a "social space" and to achieve a high level of functionality and practicality;
- innovative ground plans which do not impose pre-defined uses of space within the dwelling;
- dwellings which are flexible enough to accommodate different types of households, with special consideration for the requirements of housework;
- a close link between the flats and the "outside world";
- new uses of free spaces based on a highly differentiated and detailed response to various needs;
- creation of low-cost, socially affordable housing;
- suggestions of locations for facilities in the vicinity;
- flexible recreation areas to be appropriated, shaped and changed by their users, particularly outdoors;
- accessibility to participation by the inhabitants;
- greatest possible application of ecological principles.

5.2.4. Description of the model and the results to be achieved

The master urban-development project by architect Franziska Ullman was used as a basis for the elaboration of the zoning plan.

Together with three other women architects, she was contracted to design the individual components of the project.

The building permit was granted at the end of 1994 and construction work is about to begin.

The following features of the project are particularly noteworthy:

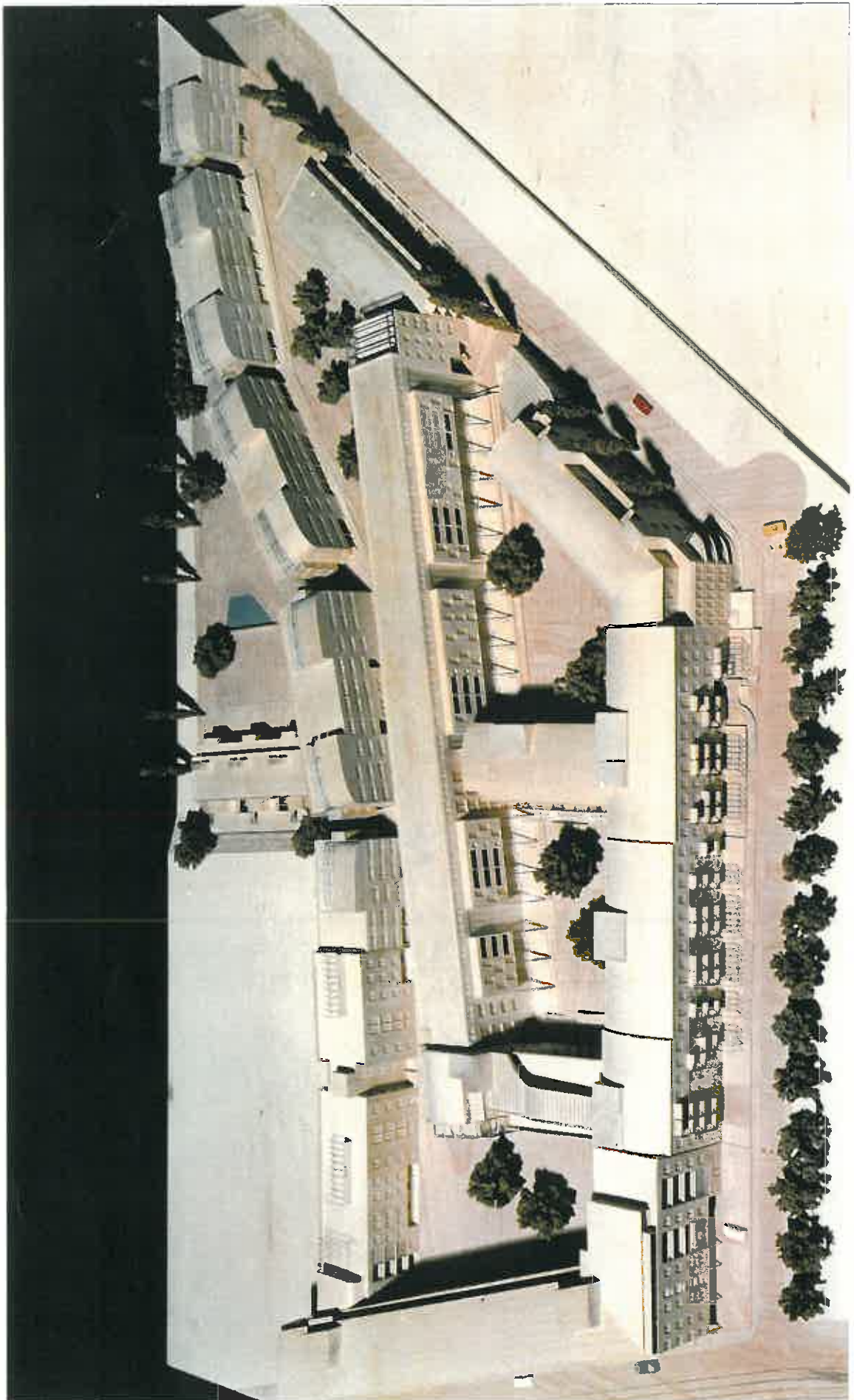
- Creation of a close linkage between the interior and the exterior through the special design of transitional areas from the flat and the staircase to private and public open spaces.
- Transparent, open-to-view staircases for increased security.
- Upgrading of ancillary facilities which often tend to be neglected, e.g. storage rooms for bicycles and prams (on the ground floor, with easy and safe access).
- Promotion of contacts between neighbours (no more than four flats on each floor, provision of indoor contact zones).
- More security and flexibility in the garages (as far as possible lit by natural light, laid out for good visibility, adaptable for other uses, e.g. for recreational purposes).

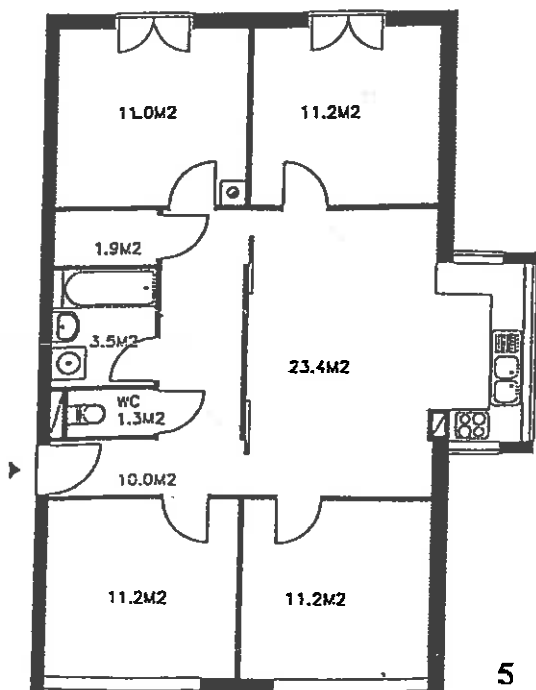
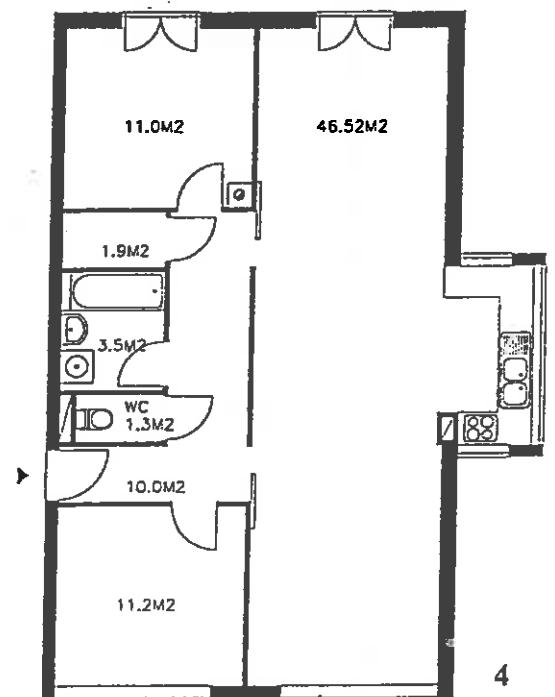
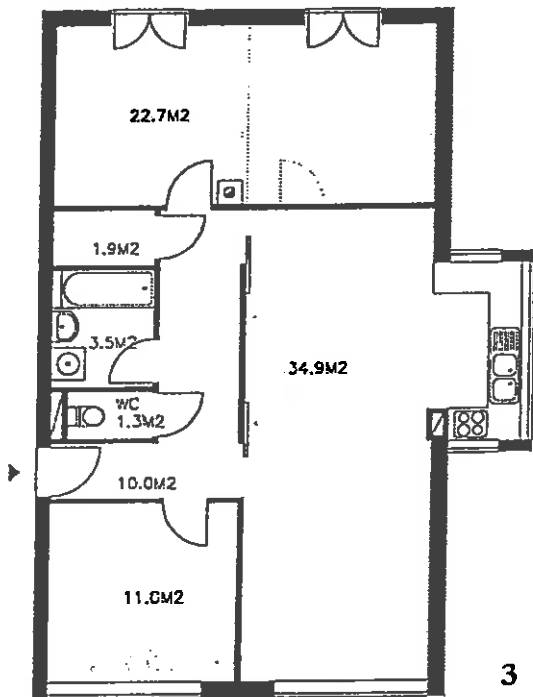
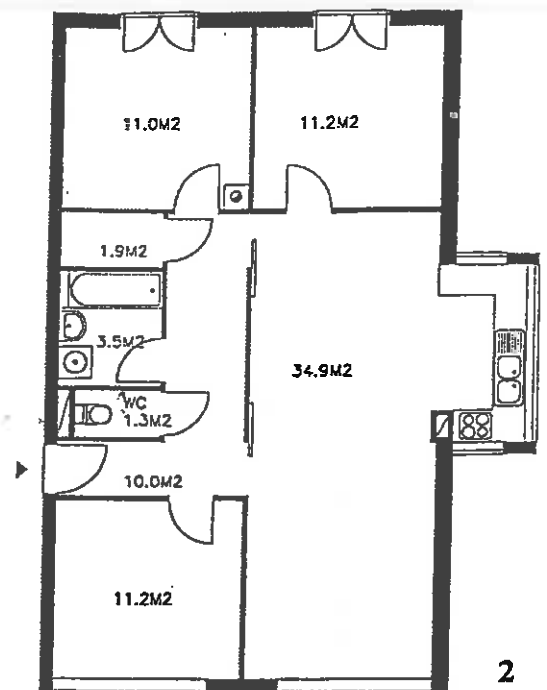
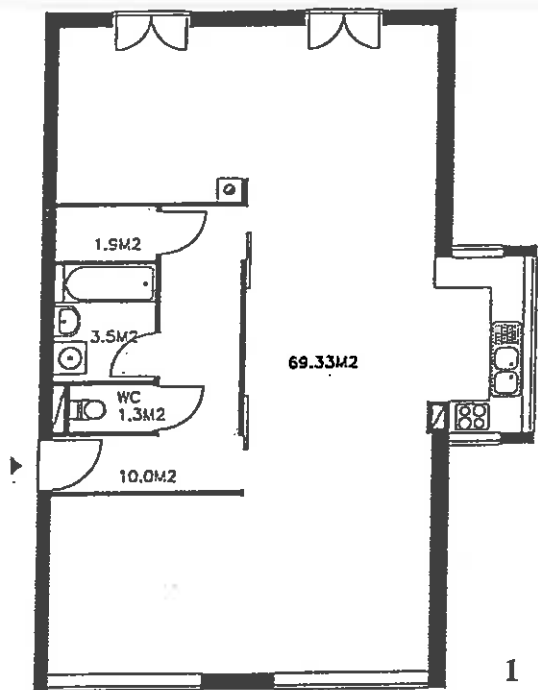
- Special flat design:
 - centred around the kitchen, which is big enough to serve as a focal point, well lit, with windows giving onto a public space;
 - every flat has its own outdoor space (terrace, balcony);
 - laid out, if possible, to obtain several rooms of equal standing,
 - participation of tenants in ground-plan decisions and design details.
- Creation of a communication centre and provision of support in the initial phase of settlement to facilitate the establishment of social networks.

The most important effects of the Model Project "Women at Work for Housing in Vienna"

- Greater involvement of women architects and town planners in the process of planning and implementation. Women town planners are involved in almost every competition in the field of urban development.
- The experience gained with regard to women's housing needs will be put to practical use in other projects and, above all, in the amendment to the regulations of the Vienna building code.

View of the Model "Women at Work for Housing in Vienna"





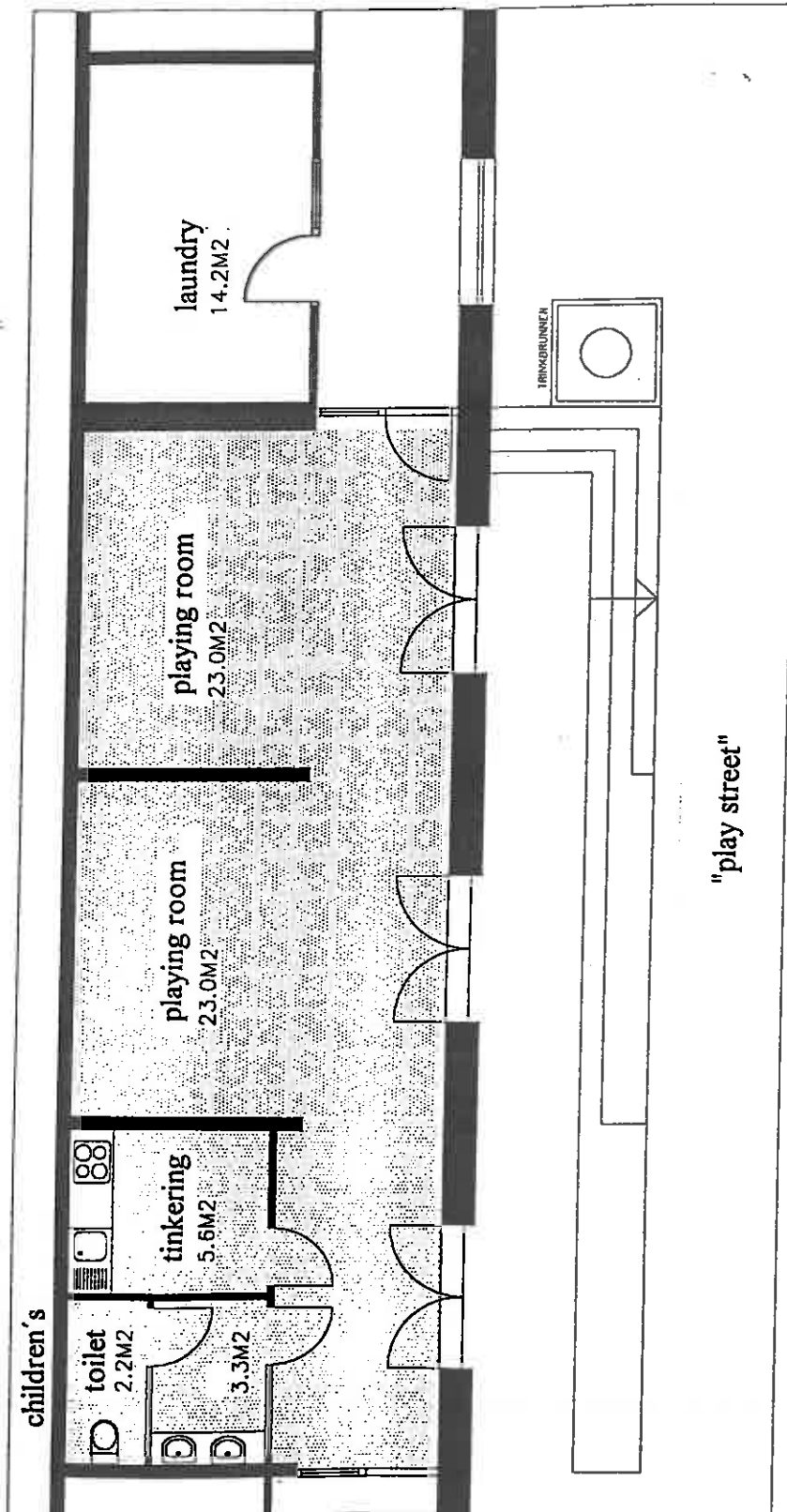
1. This way the apartment is a loft for artists, singles etc.
2. A "traditional layout" for a family with two kids, but also for single parents with a child and an extra room for a grandmother/-father or a nanny.
3. This layout offers a big room for younger children which offers enough space to romp without disturbing partens or turning the whole apartment into a battle field.
4. Two rooms and a spaciou living room are a perfect layout when children are gone or for couples without children; every partner can have a room for one's own, or one room can be used as a room for working at home.
5. This type of layout offers a room for every family or houshold member. An ideal layout for families with grown up children or a flat sharing community.

Architect: Professor Mag. arch. Elsa Prochazka

= 02 =

The often neglected laundries are easily accessible and usable as places of communication. This illustration shows a laundry in combination with playrooms for children and a room for tinkering. There is also a special toilet for children which easily accessible from the so called "play street".

Architect: Dipl. Ing. Gisela Podreka



5.3. PROJECT No.3: THE CITY OF VIENNA'S STEP-BY-STEP PLAN FOR THE RE-INTEGRATION OF THE HOMELESS

5.3.1. Individuals in charge, institutions

City of Vienna (Finance Departments, Youth and Family Division, Social Affairs Division, Housing Division, Administration of Residential Buildings)

Project management: Sozialamt der Stadt Wien
(Social Affairs Division of the City of Vienna)
SR Dr. Werner Pröbsting
1010 Wien, Schottenring 24
Phone: 0043/1/531 14/85211

Arbeitsgemeinschaft "Wohnplätze für Bürger in Not"
Working Group "Shelter for Citizens in Need"
Chairman and co-ordinator: DSA Walter Kiss
1010 Wien, Schmerlingplatz 2
Phone: 0043/1/408 32 32

Members of the Working Group:
ARGE für Nichtseßhafte Wien (Working Party for the Homeless in Vienna), Caritas, Salvation Army, Verein für Bewährungshilfe und soziale Arbeit (Association of Probation Officers and Social Workers), "Vinzenzgemeinschaft Mariahilf" ("Gruft"), Volkshilfe Wien, Wiener Hilfswerk, WOBES, Verein Wiener Sozialprojekte (Vienna Association for Social Projects)

5.3.2. Initial situation, key data

In 1989, shelter was provided at several locations (above all in winter) for about 1,500 homeless people of a total of 5,000 in Vienna.

The main problems arising in this context included:

- lack of continuous, professional care by social workers,
- insufficient access to the homeless and lack of communication as an obstacle to reintegration;
- negative attitude of the population living in the vicinity of shelter locations.

Moreover, there was a trend for more and more women with children and persons in regular employment to become homeless, with problems of alcohol and drug abuse increasing at the same time.

5.3.3. Objectives and strategies

The objectives and strategies of the "City of Vienna's Step-by-Step Plan for the Re-integration of the Homeless" are as follows:

- prevention of homelessness by all possible means;
- quality care and accommodation for persons who are homeless or in acute danger of becoming homeless;
- co-operation with all organisations working in this field;
- assisting re-entry into the world of work (e.g. occupational projects);
- offer of medical care;
- continuous support through academic studies and fundamental research;
- awareness-raising;
- provision of an adequate legal framework for the available offers of assistance.

5.3.4. Description of the model and its results

The fundamental objective of the project is

- to promote the social re-integration of the homeless on a step-by-step basis; and
- to establish networks of co-operation between public and private institutions.

The phased approach provides for the following steps:

- provision of short-term shelter (without continuous care);
- supervised accommodation in a hostel provided by the City of Vienna, including social-therapy support (Working Party "Citizens in Need");
- provision of affordable long-term housing, including - if necessary - individual follow-up care;
- measures to prevent people losing their homes.

Brief description of the most important elements of the project:

- **Hostel for the homeless with social-therapy support**

This institution was set up by the Social Affairs Division of the City of Vienna in 1989.

Its objective is to prepare the homeless (men, women, families) for re-integration and life in their own homes (acquiring the ability to cope with life in their own homes) through social therapy (social workers).

In all, 270 people can be accommodated and looked after within the framework of 15 housing communities; in addition, accommodation and care is available for 8 families.

The next step is to move the formerly homeless to long-term accommodation (85% municipal flats, 15% private flats).

If necessary, follow-up care is provided by the local outposts of the Social Affairs Division or the Working Party on "Shelter for Citizens in Need".

- "Assisted housing" provided by the Working Party on "Shelter for Citizens in Need"

The Working Party, which was formed through the merger of 9 private associations in 1988, provides housing for the formerly homeless on the basis of unlimited tenancy agreements. It also assists tenants in running their newly obtained homes. Basically, the Working Party operates at the same project level as the hostel-type accommodation described above.

The costs of acquisition, repair and furnishing of the flats as well as running expenses are covered by the City of Vienna. The flats provided are integrated within normal residential communities, without being concentrated in one building. The support given includes help in finding a job, solving financial problems, dealing with the authorities, and finding long-term accommodation.

Given their socially acceptable level of rent, municipal flats are best suited as long-term accommodation for the formerly homeless.

A brief overview of the results achieved so far:

- Since 1989, formerly homeless persons have moved into 1,000 flats provided as long-term accommodation. The rate of relapse was no more than 3%.
- Thanks to close co-operation between the City of Vienna and private associations, the funds available are used much more efficiently than in the past.
- The accompanying evaluation of the project serves to document the evolution of the phased approach and permits conclusions to be drawn with regard to possible future improvements.

**5.4. PROJECT No.4: THE VIENNA AIR-QUALITY MONITORING NETWORK -
AIR QUALITY IN AN URBAN AGGLOMERATION**

5.4.1. Individuals in charge, institutions

Project implementation:
Magistrat der Stadt Wien, Magistratsabteilung 22
(Vienna Municipal Administration, Department 22 - Environmental
Protection, Section 8 - Air-Quality Monitoring)
Department head: SR Dipl.Ing. Helmut Löffler
Head of section: Dipl.Ing. Peter Riess
1081 Wien, Ebendorfer Straße 4
Phone: 0043/1/4000/88211
Fax: 0043/1/4000-99-88215

5.4.2. Initial situation

As a result of the growing global awareness of the significance of environmental influences, together with the rising level of environmental contamination in the 60s, the need for continuous monitoring, e.g. of air quality, came to be felt more and more acutely also in Vienna.

In 1967, a sulphur dioxide (SO₂) measuring station was set up at the Vienna Centre for Meteorology and Geodynamics. A second measuring station was installed in the city centre in 1975.

Up to the 80s, SO₂ was the only pollutant to be measured continuously and on a comprehensive basis; dust concentrations were measured manually at five locations.

Over time, a dense network of air-quality measuring points was installed at strategic points in densely built-up areas, above all along roads with high traffic frequency in densely populated districts.

5.4.3. Objectives and strategies

Basically, the Vienna Air-Quality Monitoring Network serves two objectives:

- long-term analysis of air pollution, and
- continuous disclosure and publication of the values measured as a service rendered to the population.

Publication of the results of air-quality measurements provides for a continuous, indirect control of the effectiveness of pollution control legislation and of practical measures based on such legislation; at the same time, it creates an incentive for the population to contribute towards the improvement of air quality.

If the need arises, the air-quality monitoring network can also be used as an alarm system.

5.4.4. Description of the model and the results achieved

- Acquisition and processing of data

At each measuring station, measurements are taken at intervals of 10 seconds as a basis for the calculation of minute and half-hour averages, which in turn are automatically transmitted to the centre every three hours or, if necessary, at shorter intervals.

The system operates around the clock, with all minute values and data records being stored and transmitted also at night for the purposes of operational checks and improved analysis.

On the basis of the half-hour values, which are determined by a uniform method throughout Austria, the daily averages are calculated and plotted in the form of monthly diagrams.

- Continuous publication

For the reasons outlined under 5.4.3., the air-quality data are published in a variety of formats:

- Videotext

This has been set up as a service within the framework of the EDP network of the Vienna City Administration and is accessible, above all, to the various administrative departments.

- Audio tape service

Updated information on the maximum pollutant concentrations measured during the past 24 hours, including forecasts of expected developments, e.g. a possible smog or ozone alert, is available from a digital voice transmitter twice daily on working days and once daily on non-working days.

- Other media

- radio and television (once a day)
- daily newspapers
- "Unser Wien", a monthly magazine distributed to all households in Vienna, featuring monthly summaries of the measurements taken
- ORF teletext (reports on sulphur dioxide, dust, nitrogen oxide and ozone pollution in all federal provinces)
- INTERNET (entries made by Department 22 of the Vienna City Administration)

- Air-quality indicator panels

The levels of SO₂, dust, NO₂ and ozone pollution are displayed on large indicator panels at four locations in Vienna in the form of a bar diagram for qualitative assessment on a scale of nine, based on a comparison of the values measured with the air-quality criteria of the Academy of Science.

These criteria range from "excellent" (the limits beyond which there would be a hazard to plant life and human health are not exceeded at any of the measuring points) to "poor" (the values obtained at 15% of the measuring points exceed two thirds of the pre-alert value) to "pre-alert", "alert stage 1" and "alert stage 2".

- The most important results

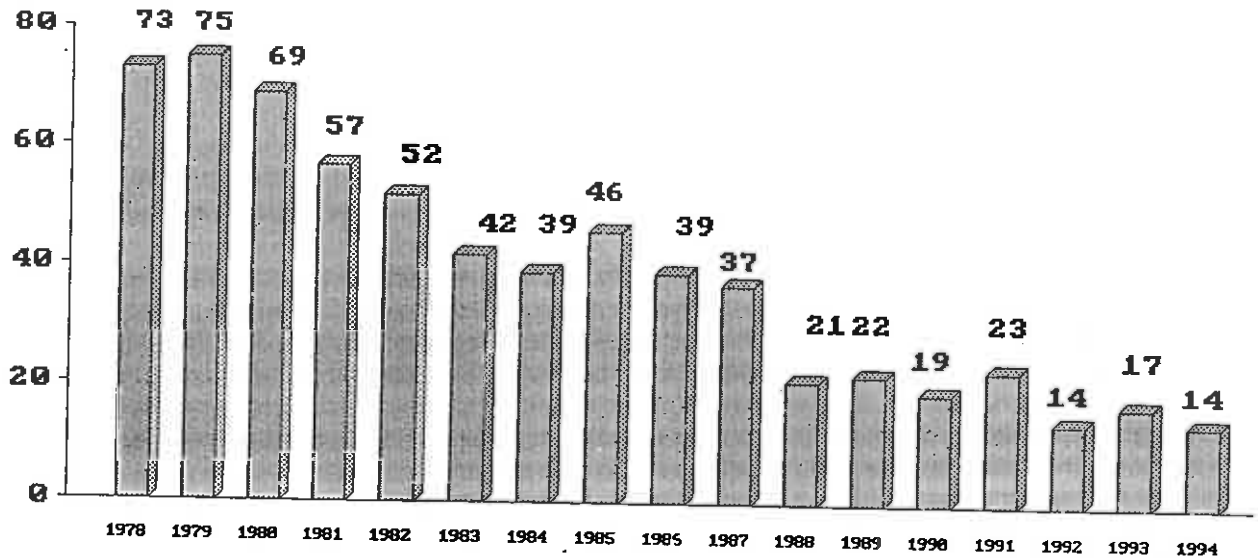
The City of Vienna's network of immission measurements showed that the annual average of sulphur dioxide pollution in Vienna dropped by about 80% between 1978 and 1994 (see diagram on page 69).

Besides the large number of specific measures taken, this may also be due to the continuous publication of pollution data and their educational effect.

The evaluation of the results obtained at individual measuring stations allows conclusions to be drawn on the situation of major polluters. Corrective action can then be undertaken on this basis.

SULPHURDIOXIDE - ANNUAL AVERAGES IN VIENNA

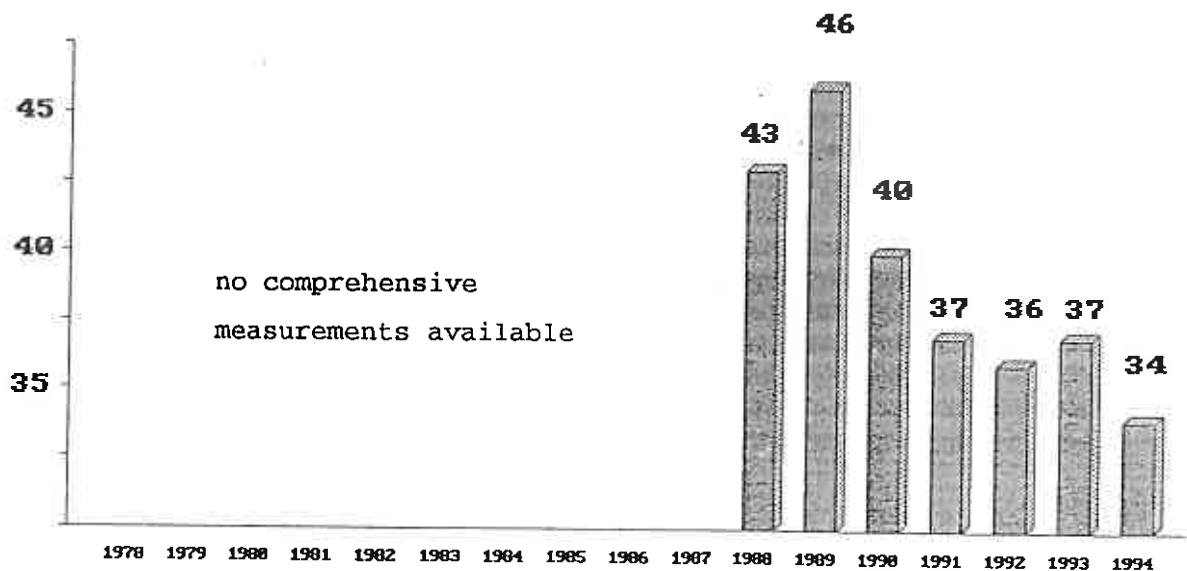
from 1978 to 1994



Development of annual sulphur dioxide averages in Vienna from 1978 to 1994 (Concentration in microgram per m³)

NITROGENOXIDE - ANNUAL AVERAGES IN VIENNA

from 1978 to 1994



Development of annual sulphur dioxide averages in Vienna from 1988 to 1994 (Concentration in microgram per m³)

5.5 PROJECT No.5: "THE SPITTELAU WASTE INCINERATION PLANT IN VIENNA"

5.5.1 Individuals in charge, institutions

Fernwärme Wien GesmbH
1090 Wien, Spittelauer Lände 45
Phone: 0043/1/313 26-0
Fax: 0043/1/313 26-2884

5.5.2. Initial situation and key data

The Spittelau District Heating Plant was originally designed in 1971 to supply heat to the newly built General Vienna Hospital. At the same time, a waste incineration plant was set up to reduce the amount of waste to be deposited on landfill sites.

In 1987, operation of the incineration plant was interrupted by a fire. The temporary closure of the plant provided an opportunity for the operators to install the most advanced environmental protection facilities, based on Austrian technology, and thus make a significant contribution towards pollution control in Vienna.

The three waste incineration plants currently operating in Vienna - Spittelau, Flötzersteig and EBS Simmering (incineration of hazardous waste) - are essential components of the Vienna system of waste management.

The Vienna waste management system, based on a concept adopted in 1985, meets all the requirements outlined in the 1990 Waste Management Act:

- absolute priority is given to the avoidance of waste;
- the waste generated is to be reused to the extent to which this is ecologically favourable, technically feasible, and economically justifiable (waste recycling);
- the remaining waste is to be disposed of at landfill sites in low-reactive and environmentally compatible form (waste disposal).

The Vienna system of waste disposal, based on consistent waste separation, environmentally compatible recycling, above all through thermal utilisation in three waste incineration plants, makes a vital contribution to the sustainable development of the town.

A few key data:

- Of the total annual waste volume of 800,000 tonnes, about 50% is reused in the form of heat, with the Spittelau district heating plant alone accounting for some 270,000 tonnes.
- Together with other heat generating plants, the Spittelau district heating plant supplies heat to 150,000 dwellings and 3,200 large-scale consumers through its 447 km² district-heating network.
- The Spittelau plant generates a net thermal output of 460 MW, with 60 MW being generated entirely through waste incineration.
- The amount of dioxin released by the plant, which is equipped with the world's first system of catalytic dioxin destruction, averages 0.042 mg toxicity equivalents/m³ of flue gas, which is well below the strict dioxin emission limit of 0.1 mg per m³ of flue gas. The output of nitrogen oxides is 100 times lower than that of the average passenger car.

5.5.3. Objectives and strategies

Waste incineration is an integral part of the Vienna system of waste disposal and energy production in accordance with ecological principles.

In line with the principle of waste avoidance, the degree of environmental pollution from the incineration of unavoidable residual waste, unsuitable for any other form of re-use, is to be kept as low as possible through modern environmental technology; at the same time, a contribution is to be made to an ecologically compatible form of energy production.

Disposal systems must be designed so as to reduce waste to two types of substances: reusable materials and residual waste which can safely be disposed of on landfill sites without harming the environment.

Substances deposited on landfills must never become a source of environmental pollution. Even without monitoring, they must not constitute a hazard for sub-surface bodies of water.

The Vienna system of waste management, based on the consistent collection of hazardous and other waste materials and their environmentally safe recycling, the separate collection of biogenic waste, the sorting of commercial and industrial waste for partial re-use and on heat production through waste incineration, succeeded in reducing the annual amount of waste deposited on the central Vienna landfill site by 60% between 1988 and 1993.

5.5.4. Description of the model and the measures taken

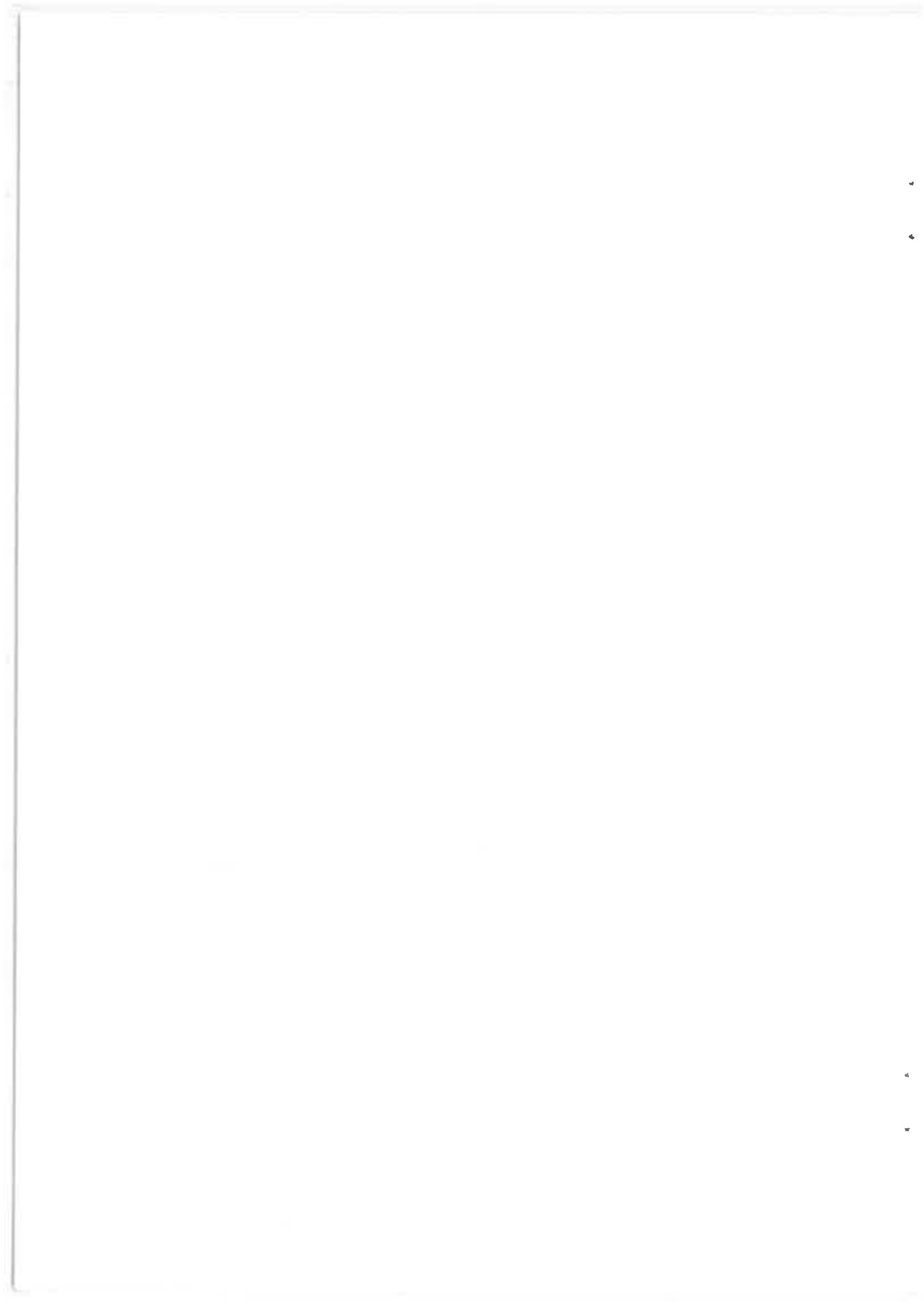
The repair work which had to be undertaken after the 1987 fire at the Spittelau waste incineration plant provided an opportunity for the installation of state-of-the-art environmental protection facilities, i.e.

- a catalytic flue gas scrubber which brings NO_2 emissions down to 40 mg/m^3 of flue gas;
- a denitrification unit - the only one of its kind in the world
- which destroys dioxins and furans by means of a highly effective catalytic process;
- wet electrostatic precipitators to eliminate heavy metals, hydrochloric and hydrofluoric acid, as well as sulphur dioxides.

The pollution-control efficiency of the new system is excellent, as can be seen from a comparison of the pollutant emissions measured at the plant and the limits imposed by pollution-control regulations; this is also confirmed as the emission measurements obtained are significantly under the statutory limits.

View of "The Spittelau Waste Incineration Plant in Vienna"
(created by Friedensreich Hundertwasser)





5.6. PROJECT No. 6: COMMUNITY PROJECT "FORELLENWEG - SALZBURG"
(see diagram on p.78)

5.6.1. Individuals in charge

- Principal

Stadtgemeinde Salzburg, Wohlfahrtsverwaltung MA 3
(Municipality of Salzburg,
Social Services Administration, Department 3)
Dr. Heimo Stützl
St.-Julien-Straße 20, 5020 Salzburg
Phone: 0662/8072-0

- Developer

Gemeinnützige Salzburger Wohnbauges.m.b.H. (GWSB)
Ignaz-Harrer-Straße 84, 5020 Salzburg
Phone: 0662/43 31 81

- Social planning and scientific support

Institut für Alltagskultur und Österreichischer Wohnbund
(Institute for Modern Living and the Austrian Housing Federation)
Head: Dr. R. Gutmann
1060 Wien, Mariahilfer Straße 89/24
Phone: 0043/1/586 07 99

5.6.2. Initial situation

With its "Forellenweg" housing estate project, the City of Salzburg wanted to make a contribution to the debate on suburban development. The discussion focused on the question of whether an urban environment (urbanity) can be created from scratch. The issues at stake concerned matters of architecture, but also the question of inhabitants identifying with the place they live in, the mix of social groups, the creation of a social network, and the participation of the inhabitants in the design of the project.

A few key data:

- The planning phase - with Architect Ungers in charge - took from 1984 to 1987.
- The project was planned by an international group of seven architects under the chairmanship of Architect Ungers between 1984 and 1987.
- The project, which comprises 302 flats for about 950 inhabitants, was carried out between 1987 and 1990.
- About one half of the 302 flats are rented flats, the other half are owner-occupied. Other facilities within the housing estate include:



1 community-organised crèche,
1 cultural pavilion (multi-purpose hall, restaurant and youth centre)
1 community centre, where the inhabitants can meet, with office facilities and advisory services
17 community rooms for do-it-yourself and recreational purposes
Senior citizens' group
Shared housing for persons with and without disabilities
Shops

5.6.3. Objectives and Strategies

The main objective of the "Forellenweg Community" project was to implement a model project for professional community development with a view to avoiding the well-known social problems of newly created housing estates. The individual goals pursued by the project were as follows:

- provision of "affordable housing" which, at the same time, meets urban-development, architectural and socio-cultural criteria;
- combination of ownership structures, i.e. tenants and owner-occupiers, within a block of flats as a social concept;
- trial implementation of the community "planner" model as a basis for the "democratic" allocation of housing and involvement of the inhabitants in the planning process;
- support for community development (neighbourliness, self-help, citizens' initiatives) through socio-cultural community work over a period of five years as a form of preventive social policy ("inhabitants' service");
- improvement of residential-environment quality through provision of a high-quality infrastructure (community centre, cultural pavilion);
- mixing of age groups through the integration of individual and collective housing for senior citizens (provision of home care facilities);
- upgrading of the planning and initial occupation phases through "action-oriented research" (Federal Housing Research).

5.6.4. Description of the model and the measures taken

- Occupant participation in ground-plan design

One of the essential aspects of the Forellenweg Model was the participation of the future inhabitants in the design of the ground plan of their flats, subject to co-ordination by an expert planner.

Allocation of the flats was not by the usual procedure, but on the basis of meetings and discussions within a block of flats. This method of allocations was intended to involve the inhabitants in all matters concerning the housing estate from the very start.

- Residents' service

At the end of 1988, a "residents' service" (comprising two social workers and a female pedagogue) was set up by the welfare and cultural affairs department of the Municipality of Salzburg on a sound financial and organisational basis.

Through continuous support and counselling, the "residents' service" fosters community initiatives, takes up suggestions, offers organisational assistance, and co-operates with the occupants in the design of strategies aimed at changing their living conditions.

- The specific objectives of the project include:

- Creation of a specific socio-cultural infrastructure for the housing estate in accordance with the inhabitants' needs;
- Creation of a durable community in which differences are accepted, and everybody has a chance to contribute to community life;
- Extension of participatory activities beyond the confines of individual housing into the community of the housing estate and the development of a common culture;
- Creation of basic structures for self-organised groups;
- Strengthening of conflict-solving competences within the community.

The residents' service is based in the "community centre", the social cultural and communicational turn-table of the "Forellenweg" housing estate, which has, in the meantime, become the centre of the whole residential area.

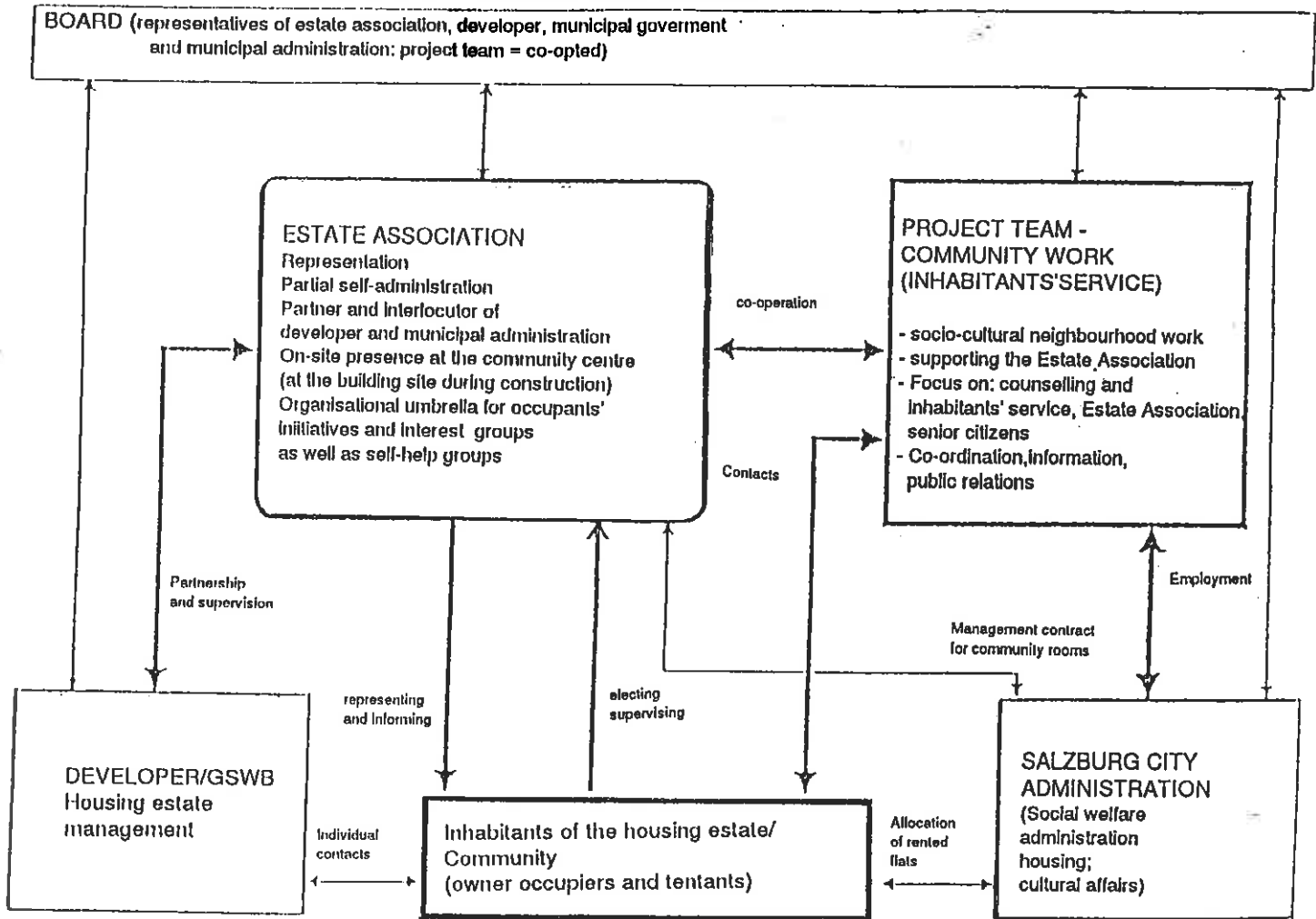
Its functions are:

- animating and managing the community centre;
- chairing and supporting the estate association;
- mediation of social services and advice;
- providing care for senior citizens within the community;
- co-ordinating the programme of the cultural pavilion;
- making suggestions regarding the use of the community and do-it-yourself rooms;

- targeting special attention on women, young people and foreigners,
- public-relations work.

The "Salzburg Forellenweg" Community Project is an exemplary model for the development of a community with community spirit within the framework of affordable housing in Austria. It has influenced the discussion on and the approach to urban-development projects in other Austrian towns.

ORGANISATIONAL STRUCTURE of the "Forellenweg Estate Association"



PART C: MEASURES AND POLICIES

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1. THE "GLOBAL STRATEGY FOR SHELTER TO THE YEAR 2000 (GSS)"¹

On 21 December 1993, the General Assembly of the United Nations adopted Resolution 48/178 "Global Strategy for Shelter to the Year 2000". In so doing, it reiterated its Resolutions 43/181 of 20 December 1988, 46/163 of 19 December 1991, and 47/180 of 22 December 1992. The Resolution called upon all governments, inter alia, to elaborate and implement special plans of action.

The priority objective of the GSS is to enable the provision of adequate housing for all groups of the population by the year 2000. This implies the provision of housing which meets individual needs, is safe and of sufficient size, has adequate lighting and ventilation, and a basic infrastructure, and is situated within a reasonable distance from the place of work, and all this at an affordable price.

A number of measures have been taken to meet the objectives of the GSS. However, Austria is a federal state with a decentralised planning and organisational structure, which allows its citizens, enterprises and organisations a considerable amount of freedom in the economic sphere. Hence, given the Austrian political system, a National Plan of Action would not be appropriate. Starting with the working programme of the current federal government, the following chapters therefore outline various aspects of the development of human settlements in Austria and describe some of the strategies employed at the federal, provincial and local levels to solve or alleviate present-day settlement-policy problems.

¹A/CONF.165/PC2/5,
HS/C/15/3/Add.3, Add.4
Report of the Secretary General: Mid-Term Review of the Global
Strategy for Shelter to the Year 2000

2. WORKING AGREEMENT OF THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT

In the 1994 Coalition Agreement of the governing parties, high priority is given to a housing construction campaign for the creation of new housing.

The Agreement recognises housing as an elementary need of every human being, which must be met adequately and at an affordable cost through the co-ordinated efforts of federal, provincial and local authorities. To this end, the present system of housing subsidies is to be maintained. In order to provide a sufficient amount of affordable housing, the Agreement prioritises the following measures:

- further increase of the housing supply to reduce excess demand;
- a more transparent housing market and an equitable system of housing allocation;
- monitoring of the effects of the 3rd Amendment to the Housing Act on the housing market, particularly with regard to housing supply, excessive rent prices, and inadmissible provisions on the duration of tenancy contracts, the intention being to take specific reform measures in the event of market failure;
- continuation of efforts intended to harmonise housing legislation through the adoption of a uniform Housing Management Act, which is to make calculations and statements of housing-related costs and charges more transparent and easier to understand for the citizen;
- motivation of the federal provinces to use the funds available as efficiently as possible in order to increase the supply of housing;
- public land not required for other purposes, such as real estate owned by the Austrian Federal Railways or army barracks, is to be sold or made available for housing construction in urban agglomerations.

3. DEVELOPMENT OF HUMAN SETTLEMENTS AND RELEVANT STRATEGIES*

3.1. Current conditions

The development of human settlements at the expense of previously vacant land increasingly leads to conflicts among competing land uses. As a result, the ecological balance is being upset, particularly in urban agglomerations. Demographic and economic developments, including transport, individual human behaviour and the resulting development of human settlements have produced changes in the atmosphere, the climate, and the conditions of air, water, soil and the biosphere, all of which have led to a deterioration of the quality of urban life. This development must not be allowed to continue unchecked at the expense of future generations.

The demographic trends in the regions around major towns point to a massive increase of suburbanisation in the decades to come, unless the public sector succeeds in shifting the cost burden to those who are at the origin of this process. These developments are mainly attributable to the growing demand for additional housing, which in turn is due to the declining average size of households and society's changing perception of the ideal dwelling. The 1991 Policy Outline for Regional Planning in Austria points to a number of alarming developments likely to occur in and around metropolitan areas:

- a continual and unstructured "sprawl" at the urban fringe over a rapidly growing settlement area, even if population figures remain unchanged;
- a further decline of densely built-up inner-city districts, many dating from the latter part of the 19th century;
- a decline of inner-city shopping streets and a simultaneous boom of land-devouring and traffic-generating suburban shopping centres;
- unrealisable demands made on the public transport system;
- private transport on the verge of collapse and a source of severe environmental pollution; and
- a waste of public funds through inefficient uses of the infrastructure.

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3.2. Development of human settlements and land consumption

In theory, approx. 32,600 km² of the Austrian territory are permanently inhabitable (all areas except Alpine grassland, forests, waste land and bodies of water), which is less than 39% of the total territory of 84,000 km². Thus, the percentage of inhabitable land is lower than that of forests. In the country's Alpine region, no more than 25% of the total area is suitable for permanent settlement. In some districts (e.g. Imst, Landeck) the figure is as low as 8%.

This 39% of Austrian territory has to provide, if possible without conflict, areas for agricultural production, traffic, infrastructure, recreation and nature conservation, as well as for human settlement with its rapidly growing need for land. Thus, the share of land suitable for permanent settlement is most strongly affected by competing land uses.

The problem of unchecked land use by a spread of human settlements which is uneconomical, generates traffic and destroys the landscape, tends to be underestimated, even though some 25 to 30 hectares of land are lost to settlements in Austria every day. Every year, another 50 to 70 km² of land are built up for settlement and traffic purposes. Naturally, the expansive pressure of human settlement is greatest in urban agglomerations, with up to 55% of the land theoretically available for building in large towns already built up. The corresponding figure for the surrounding communities is a modest 13%, but there is an enormous amount of construction going on in the regions around major towns, 40 % of which is taking place in small towns and 60% on what was formerly open countryside.

Housing accounts for by far the greatest amount of space taken up by human settlements. Almost 70% of newly built-up areas in large towns and 80% in the surrounding communities are residential areas. The demand for space for housing, in particular, has been growing drastically: the average usable living space per person in inhabited dwellings, which had increased from 22 to 29 m² (+ 27%) between 1971 and 1981, reached 35 m² in 1991 (+ 88%). At the same time, the number of single-family houses has increased rapidly: 49% of all dwellings built between 1971 and 1980 were single- and two-family houses, accounting for 87% of the total area used for residential purposes.

Holiday homes and second residences also accounted for an unproportionately high share of residential construction. Between 1978 and 1988, the number of second homes grew by 30% or - if one includes second homes used by non-Austrian residents and other types of holiday accommodation - more than 60%. The concentration of second homes in regions of high recreational value aggravates

the land use conflicts in these areas and strongly affects their settlement patterns and infrastructural requirements. Extensive and land-consuming building activities, above all in regions developed for winter tourism, threaten to use up much of the "natural landscape", which is the most important resource of any country with a shortage of inhabitable land.

Land use for trade and industry is also increasing as a result of diversification and the trend towards horizontally organised patterns of production in single-storey buildings spread out over large areas of land. The relocation of production sites from the city centres to the periphery aggravates the problem and also creates higher demand for parking space. While structural change has led to a sharp increase in the number of job-intensive service businesses and administrative enterprises, the number of area-intensive commercial businesses at the urban fringe and along exit roads, mostly with extensive storage space and parking facilities, has been virtually "exploding".

Another 9% of the inhabitable land or 3.6% of the total area is used up by transport in its various forms (roads, pathways, railway facilities, airports, parking space, etc.). However, the actual amount of land required for traffic routes, most of which are linear and rather narrow, is not the major problem, the environmental effect of exhaust gases and noise on the areas concerned being much more serious. In addition, the desire to relocate traffic - both road and rail traffic - from densely populated zones and residential areas often results in virtually unpopulated agricultural land being cut through and regions being polluted which were previously to a large extent unaffected by noise or contaminants.

The trend towards functional division, which has been observed for some time, leads to increased land use and a greater potential for conflict, with the economy of human settlements being adversely affected by spatial distance. This development is attributable not only to the prevalence of certain planning models, but also to the considerable economic interests of those involved in the development of settlements, since a mixture of functions not only complicates the development, planning, financing and implementation of many building projects, but also raises problems with respect to their utilisation.

The growing spatial separation of housing, work, shopping and recreation increases the consumption of land and generates additional demand for traffic, which would not happen if there were a reasonable mix of these basic functions. As a rule, such separation also results in higher development costs for the public sector, which can hardly be passed on entirely to the landowners.

3.3. Development of human settlements and traffic

3.3.1 Past developments

The current dynamics in the development of human settlements is both the cause and the effect of the growing availability of private motorised transport, without which the spatial dispersion of different functions and activities would not be feasible. The considerable widening of the individual ranges of activity and the increasing globalisation of the economy have intensified the transport requirements of the population and the economy.

Between 1980 and 1990, the number of private cars increased by one third to three million; the number of lorries grew by the same proportion to 250,000. On top of that, there are some 550,000 two-wheeled vehicles. Compared with the period from 1970 to 1980, which saw a doubling in the numbers of private cars and lorries, the rate of growth slowed down considerably. However, in the meantime, the ratio of households to private cars has increased to 1.000 : 985, with the number of private cars exceeding that of private households. One in six households has more than one private car (as of 1990).

The development has been influenced by the quality of public transport and the increasing difficulties affecting private transport. Formerly (around 1960), the highest degree of motorisation was to be found in large and medium-sized towns, now it is lowest in large towns and 50% higher in peripheral (rural) regions and the districts around major towns.

Over the last few decades, the development of human settlements has been characterised by migration from towns to peripheral districts ("sub-urbanisation") and migration from rural regions to towns ("rural exodus"). Hence, the regions around major towns record the highest increase in terms of inhabitants, households, dwelling units and jobs. With settlements spreading over large areas, public transport networks could not keep pace. At the same time, people are moving away from city centres for lack of space and away from rural/peripheral regions for lack of attractions, which means that city centres and suburbs are suffering from out-migration and loss of function. As a result, the demand for transport in rural regions is increasing and the cost-effective operation of public transport may no longer be feasible.

The preference for suburban living generates traffic. With trade and industry also moving to the periphery of large towns or the surrounding countryside, with shopping centres and major recreational facilities springing up in the open countryside, dependence on private transport is becoming ever greater. Developers often do not pay enough attention to accessibility by

public transport when choosing a location. Land prices and land shortages result in urban sprawl, with settlements spilling over into the surrounding countryside.

As regards accessibility, there are distinct regional differences within Austria, with a marked gap between the centre and the periphery. A regional centre is 30 minutes away by public transport for 72% of the population and by motorised private transport for 95% of the population. 51% can reach a provincial capital (including Vienna) within 50 minutes by public transport, compared with 83% by motorised private transport.

Therefore, the majority of daily commuters go to work by car (except in Vienna and the districts around Vienna with their well-developed network of public transport). This trend is reinforced by the fact that the number of jobs in manufacturing, trade and small businesses is continuously declining as a result of technological developments and concentration processes, whereas many new service-sector jobs are being created in centrally located towns.

The tendencies towards concentration and relocation further increase the volume of shopper traffic. The density of both food retail stores in rural regions and supermarkets and department stores in peripheral districts has declined. Given the fact that in these peripheral regions the provision of public transport is limited and concentrated mainly on the rush hours of work- and school-related traffic, most people depend on the use of private cars for other trips.

3.3.2. Settlement structures for traffic avoidance

The 1991 Policy Outline for Regional Planning in Austria attributes a high degree of priority to the principle of "decentralised concentration" in the further development of the settlement structure. The concentrated and spatially limited development of settlements and an increased focus on regional centres, also in the regions around major conurbations, take some of the burden off the existing settlement cores. At the same time, the expansion of settlements is to be brought in line with the possibilities of a cost-effective and environmentally compatible development of the transport, supply and disposal infrastructure. Such a policy is intended to contain the urban sprawl and reduce the number of people commuting over large distances.

Re-organising the settlement structure, re-orienting the traffic system and measures to influence individual traffic behaviour - these are the prerequisites for an integrated overall concept. Priority should be given to the development of settlement structures which avoid and reduce traffic, for example by designing settlements for multi-functional use, by a shift to environmentally compatible and energy-saving means of transport which take as little space as possible, by improved co-operation among providers of transport, and by a narrowing of the accessibility gap.

Hence, it is important not only to bring regional planning in line with traffic planning, but also to create traffic conditions which are environmentally more acceptable (e.g. through low-traffic zones, priority for pedestrians, cyclists and public transport, together with a corresponding parking regime for private means of transport, reduction in the amount of free parking space, support of car-sharing groups). It is equally important to provide for a selective expansion of infrastructural facilities, and to ensure a meaningful division of tasks between different transport providers. Besides structural changes, changes of individual behaviour (citizen counselling services) will be essential, if traffic-related environmental harm is to be kept within reasonable limits.

For urban areas, the compact town ("the town of short distances") constitutes the ideal model of urban development. Compact construction patterns, a proper mix of functions and a policy of decentralised concentration help to reduce the traffic volume and ease the traffic-related burden also in towns.

3.4. Prerequisites for the ecological development of settlements

Unlike the household of nature, potentially unaffected by human activity, the household of settlements is characterised by:

- strongly limited natural productivity and a low share of biomass;
- a limited self-regulating capacity;
- a high degree of dependence on other eco-systems and their productivity (massive demand for inputs of energy, materials, water, air, food, etc.), coupled with
- a high energy output (waste heat, waste water, waste air, and solid waste) and a high consumption of energy for transport, which results in
- an extremely inefficient turnover of materials and energy, and
- substantial changes to whatever is left of nature.

Hence, an ecologically oriented development of human settlements requires:

- an increased efficiency of energy and material flows,
- optimum utilisation of resources and the closing of cycles,
- strengthening of the natural factors of production (preventing soil and water pollution, allowing more space for natural vegetation),
- compensating and supportive measures to minimise human interference with and burden on the natural household,
- strengthening of the sustainability and self-sufficiency of urban eco-systems.

Efforts to optimise the settlement system in ecological terms concern both "urban nature" and the built-up environment. Any attempt to increase energy and material efficiency and to strengthen the system's autonomy and self-regulating capacity leads towards an improvement of the ecological situation of settlements as a whole. As a rule, "intelligent" settlements and buildings are also more favourable from the ecological point of view. In general, the quality of the environment and the quality of life for the population may be regarded as a yardstick for the quality of the natural habitat.

3.4.1. Eco-system and material-flow analysis of urban regions as a basis for sustainable development

Human beings do not exist in isolation, but relate to and depend on their environment in many ways. This is true, in particular, of the type of settlement which will accommodate more than 50% of the world population by the turn of the century: the town.

Towns greatly influence the global environment. They cannot exist without importing materials and energy from all over the world. Towns generate enormous amounts of waste, effluents and exhaust gases, which constitute a heavy burden on the eco-system of our planet.

However, the size of the planet being finite, it is impossible for its surface to be expanded or its resources to be multiplied. All human activity is governed by the potential or existing shortage of energy and material.

If mankind is to survive, we need to perceive the economy as a sub-system of the bio-sphere, which today is already heavily burdened, if not overburdened.

It is the purpose of eco-system studies of large towns to make this perception tangible and to prepare the necessary steps of implementation.

The City of Vienna, the only metropolitan region in Austria, therefore commissioned a study aimed at the development of future-oriented principles and models for the solution of ecological problems, with a view to developing settlement and environmental policies based on a sparing use of resources.

The recently completed Eco-System Study of the Vienna Conurbation (Ökosystemstudie Großstadt Wien) (Dörflinger, Hietz, Maier, Punz & Fussenegger) looks at the balance of energy, water and other

material flows from an ecological point of view. Using the "sustainable process index" (SPI) as a basis, the study shows that the space required in Vienna merely to meet the basic human needs of its population is several thousand times greater than the actual surface. In its conclusion, the study underlines the need for a drastic change of course towards a more sustainable economy. For the elaboration of material-flow balances, the town was broken down into ecologically characterised sub-systems; this break-down not only facilitates data processing, but also permits selective measures to be taken at a level below that of the general model.

The study presents a synoptic overview of the material flows of the anthroposphere (which is largely man-made) and the biosphere (perceived to be natural, at least in theory), which otherwise tend to be regarded separately, if at all. On this basis, selected material flows are to be investigated in greater detail through inter-disciplinary and inter-university co-operation within the framework of the Vienna International Conference on the Future. The findings thus obtained will serve to identify important and critical aspects of the material flows investigated with a view to minimising future resource depletion and environmental pollution in the processes of production and consumption and - in ecological terms - to putting life on our planet on a sustainable basis.

Hence, an environmentally compatible development of settlements will try to make the best possible and most sparing use of the available resources (re-use, recycling), while, at the same time, minimising waste (waste heat, waste water, waste air and solid waste).

Special attention has to be paid to minimising energy turnover, above all in the fields of heat supply and transport (low primary energy consumption and high energy efficiency). Measures of urban development, including regional planning, traffic planning and zoning (suitable construction methods, construction patterns and land-use concepts), have an important role to play in this context. Closed material-flow cycles (recycling) can be promoted through the selection of suitable building materials.

3.4.2. Minimising land consumption

The amount of land consumed and sealed up in human settlements should be minimised, above all in urban agglomerations. To this end, preference is to be given to higher construction densities in well-developed, centrally located settlement areas, whereas free spaces on the urban fringe are to be preserved to the greatest possible extent. Basically, the percentage of land sealed up should not be much greater than the percentage of built-up land.

The consistent recycling of land available for building and the rehabilitation and subsequent use for settlement of contaminated sites and landfills also help to improve the land balance. The land thus rehabilitated need not necessarily be built on, but can also be used for recreational facilities or green spaces near residential areas at a relatively moderate cost. At any rate, new developments at the urban periphery should always be a planner's second choice. Binding regulations to that effect should be adopted within the framework of regional planning. New instruments of municipal land use policy will have to be developed and implemented for this purpose.

3.4.3. Prevention of water pollution

The pollution of ground and surface water through construction activities must be controlled more effectively and reduced in the long term. The rate and quantity of water throughput should be diminished through the maximum retention of precipitation water, measures of water conservation, and recirculation of non-drinking water.

3.4.4. Improvement of the bio-climate

If land use and construction activities gave greater consideration to climatic factors, energy flows, air pollution, and wind field changes could be favourably influenced. The potential for climatic and bio-climatic factors to balance each other out is to be enhanced in urban areas. Above all, the moisture balance needs to be improved (higher rate of evaporation through a larger soil reservoir and increased evaporation by plants). To meet this requirement, it is essential not to seal up more land than is absolutely necessary and to provide for more vegetation with an adequate supply of water, above all in densely populated areas.

3.4.5. Preservation and improvement of green spaces

The growth of plants is to be secured and expanded as the basis of an ecological settlement system. Over and above the general objectives of increasing the size of unsealed land with an optimum cover of vegetation, minimising the extent of areas without vegetation and improving the condition of existing green spaces, vegetation on buildings or parts of buildings (flat roofs, façades) and at temporary sites (empty plots of building land, ruderal areas) is to be encouraged. The integration and support of existing biotope structures within the framework of urban-planning and construction projects is to be given preference over landscaped city green.

3.4.6. Optimisation of spatial structures

A residential environment based on a reasonably small scale with an adequate supply and traffic infrastructure enhances the quality of life of the settlement concerned. For a settlement to be ecologically sustainable, it must provide for a small-scale mix of functions. Regional planning has an important role to play in this respect and should be used more intensively as an instrument of control to ensure an ecologically optimised settlement pattern. Hence, the scope of regional planning legislation is to be extended to cover as many environmental aspects as possible.

3.4.7. Construction patterns and densities

Construction patterns and densities greatly influence the spatial extent and the ecological effects of human settlements. It is true that low-density construction patterns provide more free space for the individual inhabitant, more green spaces and increased possibilities for ecologically "active" areas (vegetation, seepage, waste-water treatment, etc.), but they do not use land economically and involve higher costs.

High-density construction patterns use up less land, involve lower infrastructural costs and are easier to supply with shops and recreational facilities. However, they are more likely to suffer from the disadvantages of architectural monotony, a higher traffic volume and, above all, fewer green spaces. Hence, considerations of settlement economy and human economy speak in favour of a varied offer of construction patterns, so that the greatest possible benefit can be derived from the specific advantages of individual settlement types. Ecological principles, economic requirements and the expectations of the inhabitants can thus be harmonised in the most efficient fashion.

The following principles apply to any pattern of settlement design:

- If possible, detached single-family houses and separate blocks of flats spread out over larger areas should be avoided.
- In industrial and commercial areas, dense, multi-storey patterns of construction are to be given preference over free-standing plant structures with extensive parking facilities.
- Preferably, settlements should develop within the catchment area of public transport and at locations with existing infrastructural facilities, with higher-density patterns to be encouraged in areas adjacent to public-transport station buildings.
- The housing offer should be varied enough to meet the needs of different lifestyles, but an effort should be made to apply ecological principles to future patterns of living (material cycles, energy efficiency, etc.).

Zoning plans should provide for new construction projects to be based on a compact layout, with building façades unshaded and facing south to allow for optimum passive utilisation of solar energy. Roof surfaces inclined towards the south as well as flat roofs offer ideal prerequisites for the active utilisation of solar energy.

3.5. Supply and disposal

A mere extension of existing supply and disposal networks is inadequate to meet the demands of spreading settlements, they also need to be optimised in environmental and economic terms. From the environmental point of view, the future development of settlements should contribute towards an economical and more environmentally compatible pattern of using the available natural resources.

3.5.1. Energy management

The production, transformation, utilisation and distribution of energy noticeably affects the environment. Besides the release of pollutants into the atmosphere, mention should be made of the generation of solid waste, waste heat and noise as well as the use of land, the degradation of landscapes and disturbances of the natural household. Urban agglomerations, in particular, have a very high energy turnover, with locally released waste heat exceeding the amount of the natural thermal energy input by a factor of three. In general, energy is produced by highly polluting and wasteful systems operating at a low degree of energy efficiency. (Motor traffic uses no more than 10% of the primary energy input and accounts for 50% of the pollutant emissions from combustion processes).

Issues of settlement ecology are not sufficiently taken into consideration, given the steep increase of energy consumption, above all for traffic, an energy policy geared to energy production rather than energy efficiency, land-use conflicts over the construction of new energy utilities and, above all, the absence of an adequate basis for assessment and decision-making, such as regional energy balances.

Basically, measures taken to optimise energy processes in the interest of the economy and the environment are aimed at

- reducing energy consumption,
- improving energy efficiency and minimising negative environmental effects,
- avoiding heat losses and waste heat release, and
- using renewable sources of energy to the greatest extent possible.

Measures of energy conservation must be given preference over supply-side expansion. In spite of the declining growth rate of

primary energy consumption and total emissions, the demand for more efficient energy use by the transport system has not yet been met, and the potential for saving energy and for using renewable sources of energy is only partially exploited.

A coherent approach to settlement planning and energy supply, energy-saving construction patterns and an increased use of renewable, decentralised sources of energy would reduce the demand for space and lessen the burden on the environment. Settlement planning must be based on integrated energy-supply concepts, which define the type and variety of energy-supply options to be offered with a view to the desired development of the region and its energy potential (district heating for urban areas, decentralised energy production from biomass, heat pumps, solar energy in rural areas). At the same time, the energy network and the locations of generating plants are to be planned in accordance with regional-policy objectives.

3.5.2. Water management

The high water requirements of our settlements, together with major changes in the natural water and moisture household and the large volume of waste water, place a considerable burden on the eco-system. With much of the land sealed up, precipitation cannot seep into the ground. Moreover, almost any "use" of water results in some degree of pollution. Hence, it is important for settlement areas to use water more economically and to work towards re-closing interrupted water cycles. Water retention, water conservation and water recycling ought to become essential elements of ecologically oriented water management.

Given the fact that a long-term increase of the supply of drinking water will be extremely costly, it will be necessary to separate the systems of drinking water, non-drinking water and industrial water supply, if a more economical use of water is to be achieved. To make the best possible use of the local sources of water and to ensure an adequate supply in terms of water management, quality and quantity, technological solutions known to provide for an economical use of water are to be given preference over other solutions.

To optimise the water-supply infrastructure of human settlements, water-supply balances should be elaborated. To this end, the systems of data collection and data processing would have to be extended and perfected; provision of a legal framework and financial support for water-management planning would be essential.

State-of-the-art waste-water treatment plants are to be set up. When new sewer systems are built or existing ones modernised, separation of different types of water is to be provided for, and contaminated precipitation water is to be treated - depending on

the potential hazard it represents - before entry into the sewer system. Zoning plans are to be drawn up with a view to keeping as much of the land as possible open for the absorption of seepage water.

Any ecologically incompatible interference with the ground water household is to be avoided. The thermal effect on ground water through heat withdrawal (heat pumps) is to be reduced to an ecologically justifiable extent, unless some measure of heat withdrawal is desirable to counteract the heat input from buildings and activities related to them. Against the background of the growing problem of contaminated sites and the resulting costs of rehabilitation, increased ground-water monitoring for contaminant seepages and discharges is to be advocated. More highly polluted run-off water from roads also has to be discharged completely into the sewer system.

Natural bodies of water of small size, and locations characterised by the presence of water need to be protected against human interference more effectively than in the past because of their great ecological value. Bodies of running water which have been affected by construction activity are to be restored to their natural state on a medium-term basis. Man-made bodies of still water (e.g. as a by-product of gravel excavation) have gained a high recreational value and assumed habitat functions for many water-dependent species. Any danger to such bodies of water through illicit waste dumping or excessive utilisation is to be avoided.

3.5.3. Waste management

Protecting our natural resources as the basis of human existence through organised waste management is one of the central concerns of modern society. The material turnover of an urban eco-system (water, air, solids) in a densely built-up area exceeds the natural turnover by several times. Construction activities and the construction industry account for about 40% of the entire man-made solid-matter turnover and a major share of water and air consumption. Much of the material input leaves the eco-system in the form of waste water, waste air and solid waste. To safeguard the regenerative capacity of eco-systems in a sustainable fashion, stable and closed cycles must be created; to meet this goal, waste avoidance and organised waste management are essential.

In 1987, about 2.45 million tonnes of waste were generated in Austria (approx. 319 kg/inhabitant), with household waste accounting for 75%, industrial and commercial waste for 19% and bulky waste for the remaining 6% of the total. Depending on the federal province concerned, the ratio of household waste to industrial waste varies between 61:39 and 95:5, with the per-capita amount of household waste ranging between 175 kg/inhabitant in Lower Austrian and 440 kg/inhabitant in the Tyrol. Between 1970 and 1987, the total amount of waste grew by 20% every four years.

Waste is disposed of through incineration, composting and landfilling. The 1987 waste survey recorded 103 regular landfills and 533 unauthorised waste dumps. However, a mere 28 out of 66 central/regional facilities were built after 1977 and can therefore be assumed to comply with the regulations. This low number of landfill sites will decline even further, as more and more of the older dumps are closed down for non-compliance. At the same time, the amount of waste generated is increasing continuously. Unless the volume of waste to be landfilled is reduced sharply through the installation of waste processing and treatment plants, some provinces will run out of landfill capacity within the next five to seven years (information as of 1981). However, there are examples of measures to counteract this process: the Province of Vorarlberg succeeded in increasing its waste recycling rate from 16% to 42% between 1988 and 1989 and thus reduced the amount of household waste to be landfilled from 84% to 58%.

Special waste (1983: 13.3 million tonnes of non-monitored special waste and 200,000 tonnes of hazardous waste, 1987: 300,000 tonnes of hazardous waste) constitute a particular problem. The nine special-waste treatment plants and 52 landfill sites for hazardous waste in Austria meet between 67% and 89% (depending on the type of waste concerned) of the estimated demand for disposal, the balance has to be exported. Since the population is particularly hostile to the creation of new hazardous waste disposal sites, and since the future of special-waste exports is far from clear, environmentally safe treatment and disposal is not entirely safeguarded for the future.

As the amount of sewage sludge spread on agricultural land for fertilisation will decline in the course of time, ever larger quantities of sludge will have to be disposed of through landfilling and composting. Moreover, many of the more than 4,000 formerly active waste dumps known in 1988 constitute a potential environmental hazard and require rehabilitation.

Besides the general goals of qualitative and quantitative waste avoidance (reduction of contaminant levels and volumes), waste recycling and ecologically oriented, state-of-the-art waste disposal, regional and supra-regional co-operation in matters of waste management is desirable: firstly, because the recycling of high-quality waste and efficient operation of landfills require certain minimum catchment areas; secondly, because competing land-use interests and a high potential for conflict demand a co-ordinated approach agreed upon with the general public. By promoting waste avoidance, separation and recycling, and by encouraging more intensive co-operation between operators of disposal systems and settlement planners, the longest possible use of suitable landfill sites should be ensured. The establishment of new waste treatment and disposal plants should be subject to regional and environmental impact assessments.

3.6. Implementation of strategies to control the processes of suburbanisation in agglomerations - some examples

3.6.1. The region around Vienna

Up to the 80s, the region around Vienna was characterised by progressive suburbanisation with fast growing settlements in the immediate vicinity of the town, a fragmented development along the main traffic arteries, and the exodus of the population from the more remote districts, particularly those bordering on Slovakia and Hungary. More recently, the opening of the borders to the East and Austria's accession to the EU have triggered a process of migration into the region around Vienna, which is expected to increase in the years to come. In the course of this process, Vienna itself has recorded a gain in population through substantial in-migration.

The development of settlements in ring-shaped fashion around the town has had a number of disadvantages for the development of the region as a whole. These disadvantages were caused by the process of suburbanisation and aggravated by related problems. The decentralisation strategy provided for as a counter-measure in the settlement policy concept for eastern Austria² recognises the limits to growth in the core region³ and the trend towards suburban living, but tries to prevent further ring-shaped growth.

Existing settlements of importance as centres and with a strong residential and job-related focus are to serve as development centres, provided they meet the following criteria:

- minimum distance from Vienna, i.e. exclusion of those communities which have already become part of the Vienna conurbation (such as Klosterneuburg, Korneuburg, Großenzersdorf, Schwechat, Mödling and Purkersdorf);
- maximum distance from Vienna, i.e. not more than one hour by public transport as presently available, to ensure a degree of accessibility comparable to urban locations;
- minimum number of inhabitants and jobs; and
- presence of higher-ranking central institutions.

²Planungsgemeinschaft Ost (PGO): Siedlungspolitisches Konzept Ostregion: Vienna, 1994

³see Urban Development Planning Model for Vienna - STEP 1994

The final selection was determined by the estimated future accessibility by public transport.

The development centres selected, i.e. two existing ones (St.Pölten and Wiener Neustadt) and six "new" ones (Hollabrunn, Mistelbach, Tulln, Stockerau, Gänserndorf and Bruck/Leitha), are to support the strategy of decentralisation through the provision of 26,800 additional dwelling units by 2011. Besides the expansion of public transport, a denser pattern of residential construction, moderate measures to mobilise land for building, and the intensified use of indigenous development potentials are to promote the urbanisation of these rural towns.

As far as Vienna is concerned, the decentralisation strategy mainly influences the choice of transport by people commuting to Vienna and the further development of the traffic infrastructure and organisation, its aim being to halt the urban sprawl.

In accordance with the settlement policy concept for eastern Austria, the strategy to implement this model must not be based entirely on the classic sovereign instruments of regional planning (zoning, assignment of functions above the community level), since these are merely intended to provide the formal legal framework in the development centres. The real incentive ought to be the offer of attractive locations for residential and commercial purposes, which in turn is possible only through private-sector measures (by independent developer institutions).

The medium-term reorganisation of regional transport and the intensified measures to gradually reduce private motor traffic in Vienna constitute important prerequisites for this strategy to work. In the individual development centres, additional measures have to be taken to promote public transport, e.g. through the provision of public feeder systems.

At the political level, the "Eastern Austrian Planning Group" has agreed on a package of measures⁴ to serve the joint implementation of the decentralisation model.

For this strategy to succeed, communities which are not development centres and which lack intrinsic dynamism, other than the development centres, will have to be restrictive in the designation of land for building. In many cases, this will mean a reduction of the present stock of land available for construction, since construction activities will be limited to those required to meet the community's own needs.

⁴ see: Vienna Urban Development Plan - STEP 1994

3.6.2. The Salzburg Agglomeration

Compared with the rest of the country, the Salzburg agglomeration reports an outstanding economic performance and has recorded above-average growth rates of the population and the regional economy in recent decades. Since the Second World War - i.e. during the past four decades - Salzburg has developed from a medium-sized town surrounded by rural communities into a mono-centred urban region with processes of urbanisation extending as far south as the Lueg Mountain Pass and as far north and north-east as the Upper Austrian border.

Cost-of-living differences have led to intra-regional migration and given rise to an imbalance between the numbers of dwelling units and jobs. The towns of Salzburg and Hallein account for 50 % of the residential population and more than 70 % of all jobs.

On account of the dynamic economic development and the limited development possibilities, the region's land market has come under enormous pressure, which has resulted in a steep increase in the price of building land. The situation is aggravated by the fact that, as a result of the high profit potential, no more than a fraction of the land available for building is on offer on the land market.

According to moderate estimates, the population of the Salzburg agglomeration will grow by another 50,000 by 2011 and spread as far as the border communities in Bavaria and Upper Austria. The average size of households will drop from presently 2.9 persons per household to 2.45 persons per household as a result of the fast increase of single and two-person households. Together with the high percentage of relatively young people, this will further stimulate demand for new housing.

For historical reasons, the Salzburg agglomeration is characterised by a surface-consuming settlement structure. In 1991, 80% of all buildings were single- and two-family houses. This also accounts for the high dependence of the population of the urbanised peripheral communities on private cars. As a consequence of this trend, consumption of land suitable for permanent settlement continues to increase, the share of public transport in the total distances covered is declining, and the financial burden on the public sector is growing rapidly.

In a comprehensive analysis, DOUBEK et al. (1983) proposed a decentralisation model for the Salzburg agglomeration, which is based on the promotion of "relief centres" along the axes of rail-bound commuter traffic and the protection of small rural communities from further in-migration.

Implementation of this structural model would substantially reduce the consumption of land for building, compared with a continuation of the current trend. Bringing a greater percentage of the residential population into the catchment area of public transport would be another highly desirable effect.

3.6.3. The Graz Agglomeration

In the 70s and 80s, the number of households and dwellings in the urban region of Graz grew considerably, although the population remained almost stable.⁵ The increase in the number of dwellings was due to the coincidence of three factors: a steep rise in the number of second homes, the disintegration of multi-generational households, and the large number of people moving to the suburbs while maintaining their original dwellings in town. In future, the pressure for housing is expected to ease in the core town and increase at the periphery.

Compared with the rest of Austria, the urban region of Graz has a number of special features:

- In spite of a relatively large stock of building land, there is an acute shortage of land available for construction in the City of Graz, which has led to a decline in the rate of housing construction, which may in turn result in substantial population losses.
- Although the region around Graz is far less dynamic in demographic and economic terms than regions in the vicinity of towns in western Austria, Graz records the highest consumption of building land per inhabitant in Austria.

The latter is certainly due to the fact that land prices in Graz are lower than in other urban agglomerations.

3.6.4. The Innsbruck agglomeration

The situation of the Innsbruck agglomeration is particularly dramatic on account of its topographical situation:⁶

- Since the 60s, the Innsbruck agglomeration has recorded the highest increase in the number of inhabitants and jobs of all agglomerations in Austria.
- Given its location in an Alpine valley, the space available for expansion is minimal.

⁵see DOUBEK et al. 1991

⁶SCHREMMER & SCHINDEGGER (1991)

- Owing to the high volume of transit traffic, the region is the country's prime victim of noise and air pollution.
- Finally, the region is extremely important as a tourist and recreational area.

In no other agglomeration in Austria is there such an acute conflict between supply and demand, with different land uses competing for an extremely limited amount of space.

Decentralised growth of settlements around three suitable, central cores in the Inn Valley and a limitation of growth in the area around the City of Innsbruck, at medium altitudes and in the side valleys would be desirable.

Under the completely revised Regional Planning Act (1994 Act on Regional Planning in the Province of the Tyrol) green zones can be provided for, which should be excluded from use for construction for agricultural, ecological, and recreational reasons and to preserve the landscape.

3.7. Outline of a general problem-solving strategy - exemplified by the Salzburg agglomeration

The Salzburg agglomeration, with its particularly acute problems and on account of its location on the Alpine rim, provides a good illustration of a strategy with the potential for general application.

In 1989, under severe pressure from suburbanisation, secondary housing shortage, etc., the Province of Salzburg embarked upon the elaboration of the new Regional Planning Act. The provisions of the new act are intended to mobilise hoarded building land and thus counteract the existing trend for settlements to spread out over the open countryside. In implementing the new legislation, provincial planning programmes have an important role to play, their task being to translate the regional planning principles into practice. As in the other federal provinces, the responsibility for concrete implementation lies with the local authorities. On the basis of the Provincial Development Programme, which took effect on 1 September 1994, the supervisory authority is in a position to supervise the implementation of the regional planning principles at the local level.

⁷ see recommendation by SCHREMMER & SCHINDEGGER, 1991, p.116

Summary of a general strategy to structure the process of suburbanisation

A decentralised settlement structure

The further development of the settlement structure is to be based on the principle of decentralised consolidation. In line with this principle, regional centres and regional secondary centres, located along the axes of rail-bound commuter transport and very well supplied with "central services", are to be promoted so as to ensure their independence in terms of supply and economic viability. These centres are to be linked with each other by efficient means of public transport as an incentive to those who will still be commuting from the centres to change over to public transport.

A settlement system of short distances

By promoting a reasonable mix of compatible functions (avoiding purely "dormitory" towns), a settlement system is to be developed in which most of the distances traversed in the course of everyday activities can be covered on foot or by bicycle. Combined with a moderately dense pattern of residential construction within the catchment areas of public transport, this would help to improve the competitive situation not only of public transport, but also of neighbourhood supply facilities.

Promotion of land-saving patterns of construction

Any analysis of future demand for land should be based on the relationship between demographic growth and the increase in the numbers of households and dwelling units. At the same time, measures should be taken to make better use of the existing building stock, exploit existing and still unused land suitable for construction, modify - if appropriate - existing zoning plans, promote denser patterns of construction, and mobilise existing reserves of land for construction.

Encouragement of development within the confines of existing settlements

Many dwelling units could be created through the intensified use and/or re-designation of existing premises without a new building having to be constructed. At the same time, making better use of vacant plots of land within built-up areas would be a further step towards internal consolidation.

No more new, supra-regional supply facilities (shopping and recreational centres)

As a matter of principle, instead of establishing additional supra-regional supply facilities, measures should be taken within the framework of local planning to revitalise the centres of towns and villages. The sizes of new shopping centres should be made dependent on the size of the communities to be served.

Facilitating a reasonable mix of functions

The centres of existing communities can be re-vitalised through a reasonable mix of functions, i.e. jobs and housing, in small to medium-sized units.

However, the political implementation of these strategies through bans and restrictions is bound to fail. If such strategies are to succeed, the public framework will have to be adapted to the strategic objectives pursued.

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4. REGIONAL PLANNING AND LAND-USE POLICY*

4.1. Local and supra-local planning

According to the programme submitted, "Habitat II" is to deal primarily with the issues of

- how to cope with progressive urbanisation, and
- how to improve the quality of life, above all in urban areas.

Solving these problems - above all, containing the migration from rural areas into towns - requires the co-operation of towns and provincial planning authorities, as the goal cannot be achieved by regulatory measures in the towns only. Given the economic implications of the issues at stake, economic-policy measures are called for.

The development targets for the structuring and development of rural regions and towns have to be set in such a way as to enable rural regions to continue to function and to ensure that their inhabitants can find gainful employment and, hence, earn a living.

Urban-development measures should not be limited to urban renewal and urban expansion, but focus primarily on the function and structure of towns as well as the economic bases of their development.

The spatial development of human settlements needs to be based on plans for future land use oriented towards spatial targets. The most essential elements of such plans concern not only the design of settlements and the built-up environment in terms of designating certain areas for certain types of buildings and facilities, but also the preservation of open spaces and the natural functions of the land.

4.2. Implementation of regional planning

For the purposes of local and supra-local planning, restrictive measures and bans alone are not enough to safeguard the desired development. Although such measures may well prevent an undesirable development, they do not contribute towards ensuring a desirable development.

Above all, measures need to be taken to ensure, on the basis of market-economy principles, that the spatial land-use plans designed to meet the general interests of the public and, in particular, macro-economic criteria are equally acceptable from private-sector and business management points of view.

Preservation of private land ownership is an important issue in this context. As regards land use for building, such measures should permit and facilitate building on the basis of economic criteria. Examples of appropriate measures include infrastructure charges, private-law contracts governing land use for building, the establishment of building land funds and, above all, measures of fiscal legislation.

*Authored by Dipl.Ing.Dr.Franz Stokreiter, Office of the Provincial Government of Lower Austria, Vienna

4.2.1. Infrastructure charges

Any use of land for building requires development not only of the traffic infrastructure, but also of the supply and disposal infrastructure, e.g. water supply and sewage disposal. As a rule, land development lies within the responsibility of the community concerned, which collects a contribution to the costs of infrastructural development when the plot of land in question is used for building. As a matter of fact, however, land not yet built on is often developed at the same time, without the communities receiving any contribution to the costs of infrastructural development.

As an incentive to build and, above all, to compensate the community for some of the costs incurred for plots of land not yet built on, it would be appropriate to collect contributions to development costs not at the time of actual building, but beforehand when the land is designated and developed for building, i.e. as soon as the zoning plan permits construction. Such an infrastructure charge could be collected as of the effective date of the zoning plan or after a certain period, e.g. five years. Local authorities collecting such charges normally do so on an annual basis. The amounts paid are credited against the development costs, but are forfeited if building on the plot of land is not begun within a certain period. This charge is earmarked as a source of revenue for the communities to enable them to ensure the complete and prompt development of land for building; it serves as an incentive for building and as an instrument to increase land mobility.

4.2.2. Private-law instruments

Contracts between local authorities and landowners

Building on land not yet built on but designated for building could also be encouraged through private-law contracts between the local authorities and the landowners. Such contracts may oblige the landowners

- to start building on the land in question within a reasonable period, or
- to sell the land at the market price to residents of the community or persons intending to set up their main residence in the community for housing construction, or
- to sell the land to the local authority for a specific purpose, primarily the construction of housing, at a certain price.

By entering into such a contract, the local authorities on their part undertake to make building on the land in question possible through appropriate zoning and adoption of the relevant regulations.

Building land funds and contracts under the prevailing building law

To support the procurement of land for building by the local authorities, funds or similar institutions (building land procurement enterprises, land banks) can be set up at the local or supra-local level. Such institutions either grant financial support for the purchase of land for building or acquire land for future building and transfer it to those willing to build. Originally endowed with a certain capital stock, these funds are to finance themselves through revenues from the sale of land. The transfer of land is effected either through sale, subject to a private-law obligation to start building within a certain period of time, or under the prevailing building law. Contracts under building law should provide for the transfer of the plot of land into private ownership upon fulfilment of the purpose of the contract, i.e. construction of a dwelling unit. Measures of this kind have been implemented by the Provinces of Salzburg, the Tyrol and Vienna.

Development companies

The public sector can set up development companies offering services in the fields of location marketing, land procurement and development, investor prospecting and counselling, and capital participation for the purpose of implementing the objectives of settlement planning.

4.2.3. Obligatory building

It has often been suggested that the local authorities should be authorised by law to impose obligatory building on land designated for building in the zoning plan. According to these proposals, non-compliance with the obligation to build is to entail forfeiture of the designation as building land or expropriation for the benefit of an individual willing to build or the local authority.

4.2.4. Land-based taxation

Fiscal law provides for a possibility to facilitate building while preserving private land ownership. To this end, a plot of land built on according to the zoning plan would have to be subject to taxes and charges not higher than those payable on a comparable, non-built-up plot. This means that the true value of the land, excluding buildings or other improvements, would have to be used as an assessment basis for land-based taxation also in the case of built-up land. Taxation of land on this basis could, at least partially, replace production-based and performance-inhibiting taxes.

A fiscal measure of the type outlined, which is currently in effect in Denmark, would ensure that land designated for building is built on within a short period of time. It would become uneconomical for speculators to hoard land in the hope of land prices rising. On the one hand, land would be used for construction in the best possible manner, and on the other hand, open spaces would be preserved. With non-built-up land fulfilling its natural functions, the quality of life for the inhabitants would be improved.

4.3. Measures against the urban sprawl

The rising degree of urbanisation results from the fact that towns often offer better opportunities for gainful employment than rural regions in geographically underprivileged locations (regional periphery, border regions).

These differences are accounted for by the fact that the tax burden on labour and capital, though basically the same in towns and in the country, can be supported more easily in towns on account of the ground rent to be expected and actually earned, whereas in underprivileged rural regions such taxation can make a given location unprofitable and thus bring about the loss of jobs. As a result, geographically underprivileged locations have to be abandoned. At the same time, the volume of goods that can be produced on a cost-effective basis is reduced.

To solve this problem, the achievable ground rent rather than labour and capital could be used as an assessment basis. With the capitalised ground rent corresponding to the true value of land, the latter should be used as a measure for taxation. At the same time, the existing form of production-inhibiting taxation, primarily the taxation of labour and capital as well as taxation on the basis of turnover, would have to be lowered. Given the lower value of land in rural regions, taxation would also be lower; this would encourage the expansion of existing businesses and the establishment of new ones. As a result of these measures, the rural exodus and out-migration into towns would probably decline. The unchecked growth of towns, the increase of urbanisation and the population increase in urban agglomerations could thus be contained. People everywhere would enjoy a higher quality of life, with rural regions offering better employment opportunities and urban areas benefiting from having open spaces and areas for recreation within easy reach. At the same time, this type of taxation would stimulate economic activity throughout the country, i.e. in both urban and rural regions.

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5. URBAN DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES - THE EXAMPLE OF VIENNA*

(Inter)Regional co-operation

Given the changes in the political and economic environment, co-operation within and beyond the region of eastern Austria, above all with the Czech Republic, Slovakia and Hungary, is even more important today than it was in the past. Its main focus is on the major issues of transport policy, settlement policy and the economy, but (inter)regional co-operation is essential also in a number of other areas (e.g. environmental protection and nature conservation). Incentives and financial support for cross-border co-operation are provided within the framework of several EU programmes.

Preference to inner-city development and moderate urban expansion

In recent years, the increasing demand for housing - primarily a result of population growth - has been met through a rise in the annual rate of subsidised housing construction. After many years in which urban renewal in densely built-up areas was given priority over urban expansion, this is a clear departure from the past approach to urban development policy. However, in spite of the need for moderate expansion at the urban periphery, the fundamental principles of "inner-city development" and urban renewal are being firmly upheld. Through "inner-city development", the living quality in the most densely built-up areas is to be improved by newly created green spaces; at the same time, a moderate degree of consolidation is to be encouraged in the case of inner-city plots left vacant or partially unused. This approach is intended to counteract the exodus from inner-city districts and the resulting under-utilisation of infrastructural facilities in some parts of the town, and to provide incentives for the upgrading of areas in danger of deteriorating into slums.

However, given the fact that the demand for housing cannot be met through "inner-city development" alone, some degree of ecologically oriented "peripheral development" is also necessary. Above all, an urban atmosphere needs to be created in the expanding suburban belt which, until a few years ago, was characterised by relatively loose construction patterns. The current approach is aimed at the creation of urban structures, which not only use up less land, but also accommodate sufficient numbers of inhabitants to justify the creation of social and cultural facilities and to attract both shops and jobs. "Peripheral urban development" is to be concentrated along development axes oriented around the stops of the more important means of public transport and separated by green wedges. These development axes are located in the north-east of Vienna, beyond the River Danube, and to the south of the town. The implementation of this model will depend on whether these wedges of urban green can be kept free of further building in the process of zoning and land acquisition for construction purposes.

*Compiled by Dipl.Ing. Otto Frey, Vienna Municipal Administration

The recent decision to secure the green belt around Vienna on a large scale and the elaboration of the corresponding programme of implementation are important steps in this direction.

The spatial planning model

The spatial planning model also provides for the further development of the main and district centres as well as local centres outside the core area of Vienna. This long-term strategy, which is intended to cope with a continuously increasing volume of traffic, is particularly important in the north-east of Vienna, a region strongly dependent on the centre and with a road network for private means of transport which has already reached the limits of its capacity. Hence, when new housing is created in these peripheral regions, it is essential not only to encourage the development of regional centres and to provide for a mix of uses, but also to ensure an efficient link-up to public transport, both radially and tangentially.

Stimulating urban development along the River Danube

By stimulating urban development beyond the Danube in the north-east of Vienna and by creating a development focus right at the Danube, Vienna will eventually reach its traditional objective of bringing the town closer to the Danube and, at the same time, take some of the burden off the city centre. The most important project currently under construction in this area is the Danube City, which has been made possible through a plate structure designed to bridge over a motorway and thus improve the environment for the entire neighbourhood. The project also required rehabilitation (excavation) of a former waste dump.

Making land available for building

The growing demand for vacant land for housing construction in suburban locations as well as changes in the general international environment have resulted in a substantial rise in the price of land. Hence, besides the time-tested institution of the Vienna Land Provision and Urban Renewal Fund, additional instruments are required to mobilise land for building. Their task is to ensure a structured development of settlements, the provision of affordable housing, and the preservation of a higher-ranking system of green spaces.

Ecological aspects of urban-development policy

Securing the desired green spaces through planning, zoning, urban landscaping and a well-targeted and timely land purchasing policy is a matter of central concern for urban planning in Vienna, particularly with a view to foreseeable urban expansion (see 1995 decision on green belt for Vienna). Other areas of planning are also in line with the principles of ecological urban development:

denser construction patterns and the mobilisation of inner-city land help to secure more free spaces and increase the efficiency of public transport; with housing and jobs being reasonably close to each other and preference given to public transport, private transport and the resultant emissions are to be reduced; in new housing construction, energy conservation is very much in the foreground and ecological housing projects (e.g. energy-saving houses) are to be encouraged.

More citizen participation

Active citizen participation will become more and more important. Up to the end of the 1980s, the inhabitants were involved primarily in issues of urban renewal. In recent years, however, public hearings have also been held in connection with urban development projects and a wide range of project-related planning processes.

Priority given to public transport

More space for pedestrians and cyclists

The main strategy of transport policy in Vienna is aimed at expanding the network of public transport and gradually reducing motorised private transport. The underground network is to be extended and the network of local commuter lines improved. In this context, the park & ride offer at the stops of the more important public means of transport, above all in the region around Vienna and on the edges of the town, needs to be extended. To diminish the volume of private transport and encourage the population to make greater use of public transport, the development of settlements at the periphery needs to be carefully co-ordinated. Moreover, tram and bus lines are to be extended and, above all, speeded up. The system of parking space management introduced in recent years - effectively monitored, metered parking in densely built-up areas and provision of additional garage space - will be maintained. In addition, more public space is to be reserved for pedestrians and cyclists.

Extension of the railway network

Measures of transport policy are also being planned with a view to upgrading Vienna as a location for (international) enterprises. Hence, the supra-regional transport infrastructure, above all the railway network, has to be extended.

Eastern Austria as an economic area

Economic considerations are closely associated with the concerns of urban development policy. Full employment continues to be the primary objective. Against the background of European integration, special efforts are being made to develop the entire region of eastern Austria, including the neighbouring regions of Slovakia, the Czech Republic and Hungary, as a high-performing economic area.

6. PLANNING FOR URBAN GREEN - ECOLOGICAL AND FAMILY-POLICY ASPECTS*

6.1. Urban green and the forces of the land market

Urban green serves the ecological function of preserving plant and animal habitats and the social function of enhancing human well-being.

The land market is governed by "high-rated uses" (housing, trade and industry, transport) and "low-rated uses". In the free land market, the latter include "free spaces", which - unless secured by zoning plans and protective regulations - are being claimed for high-rated uses, a tendency which is increasing under the population pressure from growing agglomerations. However, free spaces are of particular importance in agglomerations not only from the viewpoint of settlement ecology, but also in social terms as places of recreation and communication for the population.

Hence, the principle of securing and developing urban green and recreational spaces is contained in all the statutory bases for regional planning. As is illustrated by current planning practice, there is increasing recognition of the importance of this principle. Situating green spaces for the public in areas of urban expansion (which requires careful co-ordination with the overall planning process) and developing systems of green spaces within the framework of inner-city urban renewal are among the most difficult planning tasks in large towns.

6.2. Green spaces from the viewpoints of settlement ecology and family policy

A study on the "status of green spaces" in large and very large towns, commissioned by the Federal Ministry of the Environment, criticised the fact that planning for green spaces is not adequately integrated into the overall planning process and that aspects of settlement ecology and family policy are not sufficiently considered.

6.2.1. Principles and targets from the viewpoint of settlement ecology

If our natural habitat is to be preserved and developed on a sustainable basis, the principles and objectives of settlement ecology must be taken into consideration. With the rapid increase of land use by area-intensive forms of settlement continuously diminishing the availability of land as a natural resource, future urban planning will have to give even greater consideration to the principles outlined below.

The essential requirements to be met by ecologically oriented green-space planning can be summarised as follows:

*Authored by Dipl.Ing. Gabriela Langschwert, Federal Ministry of the Environment, Vienna

Preservation - Green spaces form valuable habitats within built-up settlement areas. Inner-city green needs to be preserved, expanded and looked after.

Networking - The quality of near-nature habitats within the urban fabric depends largely on the networking of habitats with each other. Contiguous areas of green favour the migratory activity of living creatures. Hence, it is desirable to further the networking of inner-city habitats with each other and with green areas on the periphery.

Urban hygiene - Green spaces have important functions to fulfil in terms of urban hygiene: climate control (lower temperatures, higher humidity), improvement of air quality (dust filtering), and noise abatement. Even very small areas of green gain in importance in densely built-up urban areas. A maximum of green spaces is desirable for reasons of urban hygiene.

Landscaping - Green spaces are essential components of the urban landscape and should be used as structuring elements.

Integration - The provincial laws on nature conservation provide the basis for the protection, preservation and development of valuable landscapes. Aspects of nature and landscape conservation should be given greater attention in the overall planning process. A co-ordinated use of the available planning instruments (simultaneous procedures, mutual consideration of planning stages) is to be demanded at all planning levels (regional planning; landscape master plan; urban/community planning - landscape planning; zoning for building - planning for green spaces).

6.2.2. Family-policy principles

If our social environment is to be preserved and developed on a sustainable basis, the principles and objectives of family policy must be taken into consideration. With the rapid increase of land use by area-intensive forms of settlement continuously restricting the availability of land for human activity, future urban planning will have to give even greater consideration to the principles outlined below.

The essential requirements to be met by family-policy-oriented green-space planning can be summarised as follows:

Openness - The family is subject to continuous changes in form throughout the life cycle and goes through different phases. The demand for green space and its uses change accordingly, with the various functions of green spaces being more or less important during a given phase. Hence, an open planning framework, amenable to change, is required.

Diversity - The family is an extremely heterogeneous social group, with the individual family members making different demands as regards green spaces and their functions. As a result, the joint use of a common facility may easily lead to conflicts, which should be avoided through the provision of sufficiently large areas designed to permit several types of uses at the same time.

Accessibility - The scope of activities of families - especially of individual family members - is very restricted. The responsibility of looking after other family members, lack of time, being too young or infirm are factors which restrict the use that can be made of green spaces. Hence, measures should be taken to eliminate such obstacles through adequate opening hours, access routes, spatial distribution and accessibility by public transport. This also means that the provision of public green should be given preference over the provision of private green available to just a few households.

Landscaping - Green spaces are essential for socialisation and family life. Given the fact that green-space planning is often neglected and public green spaces are merely "spaces left over", higher-quality landscaping is an important requirement.

Safety - Green spaces are important for families whose members require care and supervision. Hence, they must be designed to offer adequate protection for the individuals requiring such care and allow the carers to fulfil their tasks.

Participation - To ensure the appropriate design of green spaces, avoid conflicts among different groups of users and permit a flexible adjustment to changing conditions, the users should be involved in the planning process.

6.3. Measures recommended from the viewpoints of settlement ecology and family policy

6.3.1. Protection of green spaces

Consistent implementation of nature conservation legislation to ensure the preservation of green spaces.

Restrictive zoning to delimit open spaces and distinguish them from land to be used for building and transport.

An active land policy on the part of the local authorities to guarantee the long-term availability of open spaces within easy range of human settlements and to ensure the provision of housing in a well-targeted, land-saving manner.

Promotion of dense construction patterns as a means of preserving free spaces.

6.3.2. Creation, safeguarding and extension of possible uses for green spaces within easy range of human settlements

Green spaces within and around residential areas fulfil a number of social and ecological functions. These functions need to be secured on a sustainable basis with due consideration given to changing needs and expectations.

Extended opening hours and multiple uses for existing green spaces, the use of which is currently limited (schools, hospitals, senior citizens' homes, green spaces around historical buildings, etc.).

Subdivision of green spaces into different areas to ensure the conflict-free co-existence of different user groups.

Provision of access routes.

Protection of green spaces against dust and noise.

Delimitation and protection of areas for young children and infants.

Extended provision of counselling services (e.g. area-development projects) in support of efforts to provide areas for the creation of green spaces (e.g. through courtyard improvement projects).

Recovery of green spaces lost to building or infrastructure (man-made structures along and around bodies of water, sealing up of large surfaces).

Securing of open spaces already used as recreation space (green spaces between built-up structures, waiting areas, restaurants, vacant plots of building land).

6.3.3. Full utilisation of the possibilities provided for by the law

Landscape master plans for all agglomerations and regions predominantly used for tourism.

Landscape plans for settlement areas to the extent provided for by nature conservation law.

Moving unsuitable commercial and industrial businesses away from settlement areas and rezoning the land thus freed for green spaces in regions under-supplied with public green.

6.3.4. Revision of obsolete legal provisions

Zoning for green spaces and/or open spaces is to be given the same degree of priority as zoning for building (no negative wording; clearer differentiation between different zoning categories).

Binding provisions on residential environment planning within the framework of land-use and construction-pattern planning.

Creation and trial implementation of a legal framework to improve accessibility to public and semi-public green.

Review and improvement of road design guidelines.

Review and improvement of guidelines for the design of play grounds and sports facilities.

6.3.5. Improvement of basic research

Continuous data acquisition regarding social structure, user expectations and demand for green spaces.

Continuous surveys regarding the acceptance and social compatibility of green spaces as well as possible user conflicts.

Assessment of the ecological value of green spaces within easy range of human settlements as part of basic town-planning research.

6.3.6. Incorporation in overall planning, prospective planning for green spaces

Regardless of the current legal situation, planning for green spaces needs to be incorporated to a greater extent in the overall planning process. The planning sequence is to be structured in such a way as to permit a forward-looking approach to green-space planning rather than the retroactive approach frequently encountered in present-day practice.

The tender specifications for town-planning contracts should always provide for comprehensive green-space planning.

The fundamental issues of landscape planning are to be clarified at an earlier stage of the planning process than is currently the case (potential uses of natural spaces, provision of "social green").

6.3.7. Planning beyond community borders

Green-space planning needs to be jointly agreed upon by neighbouring communities, since all issues of settlement ecology and aspects regarding the provision of "social green" have to be dealt with at the regional level. Intensified co-operation between local authorities is essential.

Regional planning for green zones to ensure the preservation of large, contiguous areas of green.

Upgrading of regional planning through a higher degree of compliance of local-level spatial planning with the conditions set by regional planning.

Formation of joint planning bodies by local authorities to solve problems which extend beyond the borders of an individual community (e.g. planning for recreational spaces).

PART D: INTERNATIONAL CO-OPERATION

1. Contacts with Central and East European countries in the field of housing policy

Following an initiative by CECODHAS, the "Vienna Housing Forum" was organised in the autumn of 1994, which dealt mainly with issues of "Housing Construction in Eastern Europe". CECODHAS is the European umbrella organisation of 49 regional and national associations from 23 countries, whose member organisations operate in the field of low-cost or subsidised housing and together hold a total stock of 20 million rented dwellings.

Within the framework of the "Vienna Housing Forum", representatives of 13 countries in Central and Eastern Europe and the European Union discussed housing issues and possibilities for a transfer of "housing-policy know-how" to the Central and East European countries.

As a follow-up to the "Vienna Memorandum", two "housing-policy seminars" were organised in Prague and Budapest in the spring of 1995. Among the participants were the representatives of the government parties in charge of housing issues in the Austrian Parliament, the Austrian representative of CECODHAS, as well as representatives of the Federal Ministry for Economic Affairs. The main goal of these seminars was to familiarise parliamentarians in Hungary and the Czech Republic with the instruments of Austrian housing policy and the changes which these have undergone in the course of time. A similar presentation was also given to representatives of the Croatian Ministry of Housing on the occasion of their visit to Vienna. Currently, a "housing-policy seminar" in the Polish Parliament is being organised.

2. The role of the Municipality of Vienna in projects involving international co-operation*

The international position of Vienna

Two events have radically changed the geopolitical situation of Vienna in recent years: the fall of the "Iron Curtain" a few kilometres to the east of the Austrian capital, and Austria's accession to the European Union. In the wake of the peaceful revolution in Eastern Europe and the subsequent process of transition, both new opportunities and new challenges have arisen for Vienna and the surrounding region. While considerable possibilities have been opened up by economic developments in Eastern Europe, the social problems of migration and, to a certain extent, the threats to democratic change should not be underestimated.

*Compiled by Dipl.Ing. Otto Frey, Vienna Municipal Administration

With the end of the Cold War, Vienna has regained its position in the centre of Europe. At the same time, Austria's accession to the European Union not only creates new momentum for the development of Vienna, but also entails new tasks: Vienna is of particular importance for the process of European integration in the light of the future enlargement of the EU to include the countries of Central and Eastern Europe.

The implications for Vienna are clear. Vienna is willing to take up the challenge of competing with other metropolitan areas in Europe and to assume its role as a turntable for transactions in and with Central Europe.

Priorities of international co-operation and municipal foreign policy

The priorities of international co-operation and municipal foreign policy include:

- securing and creating jobs by bringing foreign investors to Vienna and offering assistance and support to Vienna-based enterprises in their activities abroad, particularly in newly emerging markets;
- active participation in the joint work of European cities and regions to secure peace and foster economic co-operation;
- active participation in the elaboration of pan-European concepts of transport and environmental policy, above all regarding the extension of environmentally compatible trans-European networks (railways, waterways, telecommunication);
- proactive representation of Vienna's interests in Brussels, also with regard to funding through EU programmes of assistance;
- representation of Vienna's interests in the Middle East peace process and the economic development of the entire Mediterranean region;
- maintenance and further development of quality-oriented tourism.

The INTERREG II Programme of the European Union

The INTERREG II initiative of the European Union has been established to provide an organisational framework for regional co-operation beyond national borders and to facilitate the financing of such co-operation. The EU initiative is intended to "speed up the integration of regions along the internal borders of the European market and to overcome the isolation of regions along its external borders by supporting their efforts to cope with existing development problems". In particular, the guidelines for measures qualifying for EU support refer to the establishment and strengthening of institutions and organisations designed to facilitate cross-border contacts, such as town networks.

Vienna participates in the INTERREG II Programme

Although Vienna has no direct common borders with any of the neighbouring countries of Austria, the city is eligible for participation in the INTERREG II Programme on the basis of a special clause. Since the autumn of 1994, Vienna has been involved in three INTERREG II Programmes concerning Austria and the Czech Republic, Austria and Slovakia, and Austria and Hungary. Vienna's main interests are to intensify co-operation between Vienna and Brno, to co-operate more widely (not only in economic terms) with Bratislava, to promote the trilateral development concept for the Vienna-Bratislava-Győr region, and to stimulate economic co-operation with the cities of Győr and Sopron.

The CBC Programme of the European Union

In addition, funds for regions along the EU's external borders to the East are available from the CBC sub-programme (Cross Border Co-operation) of the PHARE Programme (EU assistance for the technical support of the process of economic and social transition in the countries of Central and Eastern Europe), which can be used in connection with INTERREG II.

Other EU projects

Other EU projects, such as ECOS (European Cities Co-operation System) with its special emphasis on migration and transport, CAPITAS (Project of Integrated Telematics Application), and a number of telecommunications projects, provide a forum for co-operation with other European cities, such as Berlin, Brussels, Madrid, Rome, Paris and Budapest.

Co-operation agreements with neighbouring towns

Apart from the EU programmes, numerous other co-operation agreements have already been concluded between Vienna and other (not only) neighbouring towns and countries, some of them limited to particular areas of planning, others more general in scope (e.g. co-operation agreements with Prague and Budapest on waste management and environmental protection).

Euro-Cities

Since the end of 1994, Vienna has also been a member of the Euro-Cities Network, a comprehensive network of towns in the European Union based less on proximity than on common concerns and interests.

Working Community of the Danube Regions

In the autumn of 1994, Vienna assumed the chair of the Working Community of the Danube Regions for the course of one year. This Community was established in 1990 and currently comprises a total of 22 countries and regions from Bavaria to Ukraine. The object of the Working Party is to intensify co-operation between the countries along the River Danube. Its priorities include not only the issue of a transcontinental waterway with a possible

extension from Vienna to the Rivers Oder and Elbe and the improvement of the rail infrastructure, but also ecological concerns and issues regarding the common cultural region. Furthermore, Vienna will make every effort to secure the importance of the Danube region as a future-oriented economic area within the EU.

Know-how Transfer Centre

Within the framework of inter-urban co-operation programmes, co-operation with towns in Eastern Europe is a matter of particular interest for Vienna. Upon an initiative of the Mayor of Vienna, a "Know-how Transfer Centre" (KTC) was set up in 1992 under the auspices of the Austrian Federation of Towns. The main beneficiaries of this know-how transfer are decision-makers, civil servants and experts in the Central and East European countries in transition. The KTC develops its own activities, but also acts as a mediator and project promoter, focusing primarily on the creation of the necessary prerequisites for an efficient local infrastructure and the establishment of local self-administration bodies, i.e. issues which are given little attention by West European private-sector enterprises. Many of the projects supported within the framework of the KTC therefore address issues of municipal and regional interest. Most important among them are measures of training and further training involving the delegation of experts, the organisation of seminars and the commissioning of studies.

ECE Urban Renewal Strategies

Upon the request of the UN-ECE, the Vienna Land Provision and Urban Renewal Fund has assumed an active role in an ECE Task Force for the implementation of urban renewal measures (strategies for the implementation of housing and urban renewal). The working group, which comprises experts from Denmark, Slovakia, Switzerland, Hungary and Austria, is chaired and co-financed by the Vienna Land Provision and Urban Renewal Fund. Its objective is to develop strategies for sustainable and socially compatible urban renewal, above all with regard to the situation in the Central and East European countries in transition.

Support for cities abroad

Co-operation with the cities of the former Yugoslavia also ranks high on the list of priorities. Contacts have been established at the urban-planning level, most recently with Zagreb and Ljubljana, and concrete projects, such as assistance for the development of public transport, agreed upon. Within this framework, support has also been given to Tirana for the establishment of a functioning town-planning service.

Humanitarian aid

Carrying on the long-standing tradition of humanitarian aid will be one of the fundamental principles of municipal foreign policy. Instant humanitarian aid in cases of disaster as well as aid for reconstruction as an instrument of global structural policy (e.g. material assistance for the development of public services, know-how transfer) will be essential elements of a clearly targeted international policy of co-operation. Besides giving support to the Middle East peace process, e.g. in Gaza, Vienna will also participate in an internationally co-ordinated campaign for the reconstruction of Sarajevo.

3. Vienna on its way to the 21st century*

Initiatives on the way to the 21st century

On its way to the 21st century, Vienna will make every effort to achieve as soon as possible the objectives outlined in the 1994 Urban Development Plan. These objectives will be realised on the basis of continued discussions, studies and activities. The following overview of initiatives, although far from exhaustive, indicates the approach to be taken:

1. Further development of the measures and obvious successes of sustainable urban development.
2. Positioning of Vienna as an internationally attractive economic location, above all as a centre between East and West (a pioneer of the future enlargement of the EU).
3. Vienna as a platform for an international dialogue, the main goals of which are international conflict resolution and comprehensive security.
4. Vienna as the centre of a model European region.

The Vienna International Conference on the Future

The Vienna International Conference on the Future was first organised in 1993 under the chairmanship of Dennis Meadows, the well-known futurologist. Against the background of the enormously important role which towns play in global development and the growing number of urban problems, the Conference intends to develop a future-oriented and environmentally compatible model for Vienna as well as a generally applicable, action-oriented model for democratic towns all over the world. Currently, 70 international scientists are working on a total of 17 projects concerning issues such as the sustainable use of energy (above all for transport), models for the optimisation of material-flow cycles, model social and democratic initiatives, the relations between urban development and health, and future prospects for the information society. The results of these projects and a preliminary model are to be submitted by the end of 1995. Selective research on strategies for the future is to be continued.

*Compiled by Dipl.Ing. Otto Frey, Vienna Municipal Administration

Urban visions for Vienna for the year 2015

The "Urban Visions for Vienna for the Year 2015" project takes a similar, though more specific approach. Within its framework, scientists and working groups elaborate concrete proposals and projects which they consider to be of importance for an offensive future strategy to be employed by the town in the competitive struggle for a leading position in Europe. To begin with, priority is given to concrete proposals on the following subjects:

1. Highlighting the salient features of the city's economic basis.
2. Professionalisation and internationalisation of urban policy.
3. Strengthening of the integrative and co-operative potential of the city.

The Vienna European Forum

The above project, with its potential for networking and flexible development, should also be seen in connection with the Vienna European Forum established in 1995. The European Forum serves as a platform for an intensified European inter-city dialogue with international experts in politics, science and public administration. It organises and co-ordinates communication and research on current issues of European policy, mostly from an urban and regional perspective, such as:

- the role of regions in the Europe of the future,
- urban development in the light of social change,
- European reform policy,
- politics and public administration in the 21st century,
- the urban economy, town marketing, etc.

ANNEX

1. THE POSITION OF THE WORKING PARTY ON DEVELOPMENT
CO-OPERATION*

1.1. FIVE ISSUES of relevance for the Second UN Conference on
Human Settlements (HABITAT II)

As an institution with many years of experience in the field of development policy and development co-operation, the Working Party on Development Co-operation is fully aware of the complex nature of the issues at stake and of the manifold technical and administrative problems which arise in the organisation of a settlement agglomeration. It goes without saying that special attention needs to be paid to the growth of towns. However, the problem of urbanisation must not be regarded in isolation from social conflicts and macro-economic conditions at the national and international levels.

In the following section, the Working Party on Development Co-operation presents a few problems of an interdisciplinary nature, consideration of which will be insisted upon by the Austrian NGOs at the HABITAT II Conference:

1.2. Relationship between town and country

Many factors influencing the rural exodus are the result of measures of regional policy which, although not directly intended to promote an urban or rural-development goal, have an indirect effect on the relations between town and country. As the centre of national power, the town is politically stronger than the country, and the urban population and its elite groups are better able to pursue their interests and develop their potential. When the rural population is deprived of the economic foundations for subsistence, migration into towns becomes inevitable. The strength and competence of a government has an impact on the spatial distribution of urban development. A highly centralised government with weak local authorities reinforces the dominance of the national centres.

*Authored by Dr. Herbert Berger, Working Party on Development Co-operation, Vienna

This annex reflects the positions of the Working Party for Development Co-operation. As an umbrella organisation of Austrian non-governmental organisations, the Working Party intends to submit these positions to the HABITAT Conference, positions which do not necessarily coincide with those taken by the National Committee or the Federal Government.

If governments want to contain the flow of migration into urban agglomerations, they must modify their economic and price policies and endow the local authorities with greater power, more funds and a wider range of responsibilities. Austria shares the responsibility for curbing the rural exodus through active measures, above all by

- supporting governments in the improvement of their economic and development policies;
- helping to secure the administrative and financial conditions for the decentralisation and strengthening of local governments through capacity building measures, and
- offering its assistance for a policy review in the field of urban development and the integration of non-governmental operators (e.g. traffic policy/urban development);
- supporting the decentralisation of planning operations through appropriate development structures which also involve the local and municipal authorities; self-administration, democracy and the position of local organisations are to be promoted; the establishment of self-help groups operating at the grass-roots level is to be supported;
- promoting the creation of jobs in the country and promoting an environment for rural regions which allows them to develop their socio-cultural potential.

1.3. Sustainability

Public policy, although not specifically intended to have an effect on regional planning, may have far-reaching implications. Depending on its orientation, macro-economic policy may encourage or discourage the rural exodus. The global economic framework (foreign debt, terms of trade, single-crop cultivation) puts pressure on the farming population to abandon their traditional crops and areas under cultivation. As a result, they migrate into towns in search of another means of earning a living. Hence, in order to ensure a balanced and sustainable development of urban and rural regions, the global economic framework needs to be changed, not least through measures of debt relief and the establishment of fair trade relations.

As far as debt relief is concerned, Austria has set a noteworthy example. The country should continue to contribute actively to the solution of this problem by

- offering those developing countries - above all the least developed ones - which are indebted to the Republic of Austria or Austrian companies political and financial solutions to their debt problems, and
- exercising its influence on international financial institutions with a view to the elaboration of debt relief measures.
- Local systems of knowledge and socio-cultural traditions should be taken fully into consideration in decisions on housing demand, housing patterns, building materials and building design as well as their implementation. It is essential to make

sure that donor-dominated planning projects and economic interests do not lead to the adoption of housing and settlement patterns which are not genuinely accepted by the population and do not meet local climatic conditions and other criteria. The importance of involving the local population in the planning process cannot be stressed too often.

1.4. Women

In view of the fact that housing/shelter is a universal need, it is often claimed that there is no reason why special priority should be given to women in this respect. However, through their activities in the areas of both reproduction (child care, care of the elderly and the handicapped) and production (income generation), most women are tied more strongly to the home than men. At the same time, they assume their multiple roles as community managers and political activists, above all in their own neighbourhood.

Statistics show that there are more women than men among the poorest of the poor. According to estimates (based on UN data collected in 1980), women own little more than one per cent of the total property in the world, although they account for more than half of the world's population. Very often, when mention is made of minorities, women are included in their ranks. On average, a quarter of all households are headed by women, but the percentage is much higher in many countries and the phenomenon is on the increase all over the world. For many women, the shadow economy provides the only loophole for economic survival, given the fact that the formal sector is largely occupied by men and that women, owing to their reproductive role, are forced to earn a living close to home. Access to credit is also more limited for women, with banks often demanding a male guarantor - be it husband, father or son - as a precondition for lending.

It is often argued that women and men have always been equally involved in projects and programmes regarding human settlements. This is true, but women have contributed to these processes mainly in the form of free labour and been excluded almost entirely from the planning and decision-making levels, although they are dependent - in their productive and reproductive roles - on a habitat designed to meet their every-day needs and, on top of that, play an important part in community organisation. Men have always been involved at all levels, above all in the process of decision-making.

In conclusion, it is important to note that women, despite their active management role in the field of human settlements, are often subject to discrimination as regards access to and control over land and property.

The Working Party on Development Co-operation therefore calls upon the Austrian Federal Government to use its influence at the HABITAT II Conference to the following effect:

- To promote autonomous decision-making by women in the field of housing as far as economic, legal and social matters are concerned.
- To work towards incorporating the issue of equal access for women to land and housing in all international conventions and to ensure the necessary legal backing for the implementation of these provisions.
- The right to adequate housing, as provided for by international conventions, is to be guaranteed at the national basis and secured through the corresponding law enforcement mechanisms so as to prohibit forced evictions.
- Credit and finance mechanisms are to be set up to secure access to adequate housing for women.
- Women are to be involved in human settlement projects and programmes both during the planning phase and at the decision-making level. Training programmes are to be created for women, above all for management and executive functions.
- Central and local governments should be politically willing and financially able to base their policies on a gender approach (consideration of the specific needs of men and women). This means that a gender-oriented approach to settlement projects and programmes will have to be adopted in the elaboration of sustainable policies and action plans.

1.5. Multi-culturalism

Due to a lack of understanding of global structural changes and their effects at the local level, the immigration of population groups of diverse ethnic and cultural backgrounds tends to be equated with cultural migration in the general debate on multi-culturalism, above all in the industrialised countries. Frequently, cultural migration, as a spin-off of labour migration and immigration, is regarded as a process liable to undermine the social cohesion of a society. Preserving the unity of a society with its cultural values and standards has become an overriding policy issue, which is often referred to in the debate on cultural migration.

Preserving the unity of a society while ensuring cultural pluralism, equality of opportunity and social cohesion on the basis of widened knowledge and understanding within a multi-ethnic immigration society - this is the objective of multi-culturalism. The disintegration of groups and communities must be counteracted by mechanisms of integration and mutual appreciation, which promote cohesion and stress the binding nature of values within the framework of a many-faceted society.

Against this background of tension, the development and practice of new social techniques is called for, which broaden our vision and provide the basis for conflicts to be acted out in a spirit of mutual respect. This is a task confronting urban agglomerations in the North and the South.

The Working Party on Development Co-operation therefore calls upon the Austrian Federal Government to contribute towards an open society by

- a) promoting institutions and initiatives focusing on cultural diversity as a societal phenomenon;
- b) promoting the exchange of experience in the fields of environment, culture, technology and management and supporting the process of mutual learning through associations of local authorities and the twinning of cities on a North-South and South-South basis;
- c) promoting the exchange of artists on a South-South and South-North basis through appropriate information campaigns;
- d) promoting the inclusion of migrants in North-South co-operation at the local and national levels;
- e) considering the personal situation of migrants as a basis for decision-making in application procedures rather than their socio-cultural proximity to the values and standards of the country of destination.

1.6. Children and young people

The younger generations are growing up in urban agglomerations. With the ties to their places of origin weakening over time, the town provides the framework for their social network, the background against which their personalities develop and their work patterns evolve. The generations who, in a few decades, will be determining the fate of our planet at the local, regional, national and international levels will never have been involved in the planning and shaping of the habitat from which they derive the decisive experiences of co-existence and co-operation during the first two decades of their lives.

In the industrialised countries, more than elsewhere, with their apparent openness, their relative prosperity and their abundance of consumer goods, children and adolescents are under hidden pressure to adapt to existing standards, which often leads to self-destructive, aggressive behaviour. Changes in the economic and social organisation of the industrialised countries lead to a loss of orientation among children and adolescents, who are no longer able to identify with the environment that determines their lives. The revolt of young people against a value system from which they feel alienated meets with no understanding and is rejected by the economically active generation. Hence, a hostility towards children and young people is becoming evident in many industrialised countries.

In the developing countries, schools and training facilities are insufficient in numbers and unaffordable for poorer families. Obligated to contribute to the family income, children earn money through prostitution or work of a slave-like character in the informal sector. The life of homeless children and adolescents on the streets has come to determine the urban scene in many developing countries.

The opportunity for children and adolescents to develop harmoniously as fully integrated members of society is closely related to their housing situation. Therefore, the Austrian Federal Government is called upon to exert an influence on the following issues:

- a) Children and adolescents should be guaranteed the right to a place in which to live and develop in peace and dignity.
- b) To cope with the challenges of the 21st century, children and adolescents need adequate education and training. It is up to the local authorities to solve the problem of access to education also for low-income population groups.
- c) Children and adolescents should be guaranteed the right to housing and services; they should be involved in the planning of infrastructural measures, so that due consideration can be given to their subsistence and development needs.

2. MEMBERSHIP AND ACTIVITIES OF AUSTRIAN INSTITUTIONS IN SUPRANATIONAL ORGANISATIONS

2.1. Membership and co-operation

Austria is represented in and co-operates with the following international bodies and organisations:

- European Union of Developers and House Builders
(UEPC = Union Européenne des Promoteurs-Constructeurs)

Vereinigung Österreichischer Bauträger (VÖB);
A-1090 Wien, Währingerstraße 18
- International Union of Tenants (IUT)

Mietervereinigung Österreichs;
A-1010 Wien, Reichsratstraße 15
- International Union of Real Estate Owners
(UIPI = Union Internationale de la Propriété Immobilière,
a.s.b.l.)

Zentralverband der Hausbesitzer;
A-1010 Wien, Landesgerichtsstraße 6
- European Association of Co-operative Banks

Fachverband der Kreditgenossenschaften;
A-1020 Wien, Hollandstraße 2

Österreichischer Genossenschaftsverband (Schulze-Delitzsch);
A-1010 Wien, Schottengasse 10
- European Community Mortgage Federation (ECMF)

Verband der Österreichischen Landes-Hypothekenbanken;
A-1040 Wien, Brucknerstraße 8/7

Creditanstalt-Bankverein;
A-1011 Wien, Schottenring 10

GiroCredit Bank Aktiengesellschaft der Sparkassen;
A-1010 Wien, Schuberttring 5
- European Fiscal Confederation (CFE = Confédération Fiscale Européenne)

Kammer der Wirtschaftstreuhandler;
A-1080 Wien, Bennoplatz 4
- International Real Estate Federation (FIABCI = Fédération Internationale des Professions Immobilières)

Bernhard Steiner; A-1090 Wien, Alser Straße 54

- European Network for Housing Reserach (ENHR)

Wiener Bodenbereitstellungs- und Stadterneuerungsfonds;
A-1082 Wien, Lenaugasse 10

Kammer für Arbeiter und Angestellte für Wien;
A-1041 Wien, Prinz Eugenstraße 20-22

Individual members (university lecturers, housing researchers)

- International Urban Development Association (INTA/AIVN)

- CECODHAS

- International Federation of Co-operatives

Österreichischer Verband gemeinnütziger Bauvereinigungen -
Revisionsverband;
A-1010 Wien, Bösendorferstraße 7

- EUROSTAT

Österreichisches Statistisches Zentralamt (ÖSTAT);
A-1030 Wien, Hintere Zollamtstraße 2b

- Economic Commission for Europe (UN/ECE), Committee on Human Settlements

2.2. Activities within the framework of the above organisations in the 1993-1995 period

- CECODHAS:

Conference on "Family-Oriented Housing", October 1993, Athens.
Austrian written report (Österreichischer Verband
gemeinnütziger Bauvereinigungen)

Conference on "Housing in the European Union", May 1994,
Austrian written report (Österreichischer Verband
gemeinnütziger Bauvereinigungen)

Conference "Vienna Housing Forum", October 1994, Vienna.
Chairmanship: J.Klemen, Österreichischer Verband gemeinnütziger
Bauvereinigungen

- UN/ECE Committee on Human Settlements:

Conference on "Renewal and modernisation of residential areas,
strategies of political implementation", June 1994.
Organisation in Vienna: Wiener Bodenbereitstellungs- und
Stadterneuerungsfonds

- ECE-EUROSTAT:

Joint ECE-EUROSTAT Work Session on Housing Censuses, October
1995, Geneva

- European Network for Housing Research (ENHR):

Young Housing Researchers Seminar, May 1995, Vienna
Organisation: Dr. Walter Matzner, University of Vienna

Vienna (Austria)

3. URBAN INDICATORS: VIENNA

		Wien	Year	Source	Comments
D. BACKGROUND DATA					
D1	Land use in sq. km.				
	a. Total area	414,95	1988	StJbStW1993	
	b. Residential (formal)	83,19	1988	StJbStW1993	
	c. Residential (informal)	0	1988	StJbStW1993	
	d. Business	29,23	1988	StJbStW1993	
	e. Agricultural	78,57	1988	StJbStW1993	
	f. Transport	56,03	1988	StJbStW1993	
	g. Other	167,93	1988	StJbStW1993	Parks, Water, etc
D2	City population				
	City proper	1539848	1991	StJbStW1993	
	male	714525	1991	StJbStW1993	
	female	825323	1991	StJbStW1993	
	Metropolitan area	2044314	1981	FUCHS 1986	"Stadtregion Wien"
	Urban agglomeration	1706113	1991	OSTAT	"Siedlungseinheit Wien"
D3	Pop growth rate				
	Annual growth in pop of city	1,00%	1992/93	MA66	
D4	Woman headed households (2+ persons) of all private households	75240 746760	1991 1991	MA66 MA66	Tel.4000-88661 Mag Ritter Tel.4000-88661 Mag Ritter
D5	Average household size	2,03	1991	StJbStW1993	
D6	Household formation rate	0,29%	1981-1991	StJbStW	HWZ 1981, 1991
D7	Household income distribution (per month)		1993	OSTAT	unpubl Microcensus data
	income range	middle decile			Tel.71128-7310 Dr Wolf
	Quintile 1	ATS 0 +	1993	OSTAT	unpubl Microcensus data
	Quintile 2	ATS 10700 +	1993	OSTAT	unpubl Microcensus data
	Quintile 3	ATS 15500 +	1993	OSTAT	unpubl Microcensus data
	Quintile 4	ATS 21900 +	1993	OSTAT	unpubl Microcensus data
	Quintile 5	ATS 31900 +	1993	OSTAT	unpubl Microcensus data

Vienna (Austria)

D8	City product per person	ATS 346319	1991	StJbStW1993	calculated
D9	Tenure type	853091	1991	MA66	HWZ 1991
	of which	169128	1991	MA66	HWZ 1991
	a. Owned	n.a.	1991	MA66	HWZ 1991
	b. purchasing	251833	1991	MA66	HWZ 1991
	c. private rental	305510	1991	MA66	HWZ 1991
	d. social housing	n.a.	1991	MA66	HWZ 1991
	e. subtenancy	30064	1991	MA66	HWZ 1991
	f. rent free	n.a.	1991	MA66	HWZ 1991
	g. illegal	96556	1991	MA66	HWZ 1991
	h. other				
1. SOCIOECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT					
Indicator 1	Households below poverty line	8,20%	1989	BMAS 1993	
Indicator 2	Women-headed hsholds below poverty line	n.a.			
Indicator 3	Informal employment	n.a.			
Indicator 3	Hospital beds	19677	1992	StJbStW1993	
Indicator 4	No. of persons per bed	78	1992	StJbStW1993	calculated
Indicator 4	Child mortality				
Indicator 4	Children dying before 5th birthday	0,93%	1993	StJbStW1993	
Indicator 5	School classrooms				
Indicator 5	No. children per classroom in				
Indicator 5	a. Primary school	21,5	1993/94	StJbStW1993	"allg.bild.Pflichtsch."
Indicator 5	b. Secondary school	24,3	1993/94	StJbStW1993	"allg.bild.höhere Sch."
Indicator 6	Crime rates				
Indicator 6	No. of reported crimes per 1000 population				
Indicator 6	a. Murder	0,045	1993	StJbStW1993	calculated
Indicator 6	b. Theft	56,4	1993	StJbStW1993	calculated

Vienna (Austria)

2. INFRASTRUCTURE					
Indicator 7	Household connection levels				
	Percentage of households connected to				
	a. Water	98%			
	b. Sewerage	96%			
	c. Electricity	100%			
	d. Telephone	91%	1989	StatMSStW 1/91	
Indicator 8	Access to potable water				
	defined as percentage of households	100%			pers knowl
Indicator 9	Consumption of water				
	average consumption in litres per day p.p.	268	1993	StJbStW1993	
Indicator 10	Median price of water, scarce season				
	price paid per 100 l	ATS 1,68	1993	Tel. Water Works	
3. TRANSPORT					
Indicator 11	Modal split		1991	MA66	
	Proportion of work trips undertaken by				daily work trips within city
	a. Private car	42,30%	1991	MA66	
	b. Train or tram	35,40%	1991	MA66	
	c. Bus or Minibus	9,50%	1991	MA66	
	d. Motorcycle				included in a.
	e. Bicycle	1,30%	1991	MA66	
	f. Walking	11,30%	1991	MA66	
	g. Other	0,30%	1991	MA66	
Indicator 12	Travel time				
	Average time in minutes for a work trip	ca.25	1991	MA66	
Indicator 13	Expenditure on road infrastructure				
	P.c. expenditure on roads	ATS 551	1992	StJbStW1993	calculated
Indicator 14	Automobile ownership				

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	Ratio of automobiles to 1000 pop.	421,7	1993	MA66	
4. ENVIRONMENTAL MANAGEMENT					
Indicator 15	Percentage of wastewater treated				
	% undergoing some form of treatment	100%		pers knowl	
Indicator 16	Solid waste generated per person				
	cubic metres	n.a.?			
	tonnes	0,431	1993	Bundesabfallbericht 1995	
Indicator 17	Disposal methods for solid waste				
	Proportion of solid wastes disposed to				
	a. Sanitary landfill	10,80%	1993	Bundesabfallbericht 1995	
	b. Incinerated	59,80%	1993	Bundesabfallbericht 1995	
	c. Open dump	0,00%	1993	Bundesabfallbericht 1995	
	d. Recycled	29,00%	1993	Bundesabfallbericht 1995	
	e. Other	0,30%	1993	Bundesabfallbericht 1995	
Indicator 18	Regular solid-waste collection				
	Proportion of households enjoying regular ...	100,00%		pers knowl	
	Median no. of times p. m. waste is collected	4		pers knowl	
Indicator 19	Housing destroyed				
	Housing stock destroyed p.1000 over 10 yrs	0		pers knowl	
5. LOCAL GOVERNMENT					
Indicator 20	Major sources of income				
	Local govt p.c. income	ATS 76478			
	Sources of income (per cent)				
	a. Taxes	14,70%			
	b. User charges	11,60%			
	c. Other own-source inc.				
	d. Transfers fr. higher levels	38,00%			

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	e. Borrowings		8,99%		
	f. Other income		24,79%		
Indicator 21	Per-capita capital expenditure				
	in US\$, by all local governments	n.a.?			
Indicator 22	Debt service charge				
	Principal and interest repaid as % of expend.		8,50%		
Indicator 23	Local government employees		72700		
	per 1000 population		47,2		
Indicator 24	Wages in the budget				
	% of recurrent expend. spent on wage costs		29,75%		
Indicator 25	Contracted recurrent expenditure ratio				
	% spent on contracted activity	n.a.?			
Indicator 26	Government level providing services				all pers knowl
	water		city=province		
	sewerage		city=province		
	refuse collection		city=province		
	electricity		city=province		
	telephone		Federal State		
	public or mass transport		city=province		
	emergency (fire/ambulance)		city=province		
	road maintenance		city=province	with Fed State funds	
	education		city=province	with Fed State funds	
	health care		city=province	with Fed State funds	
	public housing		city=province	with Fed State funds	
	recreation/sports		city=province	with Fed State funds	
Indicator 27	Control by higher levels of government				all pers knowl
	Close local government?		in case of insolvency		
	Remove councillors?		based on Court decision		
	Set local taxes?		within limits		

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	Set user charges for services?		yes			
	Borrow funds?		yes			
	Choose contractors?		yes			
	Transfers known in advance?		tentatively yes			
6. HOUSING AFFORDABILITY AND ADEQUACY						
Indicator H1	House price to income ratio		5,2	1993	StJbStW1993	median hh inc 0,319 mio
Indicator H2	House rent to income ratio		10,30%	1993	StJbStW1993	median price 1,664 mio
Indicator H3	Floor area per person		33	1991	StJbStW1993	average rent p.a. 32919
Indicator H4	Permanent structures		100%		pers knowl	
Indicator H5	Housing in compliance		99,83%	1991	MA37	
7. HOUSING PROVISION						
Indicator H6	Land development multiplier	add	22%	1993	StadtErnFonds	Tel.4035919
Indicator H7	Infrastructure expenditure (millions of ATS)	MATS	22810	1992	StJbStW1993	calculated
Indicator H8	Mortgage to credit ratio		ca.25%	1994	OeNB 1995	bank+state housing credit of all direct credits
Indicator H9	House production (net addition)		2,49	1993	StJbStW1993	
Indicator H10	Housing investment (Austria)		6,40%	1990	Schmidinger-Riessland 1992	
ABBREVIATIONS						
	BMAS				Bundesministerium für Arbeit und Soziales	
	MA37, MA66				Magistratsabteilung der Stadt Wien Nr.37, Nr.66	
	OeNB				Österreichische Nationalbank	
	OSTAT				Österreichisches Statistisches Zentralamt	
	StadtErnFonds				Wiener Bodenbeschaffungs- und Stadterneuerungsfonds	
	StatMSiW				Statistische Mitteilungen der Stadt Wien	
	StJbStW				Statistisches Jahrbuch der Stadt Wien	