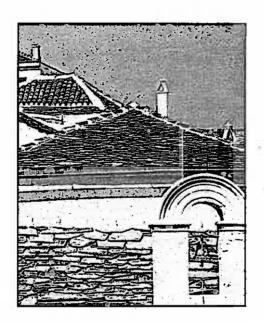
UNITED NATIONS CONFERENCE
ON HUMAN SETTLEMENTS
HABITAT II

NATIONAL REPORT OF GREECE

JANUARY 1996

SOURCES AND BIBLIOGRAPHY



UNITED NATIONS CONFERENCE ON HUMAN SETTLEMENTS

HABITAT II

GREECE NATIONAL REPORT

&

KEY URBAN AND HOUSING INDICATORS FOR GREECE AND ATHENS



JANUARY 1996

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Translation into English:

"PAPATHANASSIOU K., CONFERENCE ORGANISATION"

The present decade is marked with a series of major conferences, under the auspices of the United Nations, on matters of international significance, such as the protection of the environment, overpopulation, human rights, and equal rights for women. The common objective of these conferences was to oblige the participating governments to promote programmes and actions in order to improve the quality of life in their countries. The international Conference for Human Settlements **HABITAT II**, which has as its task to assure satisfactory conditions of housing and living for all people and to create sustainable towns and cities, is part of the same common effort.

Millions of people today have abandonned their rural homes and concentrate, often homeless, in big cities of the developing South, in expectation of a job and better life conditions. The increasing numbers of unemployed and groups subjected to various forms of social discrimination, are also augmenting the numbers of homeless in the cities of the developed North. The assurance of a home and, at that, of a livable and safe house in the cities of the North as well as of the South, still remains an unimet aspiration for millions of people. Governments in this meeting for **HABITAT II**, will commit themselves to a pasis of principles, in order to improve this inhuman reality through their National Programmes.

The problem of homelessness in Greece remains a marginal one. It mostly concerns temporary remeless people, mainly economic immigrants from neighbouring countries. We must not forget that a country has a relative advantage in terms of housing supply as shown by the fact that the dominant form of housing consists of owner-occupiers (77%). This fact is a record that surpasses European is boards. However, there is a great need to improve the quality of housing standards, especially for the indexity, young couples and large families. The State has the intention to make extensive interventions.

Cities and towns are reflecting our societies, given that more than 50% of worldwide population in them. Towns that have been in the past the locomotives of economic development and considerable by of a flourishing culture in all its forms, are in our days in deep crisis. Social conflicts, the margination arge social groups, the ever-increasing criminality, are forces that tear apart the connective unbody.

This fact is leading to a generalized discontent that alienates people in their own town.

Problems as traffic congestion, air and noise pollution, the lack of historical identity among the inhabitants, are classic problems in the cities of the North, degrading their function, while the cities in the developing South are essentially agglomerations of villages and small towns immobilized by the lack of infrastructure.

While many factors are responsible for this crisis, the main one is certainly the non-sustainable way that we produce, consume and circulate. Quite useful answers to these problems are offered today by specialists, through new approaches aiming at sustainable development of urban space. It is recognized that cities and towns are living organisms, very complex in their structure, and that the managment of their space must be done with good sense and without waste, and in ways that highlight and promote the social and cultural dimension of a contemporary town.

In modern cities answers cannot be given only by specialists as Le Corbusier proposed in the Athens Charter. The way towards «sustainable towns» requires a choice between conflicting targets and changes in our way of life. This cannot be imposed by giving orders to the laymen. It requires the consent and the co-operation of citizens, and the close collaboration of central and local government.

The Ministry of the Environment, Regional Planning and Public Works, having embraced the need for a long-term coordinated action, currently promotes methodical interventions and programmes for most greek towns. One of them is the Programme ATTICA S.O.S. that intends to face in a comprehensive way the multiple problems of the greek capital. Having in mind the general international principles and the very specific greek reality, we extended our support in every aspect to the preparation of the HABITAT II Conference and to the national report that is part of it. I would like to thank warmly all those from the different Departments and Agencies who contributed with effectiveness to this effort.

ELISABETH PAPAZOI

Mah

The present National Report is the positive response of the Greek National Committee to the challenge of participation in the Second International Conference of the United Nations on Human Settlements (Habitat II), to be held in Istanbul in 1996.

The primary purpose of the National Report is to bring the bodies which regulate, share in, contribute to and influence the development of housing in Greece into action, by realising the objectives of the Habitat II Conference, which are: to achieve cities with healthy, safe, equal and sustainable living conditions and to ensure adequate housing for all citizens. The framework of the action plan for the five years leading up to 2000 is the beginning for governmental and non-governmental bodies to enter into action, and develop coordination and cooperation among themselves. The measure of the response to the above framework for action will show how ready Greece is to look forward with optimism to the challenge of the year 2000 for better global living conditions.

With this Report, the National Committee has completed its most important task, but the bodies represented on it still have an enormous task to accomplish as they, the pre-eminent participants in and contributors to this country's town-planning and residential development continue these efforts. Their task involves orientation of their programmes to the directions for action set out in the National Report, and persistence in implementing its objectives. The hopes of generations to come for better-quality life in our country's cities and settlements depend on the outcome of their efforts. Dedication to the objectives of the Habitat II Conference is a demonstration of love and care for the coming generations, for a better tomorrow.

ALEXANDROS VOULGARIS

Chairman of the Greek National Committee for the United Nations Habitat II Conference

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KEY URBAN AND HOUSING INDICATORS FOR GREECE AND ATHENS

PART A

INTRODUCTION



NATURE AND CHARACTER OF THE NATIONAL REPORT

FORMATION AND ACTIVITIES OF THE NATIONAL COMMITTEE

AGENCY PARTICIPATION

INTRODUCTION

NATURE AND CHARACTER OF THE NATION-AL REPORT

The present Report presents the Greek positions on questions to be examined by the United Nations Conference on Human Settlements (Habitat II), to be held in Istanbul in June, 1996. It was prepared on the initiative and on the responsibility of the Greek Ministry of the Environment, Regional Planning and Public Works, the competent government body on matters concerning the environment and development of settlements.

The Report was drawn up by the Greek National Committee set up by the Ministry to prepare for the country's participation in the Habitat II Conference. The creation of the National Report and the National Action Plan, together with the formulation of suggestions on their content have been the most important tasks assigned to this Committee.

The Report prepared by the Greek National Committee expresses the general support of the bodies represented on it, which have also participated in the process of drafting and giving final shape to this report. It has been accepted as a whole by the

Ministry; Part C has been rewritten*. This was judged to be necessary in order to formulate in an affirmative manner the suggestions of the National Committee with regard to policy and to restructure the actions projected for each sector over the next five years.

The report has been drawn up in accordance with the guidelines and specifications of the collective decisions and texts created in the framework of the preparation by United Nations of Conference on Human Settlements. Habitat II**.

The more particular topics included in each national report are inevitably influenced by the particularities, the specific problems and priorities of each country. This can be seen in the main body of the report in the sections dealing with the existing situation, trends, problems and priorities for action (Parts B and C). In any case, the specifications and directions of the Habitat documents were intentionally general and flexible with regard to these sections. Nevertheless, the Greek report has attempted to avoid when possible the emphasis to special topics of concern to Greece, and to respect the more general philosophy promoted by Habitat, which focuses on basic aspects and problems of cities and shelter, of a global nature

^{*} Appendices 1 and 3 have also been essentially rewritten.

^{**} Certain chapters that interrupted the flow of the basic report, or which were of a secondary character in the case of Greece, have been affixed to the end of the document in the form of Appendices.

and of general social interest. As a guideline to this, the structure and contents of the parallel programme of Urban Indicators were used; these refer primarily to the large "metropolitan" centres. Thus, the basic sectors on which the report's analysis was focused were the following:

- Economic and social developments in the more general context of cities
- The system of housing
- The social and technical infrastructure of cities
- Environmental problems
- Local government of urban areas

The Report is oriented towards the problems and conditions of urban areas, and indeed it places special emphasis on the problems of large cities, Athens in particular, without ignoring however that, in the case of Greece, a large part of settlements and economic activity still belong to the non-urban sector, whereas some of the most basic problems and interests of regional planning, town-planning and environmental policy refer to the country's tourist and resort areas and the network of small traditional or historical settlements. For that reason, despite the general emphasis on the problems of urban centres, reference is also made in the course of the report to those sectors and regions. In addition, the statistical data shown often refer both to the country as a whole and to the non-urban areas (a tactic also pursued in the indicators report).

The above remarks will be easily comprehensible to those who have shared in the thinking developed in the framework of the organisation of Habitat II. They are stressed here, however, as a explanation addressed to the uninformed reader who may expect a report

on the problems of the whole spectrum of topics relevant to the system of settlements and the environment in Greece. For that reader, only a very general reminder can be made here that the thinking of the UN initiative for Habitat II stresses the common global dimension and has a strong social emphasis. It focuses, therefore, on the most basic questions and on the hypothesis that the main challenge for the year 2000 and the coming century will be the serious problems of large cities*.

FORMATION AND ACTIVITIES OF THE NATIONAL COMMITTEE

Matters related to housing, to development of settlements in general and to the environment in Greece fall under the regulatory supervision of the Ministry of the Environment, Regional Planning and Public Works. In this capacity, the Ministry has participated in both meetings of the United Nations Preparatory Committee for the Habitat II Conference, and has taken a series of initiatives on the national level, with a view to preparing for Greece's participation in the above Conference.

The Ministry's first organisational action was to set up Greece's National Committee and its Secretariat, in the Directorate of Settlement Policy and Housing. The National Committee comprises representatives of 36 bodies: Ministries, local government organisations, private-sector bodies, professional associations, academic institutions and non-governmental organisations, with activities relating to the objectives and aims of the Habitat II Conference. A list of these bodies arranged by category is provided at the end of Part A.

^{*} Acceptance of the general aims of the thinking of Habitat II does not, of course, imply an uncritical acceptance of individual points or approaches in the various sectors. In fact, for the system of «urban indicators» in particular, significant gaps and one-sidedness of approach may be noted. Moreover, in general, the system of indicators (in its basic form) is not adequate to cover the whole spectrum of evaluations which is a basic necessity for an assessment of the national situation and for mapping out axes of action.

The work of the National Committee was designated as:

- a. Creation of a two-year work schedule through which it will be sought to:
 - organise local and national meetings and discussions to facilitate dialogue, provide extensive information, and support the process of participation, by mobilising interested groups and their representatives.
 - prepare and use shelter and urbanisation indicators to formulate preliminary evaluations and conclusions on questions of settlement policy and development.
 - facilitate discussion on priority matters and options for future action which must be included in local as well as in the national action plans, and in the national report, and more generally to facilitate discussion on questions and options to inform the public, using all the mass media.
 - propose the preparation and presentation, by audio-visual means, of the best examples of settlement development interventions and policies.
 - promote consultative procedures for the greatest possible enlistment of resources for materialisation of the local and the national action plans, beyond 1996.
- Responsibility for overall preparation of the national action plan and the National Report, and formulation of proposals on their contents.
- c. Keeping the Secretariat of the Habitat II.

 Conference informed in its activities.
- d. Cooperation with international and regional United Nations organisations for the purpose of promoting its scheduled activities.
- e. Submission to the Ministry of the Environment, Regional Planning and Public Works of a two-year economic programme for approval and inclusion of the necessary sums in the Ministry's budgets.

The respective work of the Secretariat of the National Committee was determined to be:

- Responsibility for the quickest possible formation and operation of the National Committee.
- b. Programmatic, administrative and economic support for the activities of the National Committee.

For the economic coverage of the operational and programmatic activities of the National Committee and its Secretariat, allocation of 50 million drachmas was approved, from the appropriations for Public Investments, ETERPS and the annual Budget

The National Committee began operating with its first meeting on 25.1.1995, and by the end of November 1995 it had held a total of five meetings. During the first stage it prepared a schedule of activities for the period up to the end of 1995, with the primary objective of preparing the National Report, which was completed in time.

The process of preparation of the National Report, in implementation of the above planning, consisted of the following actions:

- a. The Research Unit of the Public Corporation for Housing and Urban Development (DEPCS), was designated as the basic rapporteur of the Report. Specific rapporteurs were appointed for individual chapters of the report.
- b. An open dialogue was held for informing the public and expressing opinions with related to the assessment of the current shelter stated and the national action plan, in meetings with an took place in two regional capitals (Thetal in Alliand Iraklio) and in a two-day conference.
- c. The DEPOS Research Unit was appointed to the pare urbanisation and shelter indicators and the unit appointed to the unit appointe
- d. A national competition was organ and anose the best town-planning and another interventions. The ten best ones the interventions of the best ones the best ones the interventions of the best ones the bes

been sent to the United Nations Habitat II Secretariat to be evaluated for presentation in Istanbul

- e. Extensive efforts were made to provide information on a wide scale to the agencies and the public concerned with shelter and development of cities, through professional journals, the press and informative leaflets.
- f. The Ministry of the Environment, Regional Planning and Public Works held an international workshop in Athens in February, on the subject of the educational base, the professional qualifications and the needs for further education of managers of town-planning projects within the framework of collaboration with the Commission on Human Settlements of the UN Economic Commission for Europe, for the purpose of stressing the importance of creating the necessary skills in those officials of the public and private sector who support practices of physical planning and its implementation for sustainable development.

The National Report was drawn up according to the instructions of the First and Second Preparatory Committees with regard to its content and the arrangement of its subject-matter.

The National Action Plan is also presented as a framework of guidelines aimed at the coordination of actions of the bodies participating in the regulation and realisation of development of human settlements and housing. This practice is also pursued by other countries of the European Union, given the fact that programming of such action is not static but continuous and that several bodies which have not yet become active are expected to show relevant initiatives in subsequent stages.

3 AGENCY PARTICIPATION

The participation of agencies in preparation of the National Report was meaningful and positive, both within the National Committee as well as outside it. Serious thinking was done on the ways of implementing the objectives of the Conference for cities that are sustainable, equivalent, safe and healthy and for access for all citizens to housing, and the general mood was one of promoting relevant initiatives.

The National Committee will have an important role to play during the first half of 1996, for which a series of activities is planned, chiefly in collaboration with agencies of local government, with the objective of creating, on a local level, skills and practices for evaluation of current conditions in settlements and for planning to meet their needs in relation to the objectives of the Habitat II Conference. Basically it will be sought to create a local agenda in every first-degree local government organisation, to promote the above objectives, through which the relevant objectives of Agenda 21 and the Habitat II Conference are also expressed.

In order to assist and encourage the parallel activation of non-governmental agencies and organisations within the framework of the Action Plan, the Ministry of the Environment, Regional Planning and Public Works will examine ways to support them financially. It is already mapping out the suitable institutional regulation to permit the flow of resources from the government and from special funds in this direction.

The above initiatives are in accordance with the policy of promoting the enabling strategy of local, or non-governmental agencies for action in planning and implementing programmes to achieve the objectives of the Habitat II Conference,

HABITAT II NATIONAL COMMITTEE - BODIES REPRESENTED

A. CENTRAL ADMINISTRATION AND PUBLIC ORGANISATIONS

- 1. DIRECTORATE OF SHELTER POLICY & HOUSING/ MINISTRY OF THE ENVIRONMENT, REGIONAL PLANNING AND PUBLIC WORKS
- DIRECTORATE OF TOWN PLANNING/MINISTRY
 OF THE ENVIRONMENT, REGIONAL PLANNING
 AND PUBLIC WORKS
- 3. DIRECTORATE OF ENVIRONMENTAL PLANNING/ MINISTRY OF THE ENVIRONMENT, REGIONAL PLANNING AND PUBLIC WORKS
- 4. DIRECTORATE OF REGIONAL PLANNING/
 MINISTRY OF THE ENVIRONMENT, REGIONAL PLANNING AND PUBLIC WORKS
- 5. MINISTRY OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS
- 6. MINISTRY OF NATIONAL ECONOMY
- 7. MINISTRY OF THE INTERIOR
- 8. MINISTRY OF HEALTH, WELFARE AND SOCIAL SECURITY
- 9. MINISTRY OF LABOUR
- 10. GENERAL SECRETARIAT FOR EQUALITY OF THE SEXES
- 11. PUBLIC CORPORATION FOR URBAN DEVELOPMENT AND HOUSING (DEPOS)

- 12. WORKERS HOUSING ORGANISATION (OEK)
- 13. CENTRE FOR PLANNING AND ECONOMIC RESEARCH (KEPE)

B. LOCAL GOVERNMENT

- 1. CENTRAL UNION OF MUNICIPALITIES AND COMMUNES OF GREECE (KEDKE)
- 2. ATHENS MUNICIPALITY
- GREEK SOCIETY FOR LOCAL DEVELOPMENT AND LOCAL GOVERNMENT (EETAA)

C. PROFESSIONAL ASSOCIATIONS

- 1. TECHNICAL CHAMBER OF GREECE (TEE)
- 2. ASSOCIATION OF GREEK TOWN AND REGIONAL PLANNERS
- ASSOCIATION OF UNIVERSITY-GRADUATE ARCHITECTS
- ASSOCIATION OF AGRONOMISTS/TOPO-GRAPHERS

D. ACADEMIC AND RESEARCH INSTITUTES

- NATIONAL TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY OF ATHENS (METSOVIO)/ DEPARTMENT OF ARCHITECTURE
- NATIONAL TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY OF ATHENS (METSOVIO)/ DEPARTMENT OF TOWN AND

REGIONAL PLANNING

- 3. UNIVERSITY OF THESSALONIKI/DEPARTMENT OF ARCHITECTURE
- 4. UNIVERSITY OF THESSALY/ DEPARTMENT OF REGIONAL PLANNING
- 5. ATHENS CENTRE FOR EKISTICS

E. PRIVATE SECTOR

- FEDERATION OF CONSTRUCTORS OF BUILDING WORKS
- 2. BANK OF GREECE
- 3. NATIONAL MORTGAGE BANK OF GREECE
- 4. POSTAL SAVINGS BANK

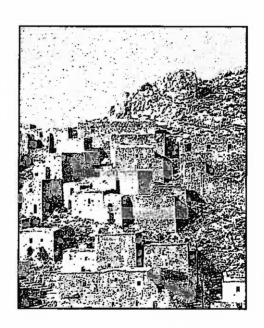
5. LOANS AND CONSIGNATIONS FUND

F. NON-GOVERNMENTAL ORGANISATIONS

- 1. LEAGUE OF WOMEN OF GREECE
- 2. FEDERATION OF REAL ESTATE OWNERS OF GREECE
- 3. PAN-HELLENIC TENANTS' PROTECTION ASSOCIATION
- 4. LEAGUE OF ESTATE AGENTS OF GREECE
- 5. SUPREME CONFEDERATION OF PARENTS OF LARGE FAMILIES OF GREECE
- 6. HELLENIC ASSOCIATION OF ARCHITECTS

PART B

AN EVALUATION OF PRESENT CONDITIONS AND TRENDS PROBLEMS AND PRIORITIES



THE GENERAL BACKGROUND: ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL DEVELOPMENTS AND TRENDS IN THE SYSTEM OF URBAN CENTRES

EXISTING CONDITIONS, TRENDS AND PROBLEMS IN URBAN CENTRES

SUMMARY: PROBLEMS AND PRIORITIES

1

THE GENERAL BACKGROUND: ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL DEVELOPMENTS AND TRENDS IN THE SYSTEM OF URBAN CENTRES

GREECE - GENERAL FEATURES

With an area of 132,000 square kilometres, Greece occupies the south-east tip of Europe. The greater part of this area is taken up by mountain formations, interrupted by valleys and plains. Greece's mild climate, its large number of days of sunshine each year, the variety and beauty of its natural landscape, its 15,000 kilometres of coastline and 2,000 islands in the Aegean and Ionian Seas, its rich historical patrimony and living cultural heritage are a few of its distinctive features.

At the time of the 1991 census, the population of Greece was 10.3 million. Despite the fact that population density is just 78 persons per square kilometre, the country's population is chiefly urban: approximately half lives in one of the two largest urban agglomerations, Athens and Thessaloniki. Apart from these two large cities, there are a few dozen medium-sized towns with populations of 10,000-100,000, and over 11,000 villages with populations under 2,000.

The present structure of the country's settlements is the result of its geomorphology, of historical changes and socio-economic developments in the area of the Eastern Mediterranean and the Balkan Peninsula, most of which have taken place during this century. In citing some of the most important events which had a radical impact on and gave shape to the present situation regarding shelter in Greece, one could mention the gradual territorial

integration of the country, from the time of the Balkan Wars in the 1910s up to the end of the 1940s, achieved through the incorporation of the regions of Epirus, Macedonia, Thrace and the Dodecanese, the arrival of approximately 1.8 million Greek refugees from Asia Minor in 1922, the Second World War and the ensuing Civil War, involving the concentration of the rural population in urban centres and the desertion of the countryside, the economic reorganisation beginning in 1950, with the main poles of development being Athens and, secondarily, Thessaloniki, the waves of in- and out-migration during the '60s and '70s, and the full accession into the European Community in the early '80s.

The current shelter situation in Greece, as analysed below, presents quite a few problems related to the function of settlements as social, economic and political entities, their functional relationship with each other and with the environment, their support by suitable urban infrastructure, shelter and services, the spatial location of their activities, management of their development, etc. These problems constitute the major challenge the country is called on to meet in the framework of the initiative the UN has taken in holding the Habitat II Conference.

\$1.2 ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT AND STANDARD OF LIVING

In contrast to the preceding period of fast paced

development, from the '80s on the Greek economy has been characterised by slow rates of growth. The average annual rate of increase of the Gross Domestic Product during the fifteen years from 1979 to 1994 has been, at constant prices, in the order of 1.6%, with a similar rate of increase in the per capita figures of gross national income and national private consumption. Alongside this, investment has decreased by about 1% annually during the same period.

From the end of the '80s, the priorities of the programme for economic convergence with the European Union have determined the course of the Greek economy to a great degree. At the same time, the inflow of resources from Community funds in the framework of the Community Support Framework (CSF) and the other European programmes, have determined public investment to a great extent. Although the structural effects will be more noticeable during the next few years, the short-term effects of the first CSF of 1989-1993 on economic magnitudes are minor ones. During that period Gross Domestic Product has risen by 1.3% and total investments by 1.5% annually. In contrast, the growth rate of basic infrastructure has accelerated significantly and new iobs have been created.

According to the Revised Programme for Convergence, there will be limited wage increases and efforts to broaden the tax base for the purpose of increasing the public sector surplus.

1.3 EMPLOYMENT AND UNEMPLOYMENT: SOCIO-ECONOMIC STRUCTURE AND TRENDS

During the post-war period, structural unemployment which has been a permanent feature of the Greek economy, was virtually eliminated, due to high economic growth before 1973 in labour-intensive sectors, to emigration which absorbed nearly a million people, and the expansion of secondary education which, together with the expansion of social

protection, brought about a reduction in the supply of labour among the young. Slow growth, however, and/or stagnancy of the Greek economy since the '80s has resulted in low demand for labour. At the same time, the current of migration has turned around and has become positive, initially due mainly to repatriation and in recent years due to immigration of foreign manpower into Greece. Although the shift of manpower away from primary activities is taking place at a slower pace than in other developed countries, it is not being completely absorbed by other sectors of activity. A result of this is that the rate of overt unemployment has been increasing since the beginning of the '80s.

More specifically, the workforce (i.e. population of 14 years of age or older in work or seeking work), at the beginning of the '90s, consists of about four million people, of whom 2.5 million are men and 1.5 million women. During the last 15 years there has been an average annual rate of increase of about 1%, which is almost exclusively due to the increase in female employment, whereas the male workforce remains stable. Women's share in the total workforce has increased from 32% in 1981 to 37% in 1990, a percentage corresponding to about 35% of all women over 14 years of age. The increase in the percentage of women in the workforce is associated with the increase in education levels, and it is estimated that it will continue over the next several years. Nevertheless, it remains one of the lowest in Europe, where in most countries it is steadily increasing.

As concerns the structure of employment, Greece continues to show the highest rate of employment in the primary sector, in relation to other European countries, despite the decrease being observed (a share of approximately 21% in 1991, against almost 30% at the beginning of the '80s), as well as a relatively low rate of employment in the secondary sector, where the trend is downward (approximately 24%, against 28% at the beginning of the '80s), due

mainly to a decline in employment in the construction sector. By contrast, employment in the tertiary sector is on the increase (approximately 55%, against 41% at the beginning of the '80s). In relation to the other countries of Europe, Greece presents the highest percentage of employers and self-employed persons, whereas the percentage of wage-earners is just over 50%, against an average of about 80% for the European Union (EU), and 70% for the countries of southern Europe.

The number of unemployed, despite annual fluctuations, shows a constant upward trend, with an average annual rate of approximately 8% over the last 15 years; the rate of unemployment has risen from 4.04% in 1981 to 9.63% in 1994. The rate of unemployment is higher in the urban centres (9.5% in 1991, when the rate for the whole country was 7.6%). It is also differentiated according to level of education. It is higher among graduates of secondary education (12.57% in 1991), technical/vocational schools (10.35%) and 9.69% for lower secondary (three-vear gymnasiums), whereas among holders of degrees from schools of higher education it is only 6.43%. The lowest rates of unemployment (under 5%) are encountered among wage-earners with low levels of education (up to primary school), a fact associated with the large rates of employment of this category in the primary sector, where underemployment is more frequent. But at the same time it appears that the rate of increase of unemployment is greater, the lower the level of education, indicative of the structural changes taking place in the labour market. Finally, the most important differentiation of unemployment rates occurs in relation to sex. In 1991 the rate of male unemployment amounted to 4.8%, whereas female unemployment was about 12.8%. Sixty-two percent of unemployed persons are women.

Due to the structure of employment, it is estimated that, apart from overt unemployment, there is also substantial underemployment and non-productive employment, which, according to relevant studies, are to be found mainly in the primary sector (seasonal unemployment), in family businesses, in the public sector (redundant staff) and in ailing businesses (underemployment). Estimates for the next five years forecast that the workforce will continue to grow, with entry into the labour market of youth who were born before the mid-80s (before the great fall in the birthrate), of women, associated with the rise in educational levels, and of emigrants. In contrast, employment is not expected to display a corresponding increase, given the fact that, on the one hand, the rate of economic growth is low, and, on the other, that any projected expansion will not necessarily entail a corresponding increase in jobs. The priorities of the EU Programme for Convergence, as well as the need to improve the international competitiveness of the Greek economy, call for investments to modernise and restructure units of production, probably resulting in fewer jobs. Moreover, the negative evolution of productivity during the '80s in most sectors, and particularly in the services sector, is expected to be checked in such a way that any increase in the sector's product will be apparabalied. by a small increase in employment. As a contequence, and despite the uncertainties inherent in personning the evolution of employment, it is estimated that unemployment will increase, at least in the in interest.

1.4 DEMOGRAPHIC TRENDS AND SOCIAL CHANGES

The '60s in Greece were characterised: mited demographic growth, due mainly to out-mited during the '70s, the current of migration changed in and the birth-rate remained at relative.

^{*} For employment and unemployment estimates, see Reports of the Centre for Planning and Economic Rese Kanellopoulos, 1994.

(approximately 15,500 births per 1000 population per annum). A result of this was that the highest rate of demographic increase of the post-war period was recorded. During the last overall census of population in 1991, Greece's population was 10,259,900, as against 9,739,600 in 1981. Over that decade, the rate of population increase was reduced significantly (0.52% annually on average, as against 1.06% for the 1971-1981 period). This fall was primarily due to the fall in the birth-rate, whose constant downward trend became stronger after the mid-'80s, and has continued to drop since then (11,700 births per 1000 population in 1985, 9,800 in 1993). It should be noted that the Greek birthrate is one of the lowest of the EU countries. A secondary factor contributing to the slower rate of demographic increase is the small increase in the number of deaths. associated with the demographic ageing of the population, given the fact that the number of deaths by age group has been steadily decreasing in the post-war period. In contrast, during this period the current of repatriation has continued (188,000 people between 1981 and 1985), while Greece has also begun to receive foreign immigrants. Estimates of the numbers of the latter are uncertain, in view of the fact that these are to a great degree «informal» immigrants; however, calculations show that at the beginning of the '90s their total number was around 350,000-440,000 persons*.

The fall in the birth-rate has proved to be the main characteristic of demographic developments during the last decade. The demographic ageing of the population can be seen more clearly in developments concerning the age-group structure in 1971 the under-14s constituted 25.3% of total population; in 1981 the

figure was 23.4%, and in 1991 only 19.2%. In contrast, people 65 and over made up 10.9% of the total population in 1971, but 13.5% in 1991.

Alongside this, there has been a decrease in average household size, from 3.39 in 1971, to 3.12 in 1981, and 2.97 in 1991. This development has been interpreted as arising on the one hand from the decrease in the number of children in households of reproductive age, and on the other from the increase in the percentage of elderly households, usually consisting of one or two individuals.

With regard to the stability of the family unit, as in the other countries of Europe, so too in Greece a tendency towards fewer marriages and more divorces has been observed, but the relevant trends are weak. Only 2.1% of children were born out of wedlock in 1989 (as against an average of 17.1% in the EU). There are no official figures on the percentage of one-parent households, but according to estimates it is small, and is usually the result of dissolution of marriage due to death. On general lines, we may say that the social changes to the stability of the family unit have up to now had a limited impact on Greece.

1.5 POVERTY AND PROBLEMS OF SOCIAL COHESION

In Greece there is no official or commonly accepted definition of an absolute poverty line. However, this country has adopted the definition of relative poverty accepted by EU countries. On the basis of this definition**, in 1988-89, 23.6% of Greek households are classified as being below the relative poverty line.

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^{*} Petrinioti, 1993, p. 18.

^{**} A household is defined as being below the poverty line when the annual income per adult equivalent is less than 50% of average income on the national level, or by the same token, for expenditure figures which are those usually available, when annual expenditure per adult equivalent are less than 55% of average annual expenditure on the national level. In the data given here, instead of using expenditure per adult equivalent, and in order to ensure comparability with data from previous years, the method proposed by Karagiorgas, et al., 1990, is used, according to which the poverty line is calculated separately for each category of household by size.

The incidence of poverty is higher among households of the elderly, large households, and in rural areas (where the latter two categories occur with greater frequency). It is also associated with the place of the head of the household in the labour market, as measured by level of education and employment. Thus, there is a greater incidence of poverty among those households whose head has a low level of education, is temporarily or permanently outside the labour market (unemployed and pensioners) or in casual employment.

It is interesting to note that during the '80s the poverty rate showed a tendency to rise (23.6%, as against 20.6% in 1981-82), in contrast to the preceding period when a fall in the rate had been recorded (24.9% in 1974). The tendency of poverty to rise is partly associated with the gradual demographic ageing of the population and the formation of new households among the elderly.

The long-term change in the rate of poverty also shows that, apart from the elderly and non-workers, the urban population (developments in other areas are more favourable) and small households are becoming sensitive groups. In contrast, among large households, trends seem to be exceptionally favourable.

Associated with matters related to poverty are problems of "social exclusion", although the two terms are not synonymous. The latter is defined as alienation from one or more of the following mechanisms: the labour market, social or other informal social support networks, or the state (unemployment benefits, retraining programmes, etc.)*. The opinion of the experts is that social exclusion is still a limited phenomenon in Greece, on the one hand because the processes of economic

restructuring and modernisation are occurring at a slow pace and their effects have not yet been fully felt, and on the other because the informal, mainly family, support networks are functioning satisfactorily. Nevertheless, implementation of the programme for convergence with the EU is expected to accelerate the rate of modernisation of the economy, without creating in the short term an adequate number of new jobs, and there is some doubt as to whether the informal networks can continue to function as effectively as they have done in the past towards eliminating such effects. Immigrants, who have no connection to such networks for finding jobs, housing, etc. constitute a particularly sensitive social category: in fact, they have no legal regime of residence or work, and they are thus excluded from social benefits mechanisms. Moreover, the system of social protection in Greece is inadequately developed, and is characterised by a case-by-case treatment of groups which usually have the means to exert pressure, or welfare support of extreme problem cases. The policy of fiscal restraint in government spending, particularly in the social sectors, is not conducive to taking measures with regard to an overall treatment of poverty and social exclusion, and as a result these phenomena will probably be exacerbated, at least in the immediate future.

1.6 DEVELOPMENT OF THE URBAN CENTRES NETWORK

The Greek network of settlements is particularly fragmented, due to historical and geomorphologic factors. In the 1991 census, approximately 12,800 settlements were recorded, of which about 200 are included in the 65 urban centres (over 10,000 inhabitants)** and represent 58.9% of total population;

^{*} See Karantinos et al., 1992.

^{**} Defined as urban centres are those municipalities whose most populous settlement has 10,000 or more inhabitants as well as urban agglomerations consisting of more than one municipality or commune which are considered to be a unified whole.

about 350 are semi-urban settlements (2,000-10,000 inhabitants) and represent 12.8% of the population; the rest are rural settlements (fewer than 2,000 inhabitants) and represent 28.3% of the population.

The '60s were characterised by strong in-migration towards the urban centres, in particular the Athens urban agglomeration and secondarily that of Thessaloniki. This development continued at a slower pace during the '70s. In contrast, during the '80s, movement towards the urban centres fell off sharply (urban population change for the period from 1981 to 1991 was +6.8%, as against +21.3% for the preceding decade), and the increase in urban population was mainly confined to the smaller urban centres. Population change amounted to 1.5% for the Greater Athens Area* (as against 19% for the period from 1971 to 1981, and 37% for the period from 1961 to 1971), 6.1% for the Greater Thessaloniki Area, but 13.1% for the other urban centres. An increase has also been noted of the semi-urban population (26.7%, as against 10.4% for 1971-81, and -6.1% for 1961-71), whereas rural population continues to dwindle, but at a slower pace than in the past (-1.7%, as against -4.1% for 1971-81, and -16.1% for 1961-71). The decrease in the rate of urbanisation and the turn towards smaller urban centres or small towns was helped along by the incentives policy for decentralisation of economic activities, as well as the regional development programmes, which began to be mapped out in the late '70s, and during the past decade in particular. Special studies, however, have noted that decentralisation trends are due more to accidental or independent developments than to the implementation of a coordinated policy.

Nevertheless, the network of urban centres continues to be characterised by an exceptionally centralised. hierarchical structure of the population and the economy, and organisation of regional planning. The nation's capital (population 3,072,922) comprises 30% of total population and half of urban population. The second largest concentration of population is Thessaloniki, with 7.3% of total population and 12.4% of urban population (749,048 inhabitants), whereas the other urban centres lag far behind Patras, the third-largest city, has a population of only 170,452. Only four cities besides Athens and Thessaloniki have a population of over 100,000, seven have populations between 50,000 and 100,000, and 52 medium-sized urban centres have populations between 10,000 and 50,000.

Economic activities show the same pattern of concentration. Attica, including the capital, contained in 1991 approximately 35% of wage-earners and contributed 39% of Gross Domestic Product, whereas the Central Macedonia region (Thessaloniki) includes 17.5% of wage-earners and contributes about 16% of GDP. Compared to 1981, these two regions, together with the touristic regions of the Aegean and Crete, appear to be the most dynamic, both with regard to change in employment and change in share of GDP (rates of change greater than the countrywide average). This dynamism is due to the growth of tertiary activities, mainly tourism in certain areas, but also services in general.

As concerns their territorial distribution, urban centres are spread, in the main, along the country's main axis of transport, which passes through Athens and

^{*} It should be made clear that the census of population tends to underestimate the population of the large urban centres, given the fact that there are households who are counted in their places of origin or in the places where their second hornes are situated; this is because distribution of public resources to local authorities is linked to the population as counted in the census. It is estimated that this underestimation was particularly significant for the Greater Athens Area in 1991. The same holds, to a lesser degree, for the 1981 census. Underestimation of the population quantitatively moderates the figures on the evolution of the urban population, but the points about the general trend remain valid.

Thessaloniki and extends westward to Patras and eastward to Kavala. Urban economic activities lie along the same axis. Concentrated there in 1991 were 66% of population, 82% of urban population, and three-quarters of persons employed in the secondary and tertiary sectors. This region produced 76% and 74% of GDP for the secondary and tertiary sectors, respectively. The trends towards decentralisation noted after 1970 also involve this axis, in favour of the rest of the country*, but this does not eliminate existing regional inequalities.

The processes of economic reorganisation on the international level, the political developments of the neighbouring area of the Balkans, and in particular the process of European integration and the Programme for Convergence have shaped new conditions for development of the Greek network of urban centres, investments in infrastructure, both in the process of implementation and in the planning stage, particularly in sectors of all types of communications (transport telecommunications, etc.), together with the new road axes, will on the one hand strengthen certain regions by altering existing hierarchies to a degree, and on the other will contribute to the process of decentralisation.

1.7 CONDITIONS AND TRENDS IN THE SECTOR OF DEVELOPMENT OF SETTLEMENTS AND SPATIAL ORGANISATION

The extent, intensity and structure of present-day problems of Greek cities are directly linked to their manner of development, particularly-during the early post-war period. The example of Athens, to which reference will primarily be made further on, reflects the conditions prevailing, to a lesser degree, in all urban centres during the period of their urbanisation.

This is because Athens was the first centre to come under strong pressure from the growth of population and activities.

Until about the mid-'70s, the economic growth and demographic increase of the urban centres. particularly Athens and Thessaloniki, caused them to be built upward and outward at a rapid pace. Urbanisation of the peri-urban area occurred exclusively through "unauthorised" division of land into building lots and illegal building, which were later legalised, without overall planning with regard to their spatial location or to their internal organisation and their connection to the existing urban web. Division of land into building lots, usually targeted at lower and middle income groups, brings about intensive exploitation of the land, without provision for public spaces, with minimum street widths and small lots. In the Greater Athens Area, the legal area on which building is permitted (within the city plan) increased by approximately 55% between 1950 and 1974.

At the same time high building-to-land ratios were institutionalised, as an incentive to build or restore the existing stock of buildings. The ability to carry out intensive exploitation of land, both with regard to area and to height, together with the conditions prevailing in the construction system, reinforced land owners' desire for profit and increased land prices, which thus became unfeasible for housing of low and middle income groups. The latter were driven to new areas, reproducing a vicious cycle. To be sure, the institutionalised density is in many cases merely theoretical, given the fact that it surpasses the needs of the population by far. It is estimated that the spatial capacity of the city institutionalised in the mid-60s was sufficient to house 8 million inhabitants, But in city-centre areas, at least, this led to unacceptably high densities, with no renewal of the planning structure which had been designed historically for completely

^{*} D. Katochianou and E. Theodori-Markogianni, 1989.

different densities and uses. Subsequent corrective interventions are excessively expensive, complicated and time-consuming.

From the mid-'70s on, the reality of settlement development of the large cities, Athens in particular, underwent a radical change. Stagnation of population, changes in the equilibrium of the system of construction and the imposition of controls, virtually put a halt to peripheral settlement development for primary housing. Saturation of central areas, however, intensified the increase in population of nearby suburbs. During the '80s, the central municipalities of the Greater Athens Area (Athens, Piraeus and immediately adjacent municipalities) lost population, whereas in contrast the northern and eastern suburbs, to which demand from middle and higher strata was directed. increased their population by approximately 22%. Despite the dynamism of these areas, they contained only about 1/4 of the population of the Greater Athens Area (as against 16% in 1971), whereas half its population continues to live in the central municipalities, and 1/4 in the so-called cheap western quarters. Movement of population towards the «suburbs» occurred with the implementation of the same building model, to be sure in lower institutionalised densities, but once again with no provision for necessary additional spatial and social equipment, with no expansion or arrangement of the road network, and with deficient technical infrastructure. It was accompanied by movement of central activities or creation of new ones, extending the problems of central areas (traffic load, air pollution, etc.) to suburban areas.

In parallel, new building development, through the same procedures used up to that time, spread to more far-flung peri-urban areas of second homes, particularly in coastal areas, bringing about extensive destruction of natural resources. In the case of Athens. the part of Attica Prefecture outside the urban agglomeration, which includes, apart from older rural and industrial settlements, the broader peri-urban zone of primary and second homes grew at a substantial rate during the decade between 1981 and 1991, to reach 20% of housing stock for the whole Prefecture. More specifically, during the 1981-91 period, the increase in total housing in the remainder of Attica Prefecture reached 30%, with a 34% increase in households. The indirectly calculated increase in second homes was of the order of 25%*, In. communities in the east and north peri-urban zone (mainly in the Messogia area), where new demand is mainly concentrated, development trends were stronger: increase in houses reached 47%, increase in households 57%, whereas increase in second homes must have been of the order of 37%, In this zone it is calculated that more than 40-45% of total new housing in the 1981-91 period most have been unauthorised. Unorganised, spattered development, often along road axes, has resulted in the urbanisation of a disproportionate, trige area in relation to the specific magnitudes are semand for shelter: whereas in the Greater Arman Area, gross density in 1991 was 41 houses are nectare of "settlement" uses, in the resattica the corresponding density was 6.3 ^ -: er hectare and in Messogia and the normal rban zone only 5.4 houses per hectare**.

^{*} Estimations and calculations of the Research Unit of DEPOS. The significant increase, percentage-w. homes, appears to support the widespread conviction that there are strong suburbanising trends in the new households into the area, however, was in fact lower than 20,000, i.e. lower than 2% of total h... Athens Area. Moreover, part of this increase was absorbed by old developing settlements in the area in nature. Consequently the real suburbanisation trend in the broader suburban zone was, up to 193

^{**} Land use data from the census of uses taken every 10 years by the National Statistical Servicettlement" covers all urban uses, roads, squares, etc.

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The Greater Athens Area is, as already mentioned, an exceptionally intensively built-up settlement, but even if we adopt «suburban» models adapted to Greek conditions (relatively small building plots, two-story and three-story buildings), a constant, relatively full settlement development should reach gross densities of the order of 25 inhabitants per hectare. Therefore, peri-urban settlement development in Athens, taken as a whole, over-consumes land resources five times more than a

reasonable level of organised urbanisation. Each subarea, to be sure, will gradually become more dense and, if it approaches the limits of urban spatial capacity, it will reach high densities due to intensive building on small lots. In the long intervening period, apart from the functional and aesthetic downgrading of settlements, environmental resources are also destroyed, and there is gross wastage of land, road networks and technical infrastructure.

2

EXISTING CONDITIONS, TRENDS AND PROBLEMS IN URBAN CENTRES

THE SYSTEM OF HOUSING

2.1.1 TRENDS IN HOUSING SUPPLY AND HOUSING CONDITIONS

Up to the end of the 1970s, construction activity in Greece was intense and the level of investment in housing high. In contrast, during the past 15 years, an overall fall in building activity has been registered. During the decade from 1981 to 1991, total housing stock increased by about 16.5%, as against 33% for the preceding decade (1971-1981), an increase corresponding on average to 6.6 new houses per thousand population per year, as against 10.8 for the preceding decade. This trend is recorded as stronger in the Greater Athens area, where the number of houses increased by about 10% (as against almost 46% for the preceding decade), an increase which corresponds on average to 3.95 new houses per thousand population annually (as against 13.7 for the decade from 1971 to 1981). At the same time, the share of investment in housing in the Gross Domestic Product as a whole shows a downward trend towards a level of 4-6%, as against 7-10% for the decade from 1970 to 1980. It should be pointed out that production of new housing and investment in housing, on the national level at least, only partly correspond to supply of new housing for primary use, in view of the fact that a substantial part of it is absorbed by domestic as well as international demand for second or vacation homes.

Nevertheless, the reduction in the production of new housing does not create conditions of shortage in the housing market in urban centres, given the fact that it is taking place in a period of stagnancy of the population and the economy. This is also confirmed by the absence of phenomena of malfunctioning, such as particularly high rents, or shortage of vacant houses. But special studies have established that not more than 7% of houses in large urban centres are vacant, a percentage that should be regarded as being very close to the minimum limit to ensure the necessary mobility of households.

However, it has been noted that investment in housing is insufficient to satisfactorily meet, in accordance with contemporary standards, the needs for shelter of low and middle income groups, nor is it sufficient to modernise and improve existing housing stock. This becomes clear in data of housing conditions indicators showing extensively unequal social distribution.

Average housing conditions indicators for Greece in 1988 appear to be satisfactory in relation to the country's level of economic development. Average residential density corresponds to 26 square meters of floor area per person, or 0.82 persons per room. The latter indicator is comparable to the relevant indicator for other European countries of similar development (e.g. 0.88 persons per room for Portugal), even though it is far below the average for the countries of the

European Union (0.6 persons per room). The residential density indicator showed an improvement, associated more with the reduction in household size than with increase in the average size of houses. At the same time, thanks to intensive building in the post-war period, the indicators of functional equipment inside houses (e.g. existence of indoor plumbing) have improved significantly, whereas enlargement of networks of technical infrastructure has increased the percentage of houses served by them. The electricity network covers practically all houses, whereas 97.5% of households have running water inside the home. Households lacking indoor plumbing (bathroom, W.C.) are somewhere of the order of 15%; they are mostly found in rural areas. More frequent are problems in relation to inadequate heating of homes (59% of households), a fact associated with the high percentage of one-family or two-family houses, particularly outside the large urban centres*.

But the above averages conceal problematic housing conditions which become apparent when social differences in conditions are examined. With regard to adequacy of space**, more than a third of households in the country as a whole live below the minimum acceptable level of required floor area, whereas about 10% are faced with a serious problem (difference between required and available floor area greater than 10 square meters). Moreover, approximately 20% of households live in houses which display serious functional deficiencies. Problems related to housing conditions appear more often in low-income households. Almost

half of such households lack adequate liveable floor area, and 38% face serious functional deficiencies.

But the diffusion of problems throughout the whole range of incomes also implies additional inherent weaknesses which characterise housing stock or parts of it (e.g. rural areas), as well as its limited differentiation (e.g. insufficiency of new housing for large households).

Finally, the share of owner-occupied housing was, in 1988, approximately 72% for the country as a whole, and 63% for the urban centres This is one of the highest rates among the countries of Europe, surpassed only by Ireland's (81%) and Spain's (78%). The value of the index, together with its diffusion throughout all income categories, seems to imply ease of access to owned shelter for all social strata. In the urban centres, where a study of the diffusion of occupier-owned housing is more significant (given that in rural areas about 94% of households are owners), the only parameter that appears to influence in a systematic way the owneroccupied rate is the stage the household has reached in its life cycle, as expressed through the age of its head. The effect of income is expressed in the somewhat greater age of acquisition of housing for tow-income households, but it is only slight. In contrast, access to home ownership appears to be strongly influenced by "random" factors, such as the existence of other property and/or assistance from the extended family***, the possibility of access to cheap financing through a bank loan or other form of loan, the

^{*} Data with regard to housing conditions are taken from the 1987/88 Family Budget Survey of the National Statistical Service of Greece, in view of the fact that data from the 1991 census of population are not yet available.

^{**} In seeking a definition of the concept of problematic housing conditions, a minimum acceptable level of residential density was set 'ensuring that the household's needs for shelter and its members' needs for privacy are met. This presupposes the existence of a separate bedroom for each couple, for each adult member of the household, for every two children of the same sex between 14 and 18 years cld, and for every two children under the age of 14, regardless of sex. Another prerequisite is the existence of an additional common room.

^{***} Fifty per cent of home owners acquired shelter which already belonged to the family (through inneritance or carental grant), or by exploiting assets or receiving financial support from the family regardless of income bracket. The anily coint of afference may be the value of such assets.

possibilities for cheap "self-heip" housing provided by the system of production of housing, etc. As a result, in Greece, households which have no such advantages and whose income is inadequate face a serious problem of access to home ownership.

It should be noted that acquisition of an owned home is, on the one hand, a security factor in the face of possible fluctuations in the household's financial situation, and in this sense it constitutes an improvement in its living conditions, but it does not necessarily involve better housing conditions. In urban areas, adequacy of housing space is somewhat better for homeowners as a whole, but the difference between homeowners and tenants is in effect negligible, if one looks only at low-income brackets. The indices of functional inadequacy of housing are not significantly different for urban households as a whole. But they are relatively differentiated, at the expense of owners, for iow- and very low-income groups.

Apart from the inadequate housing conditions which have been noted, which involve, to varying degrees, various social categories, special reference must be made to the problem of the homeless. We should also include in this category people who live in temporary accommodations (of a welfare or other nature), those who are guests due to financial impossibility of finding shelter, and disadvantaged social groups living in extremely bad conditions or in accommodation unsuitable for habitation. Housing problems in these cases are usually associated with phenomena of poverty and social exclusion, or with special problems of social integration. The categories which are most exposed to such situations cannot be included in a single definition, but are usually found among refugees, immigrants, unemployed youth, the

poor, most often found among the elderly, and in special groups (drug addicts, released prisoners), etc. According to estimates and despite experts' differing definitions, the number of homeless is relatively restricted (of the order of 10,000, not counting immigrants). Because of their limited numbers and the nature of the problems, it is difficult to keep records of the homeless and deal with them through the existing assistance systems, to which we will refer below. It is therefore necessary to adopt special support programmes, most probably of a social welfare character, through which permanent and semi-permanent housing will be offered alongside processes of social integration.

2.1.2 COST OF SHELTER AND SOCIAL ACCESS TO ADEQUATE HOUSING

The ratios of average family income to the average selling price or average rent for housing in the existing housing market, as indicators of households' financial capacity of access to owned or rental housing, are in Greece at the usual levels for developed countries. To purchase a dwelling for sale on the free market (median price), an amount 2.5 times the annual household income (median value) is required, whereas to rent an average dwelling, 11% of the renters' annual income is required.

The average share of housing expenditure* in total household expenditure tends to remain stable in the long term, and is of the order of 11%. It is differentiated, however, according to income, from 8.6% in the highest-income decile to 18.9% in the lowest-income decile. This percentage of 18-19%, which is the case for the poorest fifth of households, should be regarded as representing a substantial financial burden, particularly in view of the fact that it does not

^{*} Housing expenditure has been calculated on the basis of data from the NSSG's Household Expenditure Surveys, regardless of tenure type, taking into account imputed rent for owners and actual rent paid for tenants.

correspond to satisfactory housing conditions. The unequal burden of expenditure for housing is aggravated by the system of supports, a matter which will be discussed below.

A problem which is important here and involves the overall housing stock situation, is the relatively poor quality of the average dwelling, or at least its lack of correspondence with the characteristics of the household, as indicated by the extent and diffusion of housing problems already referred to. The characteristics of the average dwelling are shaped by the characteristics of the average apartment built between 1960 and 1979, i.e. during the period of intensive construction. The average size of such an apartment varies between about 70 and 75 square meters, with 3.5 as the average number of rooms; it is situated in high-density areas, often with attendant problems of poor light and ventilation. It has no functional deficiencies, or at least it had none at the time it was built, although some buildings of this type, due to their age and mediocre quality, show clear signs of ageing and lack of maintenance. In the urban centres this portion constitutes 40% of total housing stock, and is in fact the portion of that stock which pre-eminently supports household mobility. In other words, in their endeavour to secure shelter (owned or rented), according to their financial ability, households turn to dwellings with poor qualitative characteristics which fail to meet minimum housing needs. Relative affordability of shelter appears to be synonymous with poor quality. To improve it, substantial investments on the part of the household are required, when this is possible (in the case of single family dwellings, joining two apartments together, etc.), or the household must turn to the purchase of a new dwelling; here, however, the ratio of average selling price to average income is much less favourable (3.5-4).

The evolution of housing construction cost indicators during the last 15 years has on general lines followed the course of the general cost of living, although it has showed fluctuations in the medium term related to the phases of the cycle of construction activity. This evolution is indicative of the fallure or the unwillingness to modernise and reorganise the system of housing supply, as well as the absence of innovation, which would permit a reduction in construction costs, and at the same time an improvement in the qualitative characteristics of housing. The problem is exacerbated by the fact that, in conditions of recession and income stagnation, construction of new housing is mainly addressed to the demand from well-to-do social groups, who abandon the old stock to lower-income groups, to new households, or to households with greater mobility, etc.

In Greece, the possibility of improving accessibility to better shelter, through mortgage credit, remains relatively limited; this is because, thanks to a high rate of inflation, real but mainly nominal interest rates are high. Thus the cost of bank loans, together with bank charges and taxes, has until now been prohibitive for low- as well as middle-income households, particularly when they are not included in the categories eligible for an interest rate subsidy. In recent years, the downward trend of the rate of inflation, which is now around 8.5%, as well as the increase in competitiveness among banks in the mortgage credit sector is tending: to create new conditions. It appears that naminal interest rates show a tendency to settle for the next three to five years at levels of the order of 12%-13.5% (as against a minimum of 17% to pate This development looks like it will broaden the range of categories able to take advantage of the pans, although its effects will depend on the part at this and overall course of economic policies.

2.1.3 HOUSING SECTOR FINANCING

Financing of the housing sector in Greating of building in general, continues to be base to an end of building in general, continues to be base to an end of boundary on household savings. The role of bank finan mough it has gradually increased, in recent year and of colors.

is limited and is addressed only to households (loans for purchasing a home), and not to construction enterprises. Although financing of construction enterprises is no longer forbidden as it was in the past, the terms of borrowing make recourse to a bank loan out of the question. Moreover, public investment in housing is extremely limited, of the order of 3.5% of total investment in housing for the 1986-1991 period.

During the post-war period, up to the end of the '70s, housing and building activity in general were virtually the only option for the investment of private savings. High rates of economic development, increases in available income, and the high propensity to save, ensured adequate, healthy financing of the production of housing. According to data from research carried out in 1988 in large urban centres*, out of all homeowners who purchased or built their dwellings, only about 20% used a loan, which of course covered only a part of the total investment. The role of bank lending showed a gradual increase, given that during the '50s only 3% of homeowners had made use of a loan, whereas after 1970 this percentage had risen to approximately 23%.

From the 1980s on, the stagnancy or small increase of households' available income has brought about a downward trend in savings, which can be observed in the development of investment in housing. At the same time, alternatives have made their appearance, feasible even for small individual savers, of placing their money in public bonds, stocks, etc. and these have deprived housing production from a significant volume of private capital.

Until around the mid-80s, bank financing was completely controlled by the restrictive policies of

the central bank. Reorientation of its policy in a direction in step with the requirements of gradual deregulation of the banking system but also serving the coincident attempt to stimulate building activity, led in 1988-89 to a significant increase in credits for housing loans. In parallel, regulations relative to the amount of such loans, which was raised to as much as 75% of the value of the dwelling being purchased (in contrast to 50% which had until then been the limit), and interest rate subsidies for the purpose of first dwelling were introduced, for the purpose of making the loans more accessible mainly to middle-income households**.

Entry of commercial banks into the housing credit field beginning in 1986 contributed to a differentiation in lending terms, but until recently their role was a very limited one. Special credit organisations represented 91% of total housing finance in 1993, compared to 97.3% in 1986.

The effects of the new conditions created following the recent fall in interest rates for housing lending, on the initiative of the commercial banks, cannot be evaluated at present. But they will certainly contribute to increasing the role played by banking finance in the system of housing production, and the role played by the commercial banks in housing credit.

2.1.4 STRUCTURE OF HOUSING PRODUCTION: SPECIFICITIES AND PROBLEMS

Production of housing in Greece is characterised by the coexistence of a business sector based on small units of production, and a "self-housing" sector, which, although it is gradually losing importance is still powerful. "Self-housing" consists of a building erected

^{*} DEPOS, 1989.

^{**} An indication of this is the ract that housing loan disbursements amounted in 1989 to 40% of total investment in housing, compared to 21% in 1988, 15% in 1987, 19% in 1986 and 31% in 1985.

to order of the owner of the building lot, who secures the required finance and handles the whole process. The building is usually small in size, and may be nothing more than a one-family home. It is originally intended for use by the owner and one or more households of relatives (usually children), but it may include dwellings or shops to be rented out. This sector shows a gradual tendency to decrease in significance, but it is still an important one; it is estimated that, as late as the 1980s it may have represented more than a third of total construction, whereas during the '60s, with regard to the Greater Athens Area ranged somewhere between 40 and 55% of total volume. Indicative is the fact that in 1988, in large urban centres*, of all homeowners who have not acquired their dwellings through transfer within the family, 42% built a home on a lot of their own. Despite the restricted role of self-housing in the production of housing, it still remains indirectly a decisive one for residential development: on the one hand because the existing parcelling of urban land has been effected with parameters set with a view to the potential for self-housing, i.e the financial ability to build by a single household, and on the other, because these parameters continue to determine the standards for residential development. even in the new statutory tools adopted for planning expansion and the control of peri-urban land.

The sector of housing production by businesses is made up of numerous units small in size, employing few persons, with limited own capital and a minimum of technical equipment. These features also determine the limited size of the majority of buildings intended for housing, not only in periods of recession, like that of the last few years, but even in periods of intensive building, when it would not be a business risk to undertake large housing complexes. The main question for business production

of housing is pre-financing of building, given the inability to resort to bank lending and the lack of own capital. This has been dealt with on the one hand by preselling apartments, thus securing, at the same time, an adequate flow of cheap capital during construction, together with quick disposal of the product, and on the other by the method where the owner of a lot hands it over to the construction company in exchange for part of the building. This procedure is not peculiar to the Greek system of housing production, but in Greece it has been implemented to a unique extent, in view of the fact that in the period of intensive building activity it represented over 80% of buildings under construction**, and corresponded on average to 30-40% of the final cost of the building. Limited bank lending, despite its onerous terms, was used during that period by relatively larger construction enterprises to purchase lots instead of paying for them in the form of parts of buildings, and this fact is an indication of the burden this method represents on the total cost.

Despite the fact that systematic information on the development of the characteristics of construction enterprises and the production of housing by such enterprises is limited, the overall situation has not radically changed with regard to size of enterprises and financing methods. To be sure, the reduction in household savings and their turn to other forms of investment clearly had an impact on financing of housing, and therefore of production of housing by construction companies, which logically should have been influenced even more. Moreover, this sector's turn towards demand from higher income brackets is a demonstration of its attempt to adapt to conditions of recession and tightness of financing, There are indications that the characteristics and structure of enterprises have changed, but they are not sufficient

^{*} DEPOS, 1989.

^{**} Data taken from extensive research done in 1972 on construction enterprises in the framework of working out the 4-hens regulatory plan.

to permit any assessment of the size and importance of the sector's processes of modernisation.

2.1.5 STATE INTERVENTIONS AND SUPPORT

As has already been stated, direct state intervention in the production of housing is particularly limited; it is exercised exclusively through the housing programmes of the Workers Housing Organisation addressed to the special category of those insured by the Foundation of Social Security (IKA), including provision of housing with favourable repayment terms. The former "people's housing" programmes of the Ministry of Health and Welfare, which were very limited in scope, have been virtually abandoned, with the exception of the emergency programmes for disaster victims According to recent information, in 1995 the Ministry intends to begin to implement once again housing programmes for the poor.

The most important interventions of the public sector consist of direct and indirect regulations through financing of households by special credit institutions, interest rate subsidy for purchase of first homes, and through the system of tax exemptions.

The restricted role of housing credit in housing finance has already been mentioned. At this point, certain problems should be stressed in relation to its redistribution role. Granting of a bank loan initially serves to reinforce personal savings which would otherwise be insufficient to purchase a house, and therefore it opens up the possibility of home ownership to broader strata and lower age-groups of the population, etc. A common feature of such loans, however, at least until recently, was that they demanded that substantial personal savings be mustered in order to purchase a house. The agencies which offer housing loans were of three general types:

 Agencies and credit institutions which extend loans to special categories of eligible persons on

favourable terms and with a subsidised interest rate. The following should be included here: the Workers Housing Organisation, directed towards workers in the private sector; the Ministry of Health and Welfare, directed towards special categories; the Postal Savings Bank and the Consignations and Loans Fund, directed towards public employees. Finally, the loans for rural shelter granted by the Agricultural Bank may also be included here. From 1986 on, only the Workers Housing Organisation and the Agricultural Bank loans increased their share in total lending for housing, while loans from the other bodies showed a decrease (Postal Savings Bank, Ministry of Health and Welfare), or remained stationary (Consignations and Loans Fund). This situation must have improved after 1994, when the increase in the amounts of loans and the drop in interest rates also increased their rate of take up.

With regard to the groups covered by these organisations, it must be noted that they do not necessarily belong to the more disadvantaged categories. Amounts of loans and their relation to the price of the dwelling require the contribution of substantial household savings. As a result, they are not directed towards the categories with the least capacity of access to housing. This relationship must have improved after the 1993 regulations, according to which the amount of a loan can cover up to 80% of the price of the dwelling. In any case interest rates are such that, despite the fact that they are subsidised, they demand the ability to pay substantial amounts to make the amortisation payments; as a result, the beneficiaries are predominantly the middle-income groups and those with a steady income.

 State housing banks, which extend a broad range of housing loans using their own criteria, out offering interest rate subsidies when the purchaser is buying his first home. They are not addressed to special categories of eligible persons, but amounts of loans and interest rates make such loans accessible to high- and middle-income groups. The housing banks, the National Mortgage Bank of Greece in particular, cover the major part of total housing credit.

 Finally, commercial banks, which grant loans using their own criteria exclusively. For the time being, they have only a small share of the market.

Various types of interventions are made through the system of taxation. The most important are the exemption from payment of transfer tax for acquisition of the first home, tax exemption for interest on loans, and tax exemptions for rent, either imputed or actual. A general problem of indirect subsidies or exemptions granted through the taxation system is that these increase in proportion to the taxpayer's tax rate, the amount of the loan, etc. In other words, they are much more advantageous to taxpayers with high incomes.

Another general problem involving the whole spectrum of housing assistance, is that it is pre-eminently associated with home purchases. In contrast, for tenants there is only the partial tax exemption for rent payments, which is objectively of little importance.

According to a recent study by the Research Department of DEPOS, distribution of existing housing assistance throughout the economic strata of households (deciles of expenditure) presents a completely inverse pattern with a distribution that would follow the actual needs for housing assistance, with regard both to the percentage of subsidy recipients by stratum, and to the amount of housing assistance. Particularly problematic is the fact that the lower third, in terms of living conditions, appears to be completely excluded from the system of benefits, even though its needs and problems are the most serious.

2.2 SOCIAL AND TECHNICAL INFRASTRUCTURE OF URBAN CENTRES

2.2.1. SOCIAL INFRASTRUCTURE

In contrast with many developed countries, during the last fifteen years Greece has not pursued a policy of curtailing state spending in the basic sectors of social infrastructure such as health and education. To be sure, the basic reason for that were the significant deficiencies in those sectors in the period up to 1980. Thus, as concerns material infrastructure indicators (wards, beds, etc.), significant progress has been made and satisfactory levels of coverage have been achieved. The basic problems in those sectors lie in the quantitative improvement and qualitative upgrading in terms of modern technical equipment, specialised staff and methods of organisation and operation.

Health

The situation in the sector of health in Greece, despite certain important specific improvements, continues to present problems and deficiencies.

The total number of hospital beds in 1991 was, for the country as a whole, 51,300, of which 29% were in private healthcare facilities. For every 200 persons there is one hospital bed, a ratio rather far below the EU average of one bed per 128 persons. The total number of doctors has been steadily increasing in recent years: in 1991 it was 37,238, or a ratio of one doctor per 294 persons, much higher than the EU average of one doctor per 400 persons.

Infant mortality figures are also steadily improving. Defined as the percentage of infants who die before the age of 1, it fell from 2.96% in 1970 (4.01% in 1960) to 0.99% in 1991* (EU average: 0.86% in 1991). The improvement in infant mortality was mainly a result of

^{*} Defined as the percentage of children who die before reaching the age of 5, it was 0.19% for the country as a whole in 1991.

improvements in conditions of childbirth. As early as 1987, 99% of births took place in a hospital (82% in 1970 and 47% in 1960).

The main problems of the health sector involve deficiencies in infrastructure (number and condition of buildings), and the scientific equipment of healthcare institutions, as well as a serious lack of specialised medical, nursing and administrative staff. Out of a total of 37,238 doctors, hospital doctors make up only 49%, whereas 26% of existing hospital staff have not received basic vocational training.

A significant problem of the health sector is the great regional inequality in the distribution of healthcare services. The Greater Athens Area contains the major portion of large hospital units, with 47% of available beds, 55% of hospital doctors, and 47% of nursing staff. The number of persons per hospital bed is 127 in the Greater Athens Area and 266 in the rest of the country, whereas the numbers of persons per hospital doctor are 306 and 944 respectively (595 in the country as a whole). The above indicators, aside from the fact that they show the nation's capital to be in a much more advantageous position than the rest of the regions, also highlight the extremely unfavourable absolute position of the other regions, particularly islands and border areas.

Education

At the beginning of the 1970s, the condition of education infrastructure was characterised by severe deficiencies in school buildings, with schoolchildren-to-classroom ratios of the order of 44.5 and 49.5 for primary and secondary education respectively. These indicators have now been improved significantly. In primary education, the ratio in 1991 was 20.8 schoolchildren per classroom, and in secondary education it was 25.3. These indicators do not completely reflect the actual operating conditions of schools, given the fact that many schools, particularly in secondary education,

operate on two shifts (morning and afternoon/evening) due to lack of classrooms in areas with high densities of school-age population.

The improvement in the indicators is due to the overall increase in the number of classrooms, particularly in secondary education. In the 1973-1991 period, the number of classrooms increased by 38% in primary and by 170% in secondary education. However, the improvement in the indicators is due to a great extent to the fall in the birthrate (particularly during the '80s), the results of which have to date mainly influenced student population in primary education. In the 1981-1991 period, the number of schoolchildren in secondary education increased by just 8.9%, and in primary education it decreased by 14.8%.

With regard to the regional distribution of school infrastructure, no concentration in the Greater Athens Area is noted. In fact, the ratio of children per classroom is slightly higher in Athens: it is 24.3 and 27.5 for primary and secondary education respectively (1991 data).

On the whole, despite the favourable evolution of density indicators, the technical intrastructure of education displays several deficiences and problems. The most important of these concern the poor quality of school buildings, inadequacy at a implementary areas and facilities (libraries, laboration gymnasiums and free space) and the need for the classrooms or buildings in high-density areas the second shift can be abolished.

Social Welfare

The changes taking place during socio-economic structures and the structure and functioning of the structure and functions in the period of working women), are creating increasing the structure and structures are for the

elderly, which have traditionally been practices carried out inside the family.

in the Greater Athens Area there are 620 day-care centres for infants and pre-school age children, with a capacity to accommodate 39,657 children. The private sector offers about 40% of total capacity. The total number of places available covers only a small percentage of the population aged 2-5, compared to countries where the welfare state is more developed. It should be noted, however, that in a substantial number of urban households, the traditional practices of care for pre-school age children in the home by family members (usually the elderly, provided they are in a position to offer help) or alternatively by individuals, not necessarily specialised, who are hired to do this job, still predominate.

Care for the elderly in live-in institutions (homes for the aged) is not well developed. The basic reason is that this social practice is not easily accepted by Greek society. Care for the elderly is exercised as a rule at home by family members, or possibly by paid specialised or non-specialised staff. In the Greater Athens Area there are 67 homes for the aged with a total capacity of 4,025, which corresponds to 1.2% of the population over 65 years. Forty-seven per cent of this capacity is offered by private business organisations, whereas development of new non-profit units (state, municipal, etc.) has been all but abandoned.

The Centres for Open Protection of the Elderly (KAPI) are a relatively new institution (dating from the mid'80s), aimed at continuation and stimulation of social participation of persons in their old age, provided they retain their physical and mental abilities. These special centres, run on a daytime basis with no live-in facilities, provide opportunities for organised recreation, creative occupation, medical care and social work.

The 68 KAPIs now in operation in the Greater Athens Area under the supervision of the Ministry of Health and Welfare and local government units, are very popular, with 47,500 members.

In the more general sector of welfare and care for the family, children and social groups with problems, development has been restricted in Greece, compared to the developed countries of Europe. Nevertheless, important qualitative changes have been made after the mid-'80s, first in the direction of revision of the traditional charitable approach, and second through the work done for groups with special needs.

Social Cohesion

In comparison to the situation world-wide, Greek cities do not present significant problems of social cohesion or symptoms of social disorganisation such as high crime rates. There are, however, many signs or actual trends indicating that these social sectors and problems should be the object of policies of increased priority.

In the latter half of the 1980s, strong upward trends appeared in crime-rate statistics which, despite reservations about the validity of comparisons (the increase could be interpreted in part by changes in methods of policing or recording), may indicate the development of a serious problem. Thefts recorded in 1991 in the Greater Athens Area were 12.7 per 1000 population*, 186% more than were recorded in 1981. There were 0.033 murders per 1000 population, i.e. 43% more than those recorded in 1981.

On the level of social cohesion, the increase in the influx of immigrants and refugees from countries of the Third World and Eastern Europe also demands that the matter be dealt with from the standpoint of integration in the urban system and the labour market.

^{*} These figures refer to the «penal» population, i.e. population aged 7 or over.

2.2.2. TECHNICAL INFRASTRUCTURE

The development of basic infrastructure networks has on general lines been very satisfactory during the last 20 years with regard to water supply, electricity and telephone service, whereas the sewerage sector has lagged somewhat behind, particularly in the country's small settlements.

More analytically, developments in individual sectors are as follows:

Water Supply - Sewerage

The water supply - sewerage sector is decentralised; it falls under the competency of local bodies (local government organisations, public corporations, special organisations in Athens and Thessaloniki), which are responsible for the construction, maintenance and exploitation of local networks. Central administration is responsible for works of national importance (protection against floods, combating pollution).

Household Connection Levels					
	1971	1981	1988*		
COUNTRY AS A WHOLE					
Electricity	88.8	96.2	99.3		
Water supply	64.8	87.2	96.9		
Sewerage	30.1	42.1	58.9		
Telephone	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.		
GREATER ATHENS AREA					
Electricity	99.4	99.7	99.9		
Water supply	93.0	97.4	99.9		
Sewerage	48.0	64.8	94,5		
Telephone	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.		

n.a. no data available

The percentage of households connected to water

supply networks is very high (1988: 96.9%), and in the large urban agglomerations (Athens and Thessaloniki) it is close to 100%. There has been a lot of activity in construction and extension of water supply networks during the last decades, so that, whereas the percentage of households connected to a water supply system was less than 30%, it had reached the level of 65% by 1971, and today it is estimated that practically all households are covered. In the Greater Athens Area the percentages of households connected to the network was over 90% already at the beginning of the '70s.

On general lines, the situation in the water supply sector is judged to be satisfactory, not only in the Greater Athens Area, but in the country as a whole, with regard to coverage of the residential network. The cost of water is not particularly high: it represents only 0.25% of total household expenditure, or 1.3% of expenditures on housing.

Problems in the water supply sector are found primarily in ensuring adequate supplies, in conjunction with the rational management of available resources, as well as the quality of water in certain areas. The Greater Athens Area includes more than 30% of the country's population, but does not have adequate water resources nearby. Thus, in order to meet its needs, water is piped in from great distances, up to 200 km. (Evinos River). The whole system of collecting, transporting, storing, filtering and distributing water is in need of improvement and modernisation, for the purpose of minimising losses in basic sections of it (Iliki reservoir, Mornos conduit, Athens and Piraeus municipalities distribution networks) and increasing its efficiency, so as to ensure enough water without wasting available resources. The recent period of prolonged drought (1989-1993), urgently raised the question of rational management of water reserves.

^{*} Data from DEPOS survey, 1988, and NSSG Household Expenditures Survey, 1987-88.

In the country's smaller settlements, and despite the great development of local networks, it should be noted that, due to organisational weaknesses of the relevant agencies of water supply, there is no systematic monitoring or control of water quality (although as a rule this is water from springs or drilling). As an indication of this, it is noted that only in 8% of small settlements' networks is regular chlorination carried out. In addition, a significant number of smaller settlements, mainly on islands, display a permanent problem of seasonal shortage of water during the summer period due to fourism.

In contrast to water supplies, the development of sewerage networks has proceeded at a slower pace. The creation of sanitary sewage networks was not confronted in the post-war period as a top-priority need; growth of the relevant infrastructure proceeded at a much slower pace and was concentrated mainly in the large urban agalomerations. Thus, whereas in the Greater Athens Area (and in that of Thessaloniki), the percentage of households connected to sanitary sewer networks is greater than 90%, in the country as a whole the percentage of households connected to sanitary sewage networks was 59% in 1988. If, however, only semi-urban and rural areas are examined, the connection level was just 18%, and the primary method of waste disposal was underground storage (septic tanks).

With regard to sewerage networks, apart from the need for maintenance of the older sections of the network, the most serious problem facing the Greater Athens Area at this time is that of **rainwater runoff**. Because of the way in which the capital developed (intensive urban development in the decades after World War II, disorderly building) the major part of the natural runoff network was gradually destroyed but in parallel to this the required network of storm-water sewers was not developed. It is characteristic that only 35% of the broader area of Attica is covered by works to prevent flooding.

The capital today faces a serious problem of lack of protection against flooding, which is intensified due to the destruction of the forests around the city (extensive fires over period of years, illegal encroachment on forested areas and areas under reforestation). Destruction of forests by fires has already created serious flooding problems in many other settlements in the rest of the country, as well.

Electricity - Telecommunications

The sectors of electricity and telecommunications are the responsibility of central national bodies (Public Power Corporation, Hellenic Telecommunications Organisation) which are responsible for the national territory as a whole.

The power supply network has covered almost all the country's towns and settlements from the beginning of the 1980s. Virtually 100% of households are connected to the network, and in 1988 the average monthly cost, on the household level, was of the order of 2% of total household expenditure (or 11% of expenditures on housing).

The network satisfactorily meets the needs of the population. In recent years, however, problems of overloading the network have been noted, along with the danger of blackouts due to increased demand in extreme weather conditions (heatwaves, extreme cold).

The country has virtually no natural gas distribution network, given the fact that domestic production (which began in 1982) is minimal, and is unable to cover more than 0.5% of total energy consumption. The planned construction of a natural gas pipeline from Russia, and relevant distribution works have not yet been completed.

The way electric power is produced places a rather large burden on the environment, in view of the fact

that it is in the main based on burning lignite and stone coal, and only secondarily on oil (65% and 20% respectively of electricity produced), whereas around 11% comes from hydroelectric works (1985 data). Greece has no nuclear energy units.

Electricity produced covers about 40% of the country's total energy consumption. About 50% of total consumption is based on petroleum products and the other 10% on solid fuels.

Exploitation of "ciean" (soft/renewable) sources of energy has not yet proceeded beyond an initial experimental stage, despite the significant reserves of some of them (wind energy, geothermal energy). One exception is exploitation of solar energy for heating water in homes and tourist complexes. It is estimated that approximately 15% of households now have solar water heaters.

Greece's telephone network is also satisfactorily developed; it covers practically the whole country. In the Greater Athens Area, 86% of households were connected to the telephone network in 1988; the figure for the country as a whole was 75%. Despite the fact that development of the network is proceeding at a satisfactory pace (average annual increase in primary telephone connections of all categories for the 1989-1993 period was calculated by the Hellenic Telecommunications Organisation to be 5.5%), there is a serious problem regarding the quality of the services provided. The waiting period for a new telephone connection is on average three years, frequency of breakdowns is 0.5 per line per year (compared to the EU average of 0.2). The portion of the network which has been digitised was 24% at the end of 1993 (35%-80% in the other countries of the EU).

2.2.3 THE SYSTEM OF TRANSPORT AND TRAFFIC

Existing transport infrastructure displays significant deficiencies and inadequacies. Of these, the most

serious are the extremely low level of development of railways, poor quality of services in inter-island transport, and Athens' traffic problem (and to a lesser degree that of the other urban centres). More specifically, the condition of the transport network on the national level and on the level of the capital presents the following picture:

National Level

The road network is not adequately developed. The ratio of length of roads in kilometres per 100 square kilometres area is just 30, compared to 158 for the 12 countries of the EU as a whole, based on 1988 data. More severe is the lack of highways of large capacity (Greece: 0.2 km/100 km2; EU: 1.5 km/100 km2). Despite these deficiencies, the major part of transport as a whole is carried out by road (88% of passenger and 95% of goods transport, based on 1986 data).

The limited network of railways is characterised by severe deficiencies and extremely low level of service. There are 1.8 km of railway track for every 100 km2 area, compared to 5.7 km in the EU. Two-way tracks comprise 10% of the network (EU: 43%), the proportion of electric-powered railways is just 3% (EU: 40%), and average speed is 88 km per hour, also one of the lowest in the European Union. The share of railways in the country's total transport is of the order of 5% (1986), the result of a continuing downward trend, primarily in the '60s and '70s, the period during which the road network was developed.

The system of marine transport, of decisive importance given Greece's peculiar geography, shows many problems with regard to infrastructure and level of service. It is extremely difficult to adequately meet the needs of the islands (frequency of service, suitably equipped harbours), particularly small or remote islands, because there are so many of them, and there are such great fluctuations in the flow of goods and passengers from one season of the year to another

(more tourist traffic during the summer months, less during the winter).

With regard to ports of national importance (Piraeus, Thessaloniki, Volos, Iraklio, Alexandroupli, Patras and Igoumenitsa), there is also a lack of technical works, infrastructure and connections to road and railway networks, primarily due to their haphazard development over the last few decades.

The system of air transport is characterised by an exceptionally well-developed network of airports (over 37 in number); this is primarily due to the insular character of Greek territory. Many of them still have infrastructure problems, mainly with regard to length of runways (particularly in small aerodromes), airport buildings and equipment in the form of air navigational aids.

International transport is served in the main by the Athens (Hellenicon) and Thessaloniki airports and, during the tourist season, by 13 smaller airports receiving charter flights directly from abroad. Hellenicon Airport, which receives the bulk of international and domestic flights, is now inadequate, particularly during peak periods.

To deal with the inadequacies of Greece's system of transport, execution of a series of major infrastructure works has been planned for the 1994-1999 period, within the framework of the Second Community Support Framework. These works include upgrading the Patras-Athens-Thessaloniki highway axis, and construction of the Egnatia Highway, a motorway running in an east-to-west direction (from Greece's border with Turkey to the port of Igoumenitsa), which is now in the process of being built. Included in interventions to upgrade the road network is the Rio-Antirrio bridge project. Other works which have begun, or are in the planning stage, are works to modernise the Athens-Thessaloniki railway

line (double tracks, electrification, signals), works to modernise the country's major ports (primarily Patras and Igoumenitsa), as well as airports, with a major priority being the construction of the new Athens airport in Spata.

The Greater Athens Area

The basic national road and railway axes converge on the Greater Athens Area, and its ports and airport constitute basic points of entry to and exit from the country, serving volumes of the order of 21.3 million passengers and 136 million tons of goods per year. The high concentrations of population and activities have created conditions of congestion and malfunctioning of the system of transport and traffic.

Concentrated In the nation's capital are 43% of all passenger cars, with an ownership index of 354 vehicles per 1000 population (245 on the national level). Despite the fact that the passenger car ownership index is one of the lowest in the European Union, traffic conditions on the road network are exceptionally problematic (verging on saturation on most road axes) due to high urban density, inadequacy of the road network (narrow width of co., streets, absence of important regional axes, insufficient parking space) and the large concentrations of exercity per of vehicle, mainly private passenger cars and marks, as well as taxis, in daily traffic.

Means of mass transport (buses, trolleys and and of overground railway) serve only 34% of ad and trips (railway 4.8%, trolleys 5.4%, buses 23.8%). The serving 76% of trips is shared between private cars and (12%), "other" means (12%), and motorcycle and modes of transport, 53 minutes, whereas and by means of mass transport it was 77 minutes.

^{*} According to recent measurements, traffic volumes have increased by 50-100% during the period from the above times must have increased significantly.

The limited share of means of mass transport in total transport is due on the one hand to the small capacity of the existing urban railway and on the other to the low level of bus and trolley service (infrequent, irregular service, very low average speeds). Users' preference for private cars and taxis places an exceptionally large burden on traffic conditions (very low average speeds, traffic congestion), the main consequence of this being severe air pollution, which helps to create photochemical smog, Athens' most serious environmental problem.

In order to deal with Athens' traffic problem and bring about a general improvement in transport infrastructure, a series of works financed by the European Union are under way or have been planned for the immediate future.

Construction of an underground railway is a top-priority work. In the first stage, two transverse axes of a total of 17.6 km long are being built, with a projected completion date of early 1999. Alongside this, construction of a tram system is being studied, the priority here being the line that will connect the city with the sea.

Just as important is the completion of the peripheral ring-road, including the road from Stavros to Elefsina running in an east-west direction (it also includes a light overground railway), and ending at the new Spata airport, and the peripheral Hymettus Avenue running in a north-south direction. In parallel a series of minor interventions on the existing road network are also being carried out, concerning primarily construction of flyover intersections.

Apart from the above works, a series of interventions with a view to improvement and regulation have been carried out. They have to do with reorganisation or urban transport, creation of lanes to be used exclusively by buses and trolleys on the basic road axes, opening hours for shops and services, and finally incentives to replace conventional technology on

private cars with catalytic converters.

It is estimated that the above works and interventions will significantly improve traffic conditions and thus will also make a decisive contribution to improvement of environmental conditions.

2.3 ENVIRONMENTAL PROBLEMS OF URBAN CENTRES

2.3.0 GENERAL BACKGROUND AND TRENDS

Throughout the '80s, up to the beginning of the '90s, Greece's basic environmental indicators showed it to be well in the lead as the most favoured country in the European Union. Thus, with the exception of Portugal in one case, Greece showed (Eurostat, 1991):

- the smallest number of automobiles per capita
- the lowest per capita energy consumption
- the lowest per capita production of CO,
- the highest percentage of forested land
- the longest coastline suitable for recreation per capita

Despite these general comparative data and paradoxically at first sight, Greeks' *subjective* evaluation of the conditions of the environment in which they live was clearly the worst of all the countries of the EU for *all* the following indicators (Eurobarometer, 1988):

- · Quality of water
- Noise
- Air pollution
- Waste disposal
- Lack of access to open spaces and the countryside
- Loss of good farming land
- Destruction of the landscape

The coexistence of these two completely opposite observations can be interpreted by three interconnected factors. First, Greece was essentially

urbanised in the post-war period at a very rapid pace, and therefore cities present serious problems of urban-planning organisation and infrastructure, and at the same time the urban population still maintains strong ties to the rural area and has a critical attitude to the living environment of the cities.

Second, although the technological development indicators, which are decisive for the environment. are indeed the lowest in Europe, their rate of change during the last 15 years has been radically faster than that of the other EU countries. The experiences of rapid changes and the consequent environmental degradation which occurred just as swiftly, may in themselves have provoked negative evaluations, regardless of the absolute magnitude of the indicators. Thus, characteristically, we may mention that, between 1981 and 1993, the number of passenger cars increased by 115% and the number of motorcycles, mopeds, etc. by 285% (with similar rates in Athens); consumption of petrol rose by 87% and of solid fuels (for electricity production) by 193%. Rapid changes aiso took place in the sectors which are environmentally harmful to the peri-urban and rural areas. Thus, arrivals of tourists increased by 78% between 1981 and 1993, and approached a number equal to the country's native population, while the housing stock of second and vacation homes around Athens and Thessaloniki increased by more than 30%.

Finally, the combination of the above conditions and changes, together with the additional factor of restricted effectiveness of policy to improve and protect the environment up to the end of the 1980s, have indeed led to particularly problematic conditions in

the big cities, particularly in Athens. Effective interventions and improvements in many crucial sectors of environmental policy effectively began to be implemented after 1990, often with financial assistance from the EU and adaptation to relevant European standards and directives*. Below we will refer to the sectors where there are the greatest concentrations of problems and priorities from the point of view of an integrated policy on the environment**.

2.3.1 PROBLEMS OF THE SYSTEMS FOR MANAGEMENT OF SOLID AND LIQUID WASTES

Until 1990 the percentage of urban liquid waste which underwent even primary treatment in biological purification plants was virtually negligible. As a result, there was a severe problem of pollution of surface water in the peri-urban area and in areas with high concentrations of tourism and vacation homes. Upon completion of the plant on the island of Psitalia in Athens and the beginning of primary purification, together with extensive construction of biological purification systems in smaller settlements with assistance from the EU, the percentage of liquid waste undergoing treatment was, in 1994, close to 90% in the capital and 12% in the rest of the country. It is obvious that there is still a serious problem in the rest of the country, but the rate of improvement is satisfactory. In the case of Athens, the priority is completion of the plant for secondary treatment.

With regard to the sector of collection, treatment and disposal of solid waste, regular refuse collection service to the urban population is adequate. Nevertheless, problems in organisation and

^{*} A very important exception to this is the spectacular reduction of pollution due to sulphur dioxide and lead which was achieved through improvement of home heating and automobile fuels, a policy pursued already from the end of the 70s

^{**} Many of the data referred to below have not been taken from published sources, but have been produced by the competent Directorate of the Environment of the Ministry of the Environment, Planning and Public Works. Those referring to local government have been produced by the competent authorities for environmental matters in the Ministry of the Interior.

shortcomings in collection may be noted, particularly in Athens, with a serious negative impact on the city's cleanliness, aesthetics and sanitation. Problems of cleanliness and sanitation were particularly severe up to the end of the '80s, when the use of special refuse collection receptacles was still limited. But here, too, conditions have improved significantly in recent years. Finally, implementation of recycling techniques is still quite limited at the collection stage.

The most serious problems in the management of urban waste arise in the processes of treatment and disposal. The basic method of disposal in Greece is in landfills. For the country as a whole in 1994, 50% of solid waste was disposed in sanitary landfills, 45% in open dumps and only 5% was recycled. The relevant figures for Athens are 85% in sanitary landfills, 10% in open dumps, and 5% recycled. Given the fact that solid waste production in Athens was in 1994 nearly 1.3 million tons, out of a total of 3.3 million tons in the whole country, it becomes apparent that the use of unorganised open dumps in the rest of the country is the primary method of solid waste disposal, with an obvious negative impact on health and the environment*. The problem is intensified during the summer months in areas with high concentrations of tourists and vacationers, where, apart from problems of sanitation, damage to the environment and aesthetics, conditions are also created for spontaneous combustion of refuse.

But even in the cases where use of organised dumps is predominant, as it is in Athens, in essence refuse is merely dumped and the rules of sanitary landfill, with correct protection from gases and liquid by-products (creation of a water-tight basin, removal of liquid by-products, siphoning off and burning of gases) are not abided by.

Apart from this, there has in recent years been a serious problem in Athens of local reactions to placement of the necessary new locations for dumps. It is generally the case in Greece that the small size of local government units makes it difficult to carry out rational regional planning, to correctly organise and coordinate solid waste management on the right size of regional units. In recent years, however, there has been improvement in institutional and organisational conditions for dealing with these problems, particularly after the reform of the system of local government in 1994, with the creation of obligatory associations of regional authorities in the form of Area Councils, and with the strengthening of Prefectural local government.

In contrast to ordinary solid and liquid wastes, management of toxic and dangerous wastes in general is the responsibility of national-level planning and concern for the protection of the environment. Here, too, essential protection and management measures have begun to be implemented only recently, as a result of the harmonisation of Greek legislation with EU directives, despite the fact that a relevant institutional framework existed already in 1986 (Statute 1650/86). A special law passed in 1995 imposes penalties for perpetrators of toxic waste pollution, and promotes "clean" technologies and methods of production, with limitation of the quantity and harmful properties of wastes. In Greece at present approximately 500,000 tons of dangerous industrial solid toxic wastes and sludge are produced, 50% of them in the Athens and Thessaloniki areas. Less than 25% of this quantity is recycled in the currently established way, primarily by transporting it out of the country, whereas the rest are disposed in various places**. In addition, there is a serious problem

^{*} In 1994 there were throughout the country 1.420 approved and 3,430 unauthorised waste disposal creds. To be sure, distribution in terms of weight was better 65% in approved areas and 35% in the rest.

^{**} A basic problem here is the diffusion of units responsible for toxic waste pollution; only 20 of all such units are tag factories, about 600 are small, and many are handicraft inaustries employing 3-5 persons.

regarding disposal and destruction of especially dangerous pesticides. Thus, apart from the above institutional measures, efforts are made to find sites for and build two centres for management and treatment of dangerous toxic wastes and two sites for disposal of solid wastes and sludge in the north and the south of Greece.

2.3.2 AIR AND WATER POLLUTION

As far as the environment of urban and peri-urban areas is concerned, the main problem of water pollution has to do with the treatment of urban and industrial liquid wastes. We have already referred in the previous section to the problems of this sector and ways of dealing with them, so there is no need to expand further on them here*.

Air pollution, on the contrary, constitutes a separate topic, which is in fact of particular importance to the Athens area. Because of the restricted role of industrial production in Greece, air pollution from that source is from a general standpoint relatively limited, despite the lack of environmentally suitable technologies. Pollution of this type is a very serious problem in certain zones of high industrial concentration in Athens and Thessaloniki, and in certain small towns where large power plants burn lignite.

A more significant problem for a much more extensive part of urban space is pollution caused by automobiles. In the case of Athens, this problem is exacerbated by special conditions (mainly the closed basin, changes to the microclimate due to intensive building and the great volume of traffic in unsuitable infrastructure) favourable to the creation of

photochemical smog, resulting in frequent retention and further concentration of air pollutants at levels above the minimum acceptable for public health.

The particular problem of air pollution in Athens began to take on dangerous dimensions already in the second half of the '70s. In the twenty years which have passed, a series of important measures has been taken to restrict it, such as refinement of fuel, restrictions on and improvements to traffic, assistance for replacing old automobiles with new ones, better environmental technology (unleaded petrol, catalytic converters). Despite such efforts, the problem has remained essentially just as serious or has been improved only marginally and very slowly. It is characteristic that every year between 1988 and 1992, measurements of all dangerous pollutants (SO₂, CO, NO₂, O₃, smoke) in the centre of Athens exceeded, at least once, the official warning levels.

The basic reason the problem has persisted has aiready been noted: the rapid increase in numbers of automobiles, trucks and motorcycles during the last 20 years and the consequent increase in the volume and problems of traffic in an urban structure hardly suitable to receive such pressures. In parallel, despite technological improvements in fuel and motors, almost 50% of private cars continued up to 1992 to emit pollutants over the permissible limits**. Given the pressure exercised by the increase in passenger-car traffic and problems of congestion, policy in recent years has been focused on two basic objectives: improving the system of traffic and parking to achieve better flow and therefore better use of fuel, and increasing use of public means of transport. These measures, in combination with the

^{*} Because of this report's emphasis on urban space, we will not enter into the subjects of pollution and more generally of protection of lakes, rivers, wetlands, etc., or of the marine environment (e.g. from leaks and wastes from ships, which is a particularly serious matter in Greece).

^{**} Since 1993, a limited reduction has been observed due to increasing numbers of catalytic vehicles.

implementation of new technologies in taxis and buses and construction of the new underground railways in Athens and Thessaloniki, large peripheral arteries and moving the Athens Airport (which is by itself a basic source of pollution, as well as an important contributing factor to traffic) are hoped to significantly improve conditions before the year 2000.

2.3.3 ENVIRONMENTAL PROBLEMS OF RESIDENTIAL STRUCTURE AND DEVELOPMENT OF CITIES

Up to 1980, the serious environmental problems of the two largest Greek cities, Athens and Thessaloniki. were the result of their rapid growth in population and area in conditions of restricted economic resources and lack of effective controls and planning. After the second half of the '70s, the model of urban development underwent a radical change: population remained virtually stable, while spatial development has been restricted on the one hand to certain relatively limited tendencies for suburbanisation, but primarily to the development of areas of second and vacation homes in the wider urban fringe area. Current residential structure and growth in the two large cities presents two sets of environmental problems. One consists of the problems handed down from the intensive development of the first decades after the Second World War, and the second is associated with the form of urbanisation of peri-urban space.

Despite stagnation of the population and suburbanisation trends, the situation in the central zones of Athens and Thessaloniki continued up to the end of the '80s to be characterised by extremely high densities of population, activities and traffic volume.

This is due to the dense construction of dwellings with high ratios of floor area to land in a network of narrow streets, and retention of concentration of activities in central areas. To be sure, these conditions create vigorous areas with intense activity and a mix of uses, which avoid the problems of decaying city centres in other large cities. At the same time, however, they cause severe environmental problems which seriously downgrade the quality of life of a large part of the population*. These problems extend to a very broad residential zone in and around the city centre. Thus, over 50% of households in Athens live in greas where the building-to-land ratio is over 2.5**, over 33% in areas where the average number of dwellings per parking space is over 2.3, and over 25% in neighbourhoods where over 20% of streets have heavy traffic (over 500 vehicles per hour). It is characteristic that in the two central municipalities of Athens and Piraeus the average number of dwellings per parking space is 2.9 without calculating the extra burden of visitors' cars. Finally, the available percentage of organised parks is for the majority of rieighbourhoods virtually negligible: over 66% of households in the city as a whole live in areas with less than 2% park land, whereas the overall weighted mean is less than 5%***,

These conditions of high densities or residence, activities and traffic certainly have a great negative impact on households' living an ronment: characteristically, it may be mentioned that 37% of all households in Athens regard the name conditions from outside the home and from negation and homes to be bad, and 65% regard them as a seminared, given the lack of free space and the name of narrow

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^{*} In particular, note should be made of the serious problem of urban noise. It is calculated that 60% of the lives in unacceptable conditions of noise, caused primarily by automobiles and motorcycles, many of an onise (5% of automobiles and 30% of motorcycles).

^{- ^} of Athens □ egal levels

^{**} Equivalent in current Greek residential conditions with gross densities of the order of 600-700 persons

^{***} All data in this section are taken from the 1988-89 DEPOS sampling survey (DEPOS, 1989 and unput

streets with large traffic loads, is the fact that in the Athens urban agglomeration over 36% of households live on the ground floor or on other lower floors of apartment buildings. This percentage is, of course, much greater in central, high-density areas.

As a consequence of these problems, in recent years city-planning and environmental policy have been turned with increasing emphasis towards measures and proposals aimed at gradually improving conditions in central zones. But, given the fact that the economic dimensions of the problem are particularly forbidding. progress has been relatively limited; it is implemented primarily through works to provide sidewalks, improve areas for public use and exercise control over uses and traffic in selected areas, with particular emphasis on the most important residential units of historic city centres. Up to now, a significant inhibiting factor in this sector has been the lack of an appropriate institutional framework and the social and economic policy which would permit interventions in property and provision of incentives, compensation and subsidies, all of which are prerequisites for extensive works to renew and upgrade urban areas. The creation of such a framework and the necessary relevant organisational infrastructure will be a basic priority for city-planning policy in the years to come.

As was discussed in a previous chapter, the structure of peri-urban development in large cities and particularly in Athens displays distinct problems from the point of view of an environmentally correct and sustainable use of resources. Negative effects are concentrated mainly in overconsumption of land and other environmental resources of particular significance, and in the high cost of meeting needs for settlements, vacation and daily recreation for the present and future generations. Other negative impacts on important resources such as forests and farm land seem, at least up to the present and taken as a whole, to be relatively limited. Thus, in the rest of Attica the decrease in forested areas and farm land

between 1981 and 1991 was -3% and -3% respectively. In the Messogia and the north peri-urban zone where development is exerting greater pressures, there was a similar decrease in forests (-2.6%), but a greater decrease in farm land (-11%): this was not, however, cause for concern in relation to modern trends in primary production. The increase in residential land to date appears to have brought about mainly a loss of grazing-land reserves.

The above overall trends in general uses of land, however, conceal certain serious negative ecological impacts on areas where residential demand is concentrated. The most obvious is the increase during the last 20 years in the number of fires, both in Attica and in the country as a whole. Thus, whereas up to 1976 fires in forests, partially forested areas and grazing land in the country as a whole were of the order of 500-700 each year and on average were relatively small in size (e.g., about 48 acres per fire in 1970-72). in the period from 1977 to 1992 there were over 1000 a year, with an average size of between 75 and 125 acres per fire. There does not appear to have been any important upward trend in total fires in partially forested land, grazing land, etc. during this period. On the contrary, unfortunately, fires in forested land exclusively show a clear, strong upward trend: during the 15 years from 1978 to 1992, the linear trend of the number of forest fires to increase has doubled, from the level of 300 fires in 1978 to 650 in 1992. In addition, the average size of forest fires shows a weak but upward trend. These negative trends which are by inference associated with pressures from unorganised urbanisation, do not merely mean the ioss of an important natural resource together with its ecological subsystems, but a serious degradation of the broader system of land, water and climate of the settlements in the respective areas.

City-planning and environmental policy in the !ast 15 years has promoted, at an ever faster pace, measures to prevent these problems, centred around restriction

of unauthorised building, control of subdivision and building outside the town plan, and uses of land, through "zones of development control"*, and, finally, the introduction of a stricter institutional framework of prerequisites (studies of impacts, feasibility, etc.), disincentives and penalties.

Despite these efforts, however, the basic problems of unorganised, scattered residential development, in combination with overexploitation of land, remain. These are problems which may be reduced to the peculiarities of a structural nature of the system of ownership of land and the economy of residential development. These problems have been aggravated in the past by the systematic negative attitude of the state to needs for settlements to expand into new areas which have not yet been built up. On the contrary, in recent years a trend has emerged where settlement policy has turned towards controlled and planned approval of new planned developments. But the transition to an essentially more rational and ecologically sustainable manner of development of cities and tourist and resort areas will clearly demand more radical changes, to land policy and to the urban institutional framework on the one hand, and to the attitudes and values of residents on the other.

2.4 LOCAL GOVERNMENT OF URBAN AREAS

2.4.0 INTRODUCTORY REMARKS: THE GREEK SYSTEM OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT

In Greece, local government of urban areas is based on a system which combines relatively small units of local government (Municipalities and Communes) and broader regional units of government administration (Prefectures, Regions). Recently (1994) prefectural government was established (elected Prefects and prefectural councils), while at the same time

government powers and competencies were reinforced on the level directly above, i.e. that of the region. In parallel, local services may be provided by semi-autonomous bodies in the form of enterprises of the private-economic type (e.g. for water supply and sewerage), or in the form of foundations (for social or cultural services). These bodies report either to the local government organisations or to the respective Prefectures. In the case of Athens, the most significant bodies of this type report directly to the competent government Ministries.

This complex system creates difficult problems of defining a cohesive and comparable concept of the sector of local/urban government in an international context. The definition of the agencies and functions of "local government" is based on two different meanings of the term "local", one of a rather limited size with regard to territory and population, and one of a set of functions of a "local character". In addition, in the case of large cities, the term "metropolitan" government has been established; it drastically extends the limits of the geographic and functional definition of "local". As a result, neither meaning is defined internationally in only one, generally accepted way. On the confrary, they depend strongly on the specific institutions and history and the administrative and political context.

According to the way the term "local government" is usually understood in Greece, provision of government services at the local level is based on Local Government Organisations (Municipalities and Communes). Nevertheless, a broad spectrum of government services of a local nature are provided, as we have already noted, by regional organs of the State, the Prefectures, which, from another point of view, can also be regarded as elements of "local government". This is of particular importance in the

^{*} Based on the town-planning law 1337/83 and Law 1650/86 on protection of the environment.

case of government of a "metropolitan" area such as the region of the capital, where there are many Municipalities and Communes relatively small in size, and many functions are carried out by the prefectural administration (four Prefectures), by the central administration, or by semi-autonomous bodies reporting to these higher levels of government.

The problems of definition which have arisen were further complicated after 1994, when the second degree of government was realised through legislation and elections of elected authorities on the prefectural level and the transfer of important competencies and responsibilities to them. This process, however, has not been completed, and at any rate the relevant economic and functional data which would permit a clear estimation of the size and role of this new level have not been created.

For all these reasons, the "local government" sector, with which we will deal in the following section will refer mainly to the units of local government (Municipalities and Communes). Alongside this, when required, we will also refer to the role of the other agencies and levels, particularly for the cases where especially serious questions of coordination and planning are posed, as in the case of Athens.

2.4.1 PROBLEMS OF ORGANISATION, COORDINATION AND PLANNING

In 1991, Greece was divided administratively into 13 regions for planning (which were upgraded to decentralised administrative units in 1994), into 51 prefectures, 147 eparchies, and into 5,921 local government organisations, of which 361 are Municipalities (units with over 10,000 population or capitals of prefectures), and 5,560 Communes. The average population per local government unit was, at the time of the 1991 census, 1,733. The nation's capital (Greater Athens Area) is divided into 59 local

government organisations (of which 55 are Municipalities) with an average population per local government unit of 52,000. In addition, the Greater Athens Area is divided among four special prefectures into which the larger Attica Prefecture is divided. Apart from the Greater Athens Area, Attica Prefecture includes 91 local government organisations (26 Municipalities and 65 Communes). Thus, Attica, taken as the broader region of the capital (it constitutes, moreover, one of the country's 13 regions), is broken down into 150 units of "local government», of which 109 are in the mainland part. It is also divided into four regional administrative units. and for certain purposes into an additional special «metropolitan» unit, the Greater Athens Area. The second-largest Greek city, the Greater Thessaloniki Area, consists of 15 local government organisations, and, taken as a much more extensive regional unit (the Eparchy of Thessaloniki) it comprises 70 local government organisations.

In the case of Athens, this administrative fragmentation is augmented by the increased role played by the services of central administration, the existence of special organisations or companies for water supply, sewerage, and transport, which report to the competent government Ministries, as well as by the special Regulatory Plan Organisation, which reports directly to the Ministry of the Environment, Planning and Public Works. The Organisation has taken up a significant part of city-planning activities in Attica which in other Greek cities is normally carried out by local government.

This structure of local government and the small size of most local government organisations create obvious problems of coordination and planning with regard to matters which require a multisectoral approach or treatment on a broader regional planning level and where there are significant scale economies from the provision of services or the implementation of technologies in larger areas or

population sizes than the sizes of existing local government organisations. Needless to say, these problems are particularly serious in a modern metropolitan complex like Athens. Institutional machinery and collaboration strategies which seek to resolve these problems in Greece are the followina:

- Creation of development associations of groups of neighbouring local government organisations
- Support for the institution of Regional Councils (which by 1994 legislation have been made mandatory)
- Support for the role of local leagues of municipalities and communes
- Support for government at prefectural level
- Use of ad hoc organs for cooperation between different ministries and representatives of the local government organisations concerned or of the local league of local government organisations
- Regional regulatory plans and local master plans
- De facto or de jure coordinating function of policies, directives and programmes by the European Union and by the relevant Greek regional programmes, particularly for the two Community Support Frameworks (1988-1997)

Despite the significant positive contribution of these mechanisms, there are sectors where coordination and achievement of more widely accepted decisions on the regional planning level is either extremely difficult, or is not sought for at all, or, finally, is based on the centralised exercise of power by the upper echelons of government. To a great degree the problems are also exacerbated by the restricted coordination of central government services and autonomous special bodies, by the general lack of procedures for real multisectoral planning, and by the retention of a centralised system of administration, particularly in the case of Athens, where national-level political bodies are the rule. Finally, the objectives and powers given to the institutions of regulatory and

regional planning are of limited scope, resulting in their inability to function as a pole for coordination and planning for all the local bodies and interestgroups involved.

It is obvious that the improvements in basic policy sectors pointed out in the preceding sections of this report as being necessary, will in the years to come require more effective and less centralised schemes of organisation and coordination of the system of local government of urban centres. This will become even more necessary if at the same time the desirable procedures aimed at a more fundamental decentralisation and an increase in social and political participation are promoted, procedures which are also reinforced by the organisational models put forward by EU programmes (participation of the social partners, collaborations between bodies, participation of local groups).

2.4.2 DECENTRALISATION, LOCAL AUTONOMY AND SOCIAL PARTICIPATION

Local government in Greece, seen from an international comparative viewpoint, cannot but be regarded as an institution whose role, competencies and authority are extremely limited, and whose autonomy is also relatively restricted. In 1990 the total income of Greece's Municipalities and Communes was less than 5% of the income of the national budget. Of this income, almost 50% was resources provided by the state. In relation to the population served by local government organisations, their income for the three years from 1989 to 1991 did not exceed Drs.33,000 per capita per annum (approximately US\$205 in 1993 prices). The relevant average figure for the Athens (Greater Athens Area) local government organisations was Drs.28,600 per capita. This is due to the even more restricted role of local government organisations in Athens, because of the autonomous bodies in operation for a series of important sectors (water supply, sewerage, urban

transport, school buildings) under direct control of central administration*.

The main reason for this limited role are limited competencies. Of them, the most important are water supply, sewerage, construction and maintenance of local roads, construction and maintenance of school buildings, waste management and urban clean-up. partial (local) provision of spaces and services with regard to recreation, sports and culture, provision of primary health and welfare services, city planning on the local level, control and organisation of the system of traffic and parking, cemeteries, control and provision of shopkeepers' permits, and, finally, management of public spaces**. Within this framework, defined in most sectors within rather flexible limits, local government organisations can develop important activities beyond minimum requirements. In reality, however, their limited economic resources, small size and typical inability or unwillingness to impose local taxes drastically restrict the potential for autonomous extensive development of new activities. A serious restraining influence was exerted in the past by the often stifling government bureaucratic controls. However, the importance of this negative factor has been reduced.

During the last 20 years, and in particular after the mid-'80s, important institutional changes have taken place which have strengthened the role and potential of local government and have achieved significant decentralisation of functions and competencies. The above list of basic competencies is to a great extent the product of these reforms. In addition, development of entrepreneurial activities on the part of local

government organisations was made possible, and creation of local government development associations supported. Nevertheless, in recent years a turn in decentralisation policy has come about, towards strengthening broader territorial units instead of laying the emphasis exclusively on reinforcement of the role of local government organisations. Recently (1994) prefectural government was established (elected Prefects and prefectural councils), while in parallel government powers and competencies were reinforced on the level immediately above, i.e. regional level. By the same laws (2218 and 2240 of 1994) the Area Councils were strengthened and made mandatory for territorial units of more than one local government organisation***. Thus, priorities of decentralisation policy are currently focused on the one hand on strengthening the new institution of prefectural government and on the other on reinforcing and improving the efficiency of the spectrum of local government organisation competencies and functions already in existence.

The basic goals of decentralisation policy and reinforcement of local government organisations during the '80s were the utilisation of the local potential for development and the expansion of democratic institutions. In this framework, local government and institutions such as local associations of local governments and prefectural councils (until 1994 with representatives of local government organisations and social agencies) have been established in Greece as the basic mechanisms for social participation at the local government level. This, in combination with the limited potential of the local government organisations to provide services and resolve problems in basic social

^{*} All economic measures are based on calculations from published and unpublished data of the NSSG (Statistical bulletins «income and Expenditure of Municipalities and Communes») and national accounts data.

^{**} See Municipal and Community Code, 1989, and Article 41 of Law 2218/94.

^{***} It should be mentioned that during all these years of efforts to modernise the system of local government, voluntary mergers of small local government units has also been promoted, but to date with very limited success.

and economic sectors, has reinforced the role of the local governments as militant representatives of the interests of the local population and as a special type of pressure group of central power. Although to a large degree these developments have been positive ones, they have contributed to the fact that local government organisations have taken the place of public participation and autonomous local social organisations, as well as to the complete overshadowing of the question of social participation, and this in a sector where the Greek political and administrative system as well as the society itself display radical weaknesses and institutional gaps*.

There are significant trends in Greece and particularly in the EU which show that the demand for more active participation of citizens and local groups, and for establishment of the rights of participation and control of local actions, will constitute a basic element of local policy during the years to come. From this point of view, the efforts to decentralise and strengthen local autonomy and local democracy should be revised and enriched so that they place greater importance on the participatory dimension of local institutions.

2.4.3 PROBLEMS OF FINANCING, MANAGEMENT AND MODERNISATION

As has already been pointed out, the income (and therefore expenditure) of local government organisations in Greece is exceptionally limited, in relation to the needs of the population and in comparison with the economic size of central government. Characteristically, it may be mentioned that in 1990 local government organisation spending corresponded to only 4.3% of National Budget expenditure and 12% of expenditure in the sector of public entities. In addition, almost 50% of local government organisation income is created by transfer of funds from the government. Breakdown of income in the local government sector between 1989 and 1991 is shown more analytically in the table below.

Beyond the determining role of central government, the structure of local government organisation income presents two additional significant problems. First, loan financing is particularly limited, as, more importantly, is financing in longer-term forms such as bonds or bonded loans. Second, the role of local taxes is virtually negligible**. To be sure, a part of the rates and levies account is essentially made up of special taxes on local economic activities. But, be that as it may, the relative but also the absolute measure of taxes is very limited. It has often been pointed out that enlarging income from taxes, either by transferring existing taxes or a share of their income to local governments, or by introducing new faxes (especially property taxes, which are almost completely lacking in Greece), is a necessary precondition for autonomous development of activities by the local government organisations and increase of their role in society. To date, however, even when efforts were made to impose new taxes,

^{*} There are virtually no modern institutions in Greece for active participation and intervention of the public and local organisations in decisions and programmes at the local or regional level, whether they are made by central or prefectural services or by local government organisations. The only relevant official efforts to institutionalise neighbourhood councils (1983) or district councils (1985) by law were unsuccessful. The subject of the weaknesses of Greek society in the sector of autonomous participation and action by the public and local organisations, in comparison with other European societies, is especially complex, as it is bound up with the role of the family and kinship and parochial networks, other informal types of mobilisation, and the role of the parties and political patronage, and cannot be examined here.

^{**} Indeed, a large part of the "taxes" account is composed of inflows which, according to the Habitat II Urban Indicators Programme guidelines, should be entered under "user charges".

especially property taxes (such as "Real Estate Tax"), the income produced was very limited.

Sources	of Local	Government	Income,	1989-91
(averaa	e percen	taaes)		

Taxes	4.7%
Rates, levies and service charges	26.9%
Other own-source income	
(revenue, sales, etc.)	4.6%
Transfers from government	47.9%
Loans	5.3%
Other income (donations & inheritances,	
balance from previous year)	10.4%
	Rates, levies and service charges Other own-source income (revenue, sales, etc.) Transfers from government Loans Other income (donations & inheritances,

Notes: Municipalities and Communes, for the country as a whole. Average weighted figures for the years 1989-91, calculated to include inflation; base year 1990. Calculations based on data from the National Statistical Service and the Ministry of the Interior. For the quantitative data of this part of the report, see also the relevant section in the Greek report on the Habitat II Urban Indicators Programme.

In the expenditures sector, the most important expenditures account is that of wages, pensions, etc. for local government organisation staff: its percentage of total expenditure during the three years from 1989 to 1991 amounted to 41.9% for local government organisations in the country as a whole, and 46.5% for the Greater Athens Area. Compared to the share of wages, etc. in the National Government Budget, which was 20.3% in 1990, this percentages seems relatively high. In addition, the number of persons employed by local government organisations also seems relatively high. Thus, in 1994 we had 4.3 local government employees per 1000 population for the country as a whole, and 5.4 for the Attica Prefecture (despite the smaller per capita income of its local government organisations). By comparison, total number of employees of government Ministries in 1991 was almost 21 per 1000 population, i.e. over five times the figure for local government organisations, compared to a budgetary level that was about 23 times higher.

In contrast to the government sector, the local government sector displays relatively high rates of expenditure on capital investment, and very low rates of transfer payments to individuals, organisations, institutions, etc. For the country as a whole in 1989-91, capital investment as a percentage of local government expenditure was 32.8%, whereas transfer payments were of the order of 7%. In the capital, the relevant figures were 18.4% and 12.5%: this difference from the rest of the country reflects the restricted role of local government organisations in Athens in infrastructure sectors which require high capital investments, and it explains to a degree the relatively increased role of employment in local services. The difference between the capital and the rest of the country can be seen even more sharply in the measure of annual investment per capita: the average for the 1989-1990 period was, in 1990 prices, Drs.4,908 for the Greater Athens Area, and Drs.7.892 for the country as a whole (US\$92.50 and 147.70 in 1993).

These absolute measures do indeed show very restricted amounts of investment. But this problem is not limited to local government organisations only, given the fact that, for the public sector as a whole, fixed capital investment remained at very low levels after the introduction of austerity policies in 1986. Thus, the share of investment in the total government budget fell from 14.4% in 1986 to 6.1% in 1992. Local government organisation investment showed less negative trends, and thus their share in public sector investment increased from 1-12% in the period from 1986-88°, to over 15% in 1991. For the period after 1990, however, trends in the investment sector are more positive, mainly thanks to the Community Support Framework.

The overall picture of local government financing and expenditure presented by the above data indicates that the difficulties in developing the role of local government, particularly in capital-intensive sectors such as that of housing, are due to very basic structural limitations, on available economic resources on the

one hand, and on the relationship of the local government sector with the rest of the public sector on the other. As a result, quantitative objectives in this sector, given the particularly low current levels of activity, can only be limited and realistic.

In this restrictive framework, of particular importance is the optimum exploitation of available resources and opportunities provided by EU assistance and programmes, along with the use of modern methods of organisation and management. Another, equally important, need is for utilisation of collaborations with the private sector and with local social agencies and groups. Despite the relative upgrading, however, of the role of local government organisations in recent decades, and the appearance of new competencies and initiatives, there are still serious problems of

modernisation and efficient management. These problems are especially noted in sectors which require specialised staff, modern economic management and new forms of organisation. Basic tools for improving conditions in those sectors were in the past decade the creation of autonomous bodies of the private economic type by local government organisations, the collaboration with the private sector in some fields (studies, construction works, parking management, etc.), the introduction of computerisation, and, finally education and retraining programmes with the aid of European resources. All these sectors of efforts to modernise local government continue to be of top priority. On the contrary, privatisation in its pure forms and collaborations with private entrepreneurial and social bodies have had limited application to date and do not appear to be of top priority.

3

SUMMARY: PROBLEMS AND PRIORITIES

3.1 SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

- 3.1.1 During the last decade, the course of the Greek economy has been determined to a great extent by the efforts to achieve monetarv and financial stabilisation in order to ensure the structural prerequisites for economic convergence with the European Union. As a result, available income for the majority of the population, along with expenditures of a social nature, have developed at a limited pace, while at the same time private investments which would have permitted both a necessary modernisation and reorganisation of the Greek economy and a decrease in unemployment, which was relatively high, remained at low levels. Therefore, a basic priority for the five years up to the year 2000 will be the success of the stabilisation programme and transition to a phase of higher rates of development, higher levels of social expenditures and income support for the middle and lower social strata.
- 3.1.2 The importance of the need for transition to a phase of faster development and redistribution policy is reinforced by the data on trends in the distribution of income and the extent of poverty. According to all the indications, the extent of relative poverty and inequality of distribution in family consumption

- and incomes, which is indeed unfavourable in comparison to data for Europe, has remained stable or even become relatively worse over the last 15 years. Contributing to these negative trends were certain demographic and social changes such the increasing percentage of households with elderly members.
- 3.1.3 In contrast to many developed countries, Greece has not over the last 15 years pursued a policy of reduction in government spending in the basic sectors of social infrastructure such as health, welfare and education. To be sure. one basic reason for this was the serious deficiencies in those sectors in the period up to 1980. Thus, with regard to material infrastructure indicators (rooms, beds, etc.) significant progress has been made and satisfactory levels of coverage have been achieved, with the exception of certain sectors of social welfare. The basic problems and priorities in these infrastructure sectors will be focused in the coming years on quantitative improvement and qualitative upgrading to modern technical equipment, specialised staff and methods of organisation and operation. Also of top priority is the reorganisation and modernisation of the system of social welfare, which had begun already from the mid-'80s, in the direction of revising the traditional philanthropic, institutional approach, and

providing increased care for groups with special needs.

3.1.4 In comparison to the situation worldwide, cities in Greece do not display significant problems of social cohesion, nor do they show symptoms of social disorganisation such as high crime rates. There are, however, many signs and trends which indicate: that these social sectors and problems must become the object of policies of increased priority. After the mid-'80s, crime statistics began to show strong upward trends. Despite some reservations with regard to this type of data (which may be due to changes in methods of policing or record-keeping), this may very well indicate that a serious problem is developing. On the level of social cohesion, the increase in inflow of immigrants and refugees from countries of the Third World and Eastern Europe also demands that the matter be dealt with in relation. to incorporation in the urban space and the labour market.

3.2 INFRASTRUCTURE - TRANSPORT - COMMUNICATIONS

3.2.1 ■ As concerns connection with a network supplying drinking water of good quality, the needs of Greek cities are now almost completely met, but there are still deficiencies with regard to sewerage networks, mainly in small settlements. Here problems are of two types: first, in the large urban centres water supply networks and part of the sewerage networks are to a great extent in a state of disrepair, seriously deteriorated and leaking; second, the networks of rainwater sewers are inadequate (especially in the Greater Athens Area) resulting in serious flooding problem when rains are heavy. Consequently, the priorities in these sectors are improvement and better maintenance of networks, as well as more extensive works to protect against flooding. In

contrast, in smaller settlements there is still a pressing need to enlarge drainage networks, and to exercise better control of the quality of drinking water.

- 3.2.2 In the water supply sector, many areas in Greece, including the two major cities, have in recent years had to deal with a seasonal problem of scarcity of available water resources. This problem appears to have been caused mainly by a specific conjuncture of climatic conditions in recent years, and, in view of the fact that important works are currently being carried out to ensure the large urban centres of a water supply on a long-term basis, it seems that there will not be any serious danger of a future water shortage. Nevertheless, there is a serious question of rational management of available water resources. In addition, a significant number of settlements in the insular ecological subsystem displays a permanent problem of seasonal scarcity of water, which is exacerbated by the great burden placed on networks by tourist traffic. As a result, this sector must be the object of long-term planning of greater priority on the basis of the principles of sustainable development.
- 3.2.3 A somewhat similar problem of seasonal overloading is presented by the power-supply network which otherwise completely meets the needs of the population. Problems of network overload and serious danger of power cuts arise during the summer (due to use of air conditioners and increased numbers of users due to tourism) and during the winter when the weather is very cold.
- 3.2.4 In the sector of communications and transport in urban areas, one significant problem is the reduced share of means of mass transport and, as a result of this, the unfavourable impact

on the environment and on traffic conditions of the rapid increase in numbers of vehicles and the large percentage of private cars in use on road networks not fully capable of bearing such loads or providing parking space for so many cars. In addition, a serious problem is also noted in the relatively long time taken by an average work trip in Athens, despite the fact that this is a city with high residential density and a large mixture of uses. High-priority measures in this sector are: first, improvement of traffic flow through construction of flyover intersections and peripheral axes, with the basic objective of facilitating and increasing the role of public means of transport, and, second, the rapid completion of the new underground railway network in Athèns.

3.2.5 ■ Public investments for improvement, enlargement and renewal of the road network in large urban centres were relatively limited during the 1980s, despite the traffic problems noted above and the more general problem of poor quality and inadequate maintenance of the network. In contrast, for the five years up to 2000, important works are projected to improve the network in Athens aided by resources from the European Union.

3.3 ENVIRONMENT

3.3.1 Until recently facilities for treatment of urban liquid waste were extremely limited in Greece, resulting in extensive water pollution in the periurban area. However, in recent years a large number of biological purification plants have been built, the most important being the system of primary biological purification for Athens' liquid wastes. Priorities in this sector are completion of the network of waste treatment plants and promotion of secondary purification works for large urban centres.

- 3.3.2 Until recently, there were also serious gaps in the policy of protection and infrastructure, as well as in the system of management and control of toxic wastes. The basic priority today is completion of the system of installations to treat and dispose of toxic wastes, and of the institutional framework of controls and penalties which was recently created through application of the relative EU directives.
- 3.3.3 As concerns the sector of urban solid wastes. in principle, the existing system of collection and disposal adequately covers the needs of the population However, in a large part of urban areas, significant problems of collection are noted, with negative effects on cleanliness and sanitation in the urban environment; the main problem, however, lies in waste disposal. First, only a minimal percentage of wastes are recycled, Second, the prevailing system of sanitary landfills'is not properly implemented, resulting in a large number of cases where refuse is freely discarded in open dumps. Even in organised dumps, sanitary landfill rules are not properly observed, resulting in air and subsoil pollution. In addition, the existence of many small units of local government is an obstacle in the path of rational organisation of waste management. Priorities in this sector are, first, better regional planning organisation and an ecologically sound treatment of disposal in organised sanitary landfills; second, promotion of recycling; third, better organisation of collection and transport of wastes.
- 3.3.4 Apart from the above, Greece's large urban centres, and Athens in particular, face the following serious environmental problems:
 - a) Heavy air pollution. A particularly serious problem is Athens' photochemical smog, which

is due mainly to overloading and malfunctioning of the system of automobile traffic.

- b) Poor-quality residential environment, particularly in central areas, due to high building density, lack of urban park land, traffic congestion, noise and presence of inappropriate uses.
- c) Negative environmental effects and nonrational consumption of natural and man-made resources in the peri-urban area, particularly on shorelines and in forests, due to disorderly, scattered development of settlements, legal and illegal, mainly of vacation homes. A basic problem here are the frequent, extensive fires in peri-urban forests which have been displaying disturbing tendencies to increase during the past 20 years.

The above problems are being dealt with through policies of a long-term nature which give priority to three elements: first, to improvement of the system of traffic in city centres, and improvement in vehicle functioning; second, to gradual remodelling and environmental improvement of central areas; third, to more effective control and better planning organisation of the peri-urban area on the basis of the principles of sustainable development.

3.4 HOUSING: CONDITIONS OF COST AND AFFORDABILITY

3.4.1 In Greece, the relationship between mean family income and mean price or mean rent of a house on the existing market does not appear to present a particular problem in comparison with other developed countries. The problem here lies in the fact that, first, the mean house available in the existing stock is of poor quality, and, second, that the cost of new

housing is inordinately high in relation to mean incomes. As a result, there is a significant problem of cost and affordability of qualitatively satisfactory new houses offered, which indicates a problem of lack of innovative solutions for cheaper modern housing.

- 3.4.2 In relation to its level of economic development, Greece presents relatively satisfactory average housing indicators (persons per room), while at the same time it shows one of the highest ratios of owner-occupation. This situation, satisfactory at first sight, conceals two serious problems. First, there is a significant problem of social distribution with regard to housing conditions, in the sense that a very significant part of the population lives in dwellings with serious lack of space. Second, easy access to home ownership is based primarily on help from the family. As a consequence, for a large portion of the population lacking adequate income, resources in the form of property, and assistance from the family, there is a very serious problem of access to adequate housing conditions. In parallel, in the sector of home ownership, too, there are significant problems of poor quality of shelter and inadequacy of basic facilities for certain social groups, such as, primarily, the elderly and rural households.
- 3.4.3 The problem of cost of shelter was until now particularly severe with regard to the factor of housing credit. Real, and in particular nominal interest rates (due to the high rate of inflation) have been very high during the last 15 years in Greece. Additional costs due to bank and tax charges were also high. In the last few years, however, the fall in the inflation rate to one-digit figures and the increase in competitiveness in the credit system have brought about a relative reduction in the cost of borrowing for acquisition of housing.

- 3.4.4 The above problems are aggravated in Greece by the socially unequal functioning of the system of housing subsidies. The system is based mainly on tax exemptions for home owners, purchasers of first homes and borrowers, and as a result mainly favours higher incomes and the sector of owner-occupation. In contrast, the rental sector enjoys virtually no subsidies, and there is, with few exceptions, no direct social housing assistance of the welfare type for the lowest income groups, nor are there any mechanisms for welfare, shelter and social integration for the special groups with additional problems (the homeless, refugees, immigrants, unemployed youth, etc.).
- 3.4.5 According to what has been noted above, the priorities for housing policy in the relevant sectors are the following: first, reform of the system of subsidies aimed at a fairer social distribution, support for the rental sector and problematic cases of owner-occupation, and finally creation of an adequate "safety net" of welfare protection for cases of special housing need; and second, support for innovative efforts to reduce the cost of new housing.

3.5 HOUSING: SUPPLY CONDITIONS

3.5.1 During the post-war period up to 1980, Greece showed a particularly high level of investment in housing, in contrast, during the last 15 years, the average levels of investment has been relatively lower. Despite this reduction, the level of supply of housing as a whole may be considered to be adequate, and this observation is reinforced by the absence of problems in the market, such as particular high rents or a severe lack of vacant houses. But it should be borne in mind that the level of investments in housing in the case of Greece is strongly influenced by the high demand for vacation homes for the local as

- well as the international market. As a consequence, the actual *net* supply of new housing for local demand for primary shelter is less than that indicated by statistical data.
- 3.5.2 Despite what at first sight seems to be an adequate overall supply of housing capital, two significant problems may be pointed out in this sector. First, the accumulation of housing capital is insufficient in relation to the needs for improvement of conditions for middle- and low-income groups. Second, the structure of accumulation of housing capital is such that it does not meet the need for modernisation and remodelling of old housing in city centres.
- 3.5.3 Financing of investments in housing in Greece continues to be based primarily on personal savings. To be sure, this has its positive elements, but nevertheless the very small degree of financing through housing credit (under 20% of investments) must certainly be seen as problematic. The problem of limited availability of housing loans is reinforced, too, by the problem of lack of healthy long-term financing resources for the agencies of housing credit.
- 3.5.4 As concerns the factor of urban land in the process of creating housing capital, conditions in Greek cities present contradictory features. On the one hand, there is a lack of land itself, and its cost is relatively high due to an established restrictive policy of urban expansion and to the entrenched expectations of profits by a plethora of small owners. On the other hand, the statutorily imposed cost of infrastructure works for new housing developments is very low it sets no technical restrictions on development resulting in relative ease of increasing the supply at and.
- 3.5.5 There are three policy priorities in these sectors: first, to increase the credit systems supply

potential; second, enlargement of the sector of modernisation and remodelling of older stock, particularly in central zones; third, increase, in a rationally planned manner, of supply of properly equipped land for housing on urban fringes.

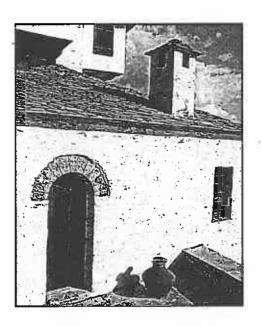
3.6 LOCAL GOVERNMENT

3.6.1 ■ Local government in urban areas in Greece is based on a system which combines relatively small units of local government (Municipalities and Communes) with broader regional units of government administration (Prefectures, Regions), Recently (1994) prefectural government (elected prefects and prefectural councils) was established, and at the same time government powers and competencies were strengthened at the level directly above, i.e. that of the region. Taken as a whole, this reform, together with a series of other changes which have taken place since the mid-'80s, have brought about significant administrative decentralisation on the regional and local levels. Despite these more general trends, however, local government organisations continue to have limited functions and competencies and very limited finances, together with low income and significant dependence upon state subsidies. These weaknesses are agaravated by their particularly small size, which does not permit a rational regional planning treatment of problems or provision of services. For that reason, collaboration between local government organisations and the creation of Area Councils has been supported institutionally. Moreover, recent reforms have created new objectives of political decentralisation, for strengthening broader spatial units, in parallel with upgrading the role of the local government organisations. Thus, the priorities of decentralisation policy today are concentrated on the one hand on reinforcing the newlycreated institution of prefectural government, and on the other on enhancing and improving the efficiency of the already existing, relatively limited spectrum of competencies and functions of local government organisations.

- 3.6.2 The problems of coordination and planning which arise from this structure of local government are particularly severe in the two biggest cities, Athens and Thessaloniki, where there is a large number of local government organisations, as well as a plethora of governmental or semi-governmental special-purpose organisations in the sectors of infrastructure and spatial and environmental management. A basic priority, therefore, in these cases is to deal with problems of coordination and planning at the metropolitan level.
- 3.6.3 Despite the relative upgrading of the role of local government organisations in recent decades and the emergence of new competencies and initiatives, there are still serious problems of modernisation and efficient management, particularly in the sectors that require specialised staff and modern economic management. The basic tools for improving conditions in those sectors have in the last decade been the creation of autonomous bodies of the private-economic type by local government organisations accaparátion with the private sector in certain sectors (studies, construction works, management of parking, etc.), introduction of complifersation, and, finally, education and retraining programmes with assistance from European resources, All these sectors which ended to the modernise local government continue to the of top priority. In contrast, "pure" privatisation is shad limited application to date, and application to be of high priority.

PART C

THE NATIONAL ACTION PLAN



THE NATIONAL ACTION PLAN FOR 1996-2000

BASIC OBJECTIVES AND PRINCIPLES OF THE NATIONAL ACTION PLAN

ACTIONS AND PROGRAMMES

ORGANISATION OF THE ACTION PLAN : AGENCIES OF IMPLEMENTATION AND COORDINATION

PROCEDURES OF MONITORING AND EVALUATION

BUILDING UP SKILLS

THE NATIONAL ACTION PLAN

THE NATIONAL ACTION PLAN FOR

The existence of a National Action Plan for Cities and Housing (NAPCH) has been judged to be necessary in the case of Greece for two basic reasons. First, action plans and programmes of projects and financing are already under way with regard to many matters of concern to the Habitat II Conference, in the context of Greece's participation in the Second Community Support Framework (CSF) of the EU (environment, infrastructure, social and economic development and cohesion), with a projected completion date up to the year 2000. Despite the fact that such programmes are already operational, with organised monitoring, data collection and evaluation agencies, they do not have the required degree of overall coordination. Second, there is no specific planning framework, and no experience of cohesive national planning in the sector of "cities and housing", which would draw the above projects and programmes together in a unified action plan. This situation has been created in part by the diffusion of relevant competencies throughout many ministries and bodies. The NAPCH aims at remedying this deficiency. The NAPCH was created for the main purpose of serving as a guiding framework for making use of the plethora of bodies active in the sector of "cities and housing" over the next five years. It is focused on the specific priorities of dealing with situations where problems have already been diagnosed.

It is believed that the NAPCH may also be useful as a basis for adding the following to the points for action of the Second CSF: housing, improvements in city planning and more effective and democratic city government, It is well known that in these sectors there are serious deficiencies regarding the policies and system of support of the EU. As a result, they have also decreased in priority and importance on the national level. Thus, the NAPCH is also expected to provide, especially to the Ministry of the Environment and the Ministry of the Interior which have undertaken the major part of its implementation, a long-term guiding framework for the continuation, on national initiative this time, of the policies and organising efforts brought into being by the Second CSF, even beyond the projected completion date of 2000.

The choice of the NAPCH document as the governing framework was judged to be expedient in order to reinforce more flexible and consensual forms of action, with the capability of dynamic adaptation to changing conditions, although the NAPCH especially seeks to achieve rational planning in the medium and the long term.

An outline of the framework of the NAPCH follows. First, its special **basic principles and objectives are defined**. Second, note is made of the general **actions** which will be promoted in order to implement the above principles and objectives in dealing with the

problems already pinpointed in the preceding analysis. Third, reference is made to the **organisation** of the plan as a whole, to its agencies of implementation, and to the procedures for coordination, monitoring and evaluating its progress, and fourth, provision is made for **measures for creating the necessary skills** to facilitate its implementation.

BASIC OBJECTIVES AND PRINCIPLES OF THE NATIONAL ACTION PLAN

The fundamental aim of the NAPCH is the fullest possible positive response of Greece to the two main objectives, which are also the topics to be discussed at the Habitat II Conference. These objectives are the creation of cities which provide safe, healthy, equal and sustainable living conditions and the guarantee of adequate housing for all.

On these questions, there are already specific positions and directives emanating from the Greek Constitution of 1975 and corresponding to widely accepted trends in present-day Greek society. Important policy axes have been developed on these same questions from the side of the European Union (e.g. the Programme for Sustainable Development). In addition, the international community has already devoted its attention to them in the course of Conferences on other matters of global importance. They have also constituted a subject of policy in other major UN action plans (Agenda 21, Global Strategy for Shelter).

In order to promote the implementation of the above main objectives, the NAPCH has accepted as being of primary importance and has taken into consideration the following **basic principles:**

a. The Natural Environment and Pollution

Recognition is made of the importance of a «clean» environment as a basic prerequisite for achieving the objectives of the Habitat II Conference. Regarded as

being of primary importance is the existence of a complete system of information on the effects of human activities in relation to land, the subsoil, surface and underground water and the air, and the establishment of a system of monitoring and control of these activities for preventing or reducing every form of pollution and disruption produced. The effective management of solid, liquid and toxic wastes involves rational spatial organisation of human activities.

b. Natural Resources and their Management

In the framework of the objectives of sustainable development of settlements, which also constitutes an objective of the Habitat II Conference, recognition is made of the decisive role of protection and rational management of consumable and especially non-renewable natural resources: the land, reserves of water, quality of the air, etc.

c. Settlements and Sustainable, Healthy and Safe Living Conditions

Settlements with rational spatial location and good urban organisation, with appropriate, complete technical and social infrastructure and correct spatial placement both nationally and internationally are the objective for every residential unit in this country. The competent authorities, at all levels of administration, should take initiatives to achieve this objective, in the most suitable manner in each case, bearing in mind the above principles. Recognition is made of the role of central administration in restricting geographic and social inequalities through economic and spatial planning policy on the national and regional levels.

d. Development of Settlements and Challenges from Current Trends in the Changing Functions of Cities, in Standards of Living and in the Behaviour of Individuals and Households

Note is made of the necessity for the suitable

adaptation of settlements and housing to the challenges created by:

- the degradation that central areas of large cities experience as a result of environmental, economic and social crisis.
- the improvement in the population's living standards and changes in lifestyle and consumption habits.
- the development of activities in the sectors of tourism, holiday-making, second homes, new forms of recreation and culture.
- social and demographic changes (new forms of households and family organisation, new relationships of youth and the elderly with the family, etc.).
- the establishment of mechanisms for expressing and recording the preferences and desires of various social and cultural groups of «consumers» in relation to housing, urban organisation and services provided. Preservation of the cultural heritage is an essential, distinct objective for every initiative for intervention and adaptation to changing conditions.

e. Access to Adequate, Suitable, Affordable Housing

Recognition is made of the importance of sufficient supply of housing and correct functioning of the market so as to ensure, on the one hand, that demand of various sectors for shelter are met, and on the other that there is shelter for all, under conditions which meet certain minimum accepted "standards" necessary for healthy living conditions and social integration, in accordance with the established cultural models of the country and of various social groups. Other aims are improvement of market conditions, through state intervention for reducing the cost of construction, increasing financing, and improving the technical quality of housing, for the protection of users, cwners and tenants, and finally for guaranteeing the right of special groups of citizens to adequate shelter

through systems of subsidies and/or direct public provision of shelter wherever required.

f. Utilisation and Development of the Potential of all Social and Economic Sectors

Recognition is made of the importance of observing the basic principles of equilibrium, of complementarity and of creation of conditions and a climate of reliability in promoting and supporting the development of the potential of the public, the private and the "third" sector of collective bodies and bodies of "social economy". The role of the first two basic sectors is complementary: the public sector takes action where there are gaps, deficiencies in meeting basic needs or problems in the functioning of the private sector, and where the matter under consideration is a public good. At the same time, emphasis is also placed on the autonomous role of local government, as well as on the various forms of voluntarism, private institutions, cooperatives, and collective bodies and organisations. The needs for assistance in developing each sector are different but demand equal attention. The current trend is to take measures to "liberate" the potential of the private sector (lifting of excessive controls and taxation, increase of competitiveness). Of equal importance, however, should be attention to the development of the potential of government or municipal bodies, wherever they perform necessary work, and of the potential of the "third" sector, the importance of which has been underestimated until now.

g. Acceptance and Application of Democratic Institutions

Recognition is made of the importance of acceptance of the rules of democratic decision-making, involvement of citizens in public affairs, either through direct or through representative participation, acceptance of the inclusion of weak or disadvantaged groups in local life, and strengthening of collaboration between local social and economic bodies. Procedures for policy-

making and implementation, on all levels of administration, that are more open, transparent and documented in an accountable manner, contribute to more general acceptance and to maintenance of a more conciliatory collective social behaviour.

h. Equality of Individuals and Groups of Citizens

This must be inherent in the opportunities provided by the country's cities and settlements for healthy, safe living conditions in adequate, suitable housing, with free development of economic, cultural and social activities.

i. Social Cohesion, Social Welfare and Social Justice

These principles are interconnected with all the preceding ones, particularly with reference to housing matters, provision of social infrastructure services and actions for revitalisation of problematic areas. The concept of social cohesion refers to the need for the integration of disadvantaged groups or groups facing conditions of social exclusion. The concept of social welfare refers to the needs to support economically weak groups and groups with special needs. Finally, the concept of social justice refers to a multiplicity of individual principles and objectives which have to do with a fairer, need-related distribution of resources and opportunities, as well as with the implementation of the rule of law in public actions. The role of the institution of the family in the above is recognised as being of particular importance in reducing problem situations. The reduction of urban poverty is considered to be a basic desirable outcome of implementation of the above principle.

j. International Cooperation

Reinforcement of international cooperation for the exchange of experiences in handling matters of development, for the creation of manpower skills and for coordination in implementing policies on the

international scale, is considered to be an important prerequisite for promotion of implementation of the objectives of the Habitat II Conference on the national level.

ACTIONS AND PROGRAMMES

On the basis of the above general goals and principles, the National Action Plan sets the framework in the following sectors for action, in order to deal with the problems and priority issues which have been noted in Part B of this Report. Of these sectors for action, the first nine refer to the first objective of cities that are safe, healthy, equal and sustainable, and the next three refer to the second objective of ensuring adequate housing for all.

a. Rational Land Use and Management, in Accordance with the Principles of Sustainability

Spatial planning is promoted for the protection of resources from exhaustion, destruction and pollution, along with their rational use, by expanding current programmes for special spatial planning studies and their institutionalisation. The objective is to define the regulatory framework for protection of vital zones of park and forest land, coastal areas, important agricultural land, water reserves, etc., along with zones for development in environmentally sensitive greas facing pressures due to tourism, urban expansion and second homes; priority is given to peri-urban and coastal areas, islands and areas with a strong cultural identity. At the same time, by implementing relevant directives issued by the EU, the administrative machinery for control of spatial location of activities which produce pollution and disruption is strengthened and expanded through the study of impacts on the environment. In addition, the regulatory framework regarding determination of the ability of the environment to withstand the burden of specific human activities is strengthened; this will facilitate a more effective control of land uses and segregation

of disruption-producing uses. A significant measure in rational land management is the promotion and completion of the first stage of the programme to create a National Land Registry over the five years from 1995 to 1999; its completion is expected to take approximately 15 years.

b. Upgrading the Urban Environment

The main emphasis in the planned actions is generally placed on adaptation of the nation's cities and settlements to new functional, social and cultural needs. Sectors for action are regulation of development in peri-urban space and control of unauthorised development through the regulatory framework of the Zones of Controlled Settlement, traffic regulations in city centres through facilitating pedestrian traffic and finding space for carparks. Another policy objective is ensuring more free space and space for public use for recreation-related functions, in densely populated inner urban zones. For this purpose, reform of the system of financing (public investment, subsidies, local taxes) for carrying out infrastructure works and securing public spaces in newly built-up areas, will come under study, the objective being to equip such areas more rapidly and meet their needs equitably. Special programmes for replacement of fixed technical infrastructure and exclusion of uses not compatible with residential areas, are aimed at environmental and functional upgrading of run-down neighbourhoods and at attracting new investments of private fixed capital expected to have positive effects with regard also to social upgrading. Participation in relevant programmes promoted through the EU for combating poverty and social exclusion in particularly problematical urban areas is encouraged. With regard to interventions to renew or upgrade the building stock and revitalise areas, an institutional and economic framework of financing, planning and management, together with assistance for works of a social nature, will be the object of study.

For the Greater Athens Area in particular, enforcement of the law on its master plan is promoted, along with the "Attica SOS" programme. This will involve carrying out a series of major works in relation to traffic, to relieve congestion in central areas; moving the Hellenicon Airport to Spata and building the underground extension of the Athens urban railway; stricter control of spatial location of industry; expansion of the regulatory framework of development of settlements in coastal areas already developed in an unauthorised way; local interventions to upgrade rundown areas; and interventions to highlight the area's historical and cultural features. Important works are foreseen for protection of the Athens Basin from flooding and restoration of the ability of filled-in torrent beds to accommodate run-off, as well as renewal of peri-urban stone quarries by converting them to uses of value to settlements (surface reservoirs, areas for sports and recreation, storage of materials, etc.).

With regard to the extremely severe problem of air pollution, strict control of industrial emissions of pollutants is exercised, and use of special filters is required to reduce pollutants. As concerns Athens' smog problem in particular, the major part of which is caused by exhaust from automobile traffic in the Athens Basin, alongside the above important trafficrelated works, the following measures are promoted: management of automobile traffic in periods when atmospheric pollutants are highest and in sensitive central areas, encouragement of travel on means of mass transport, increase in controls of functioning of central heating and industry, establishment of new stations for measurement of air pollution, use of clean fuel, replacement of conventional automobile technology with catalytic converters, introduction of staggered working hours for groups of professions and services, etc. In this context, a positive contribution will be made when natural gas comes into use during the next five years; infrastructure for conveying it from the former Soviet Union and distributing it is now in the construction stage.

c. Balanced Development of Settlements in Rural Areas

Action on this matter is focused on promoting and continuing to implement efforts for the administrative and functional grouping together of small rural settlements, on the «open town» model, so that they may constitute sustainable units, with population thresholds capable of supporting the provision of basic social services. A precondition for success of this programme is the consent of the inhabitants themselves. Appropriate informative programmes will be implemented, and these will contribute to the success of this effort,

d. Provision of Technical Urban Infrastructure for Healthy Living Conditions

On the matter of supply of clean drinking water, policy action will aim at providing water quality controls, chiefly in small settlements, along with appropriate purification. With regard to island settlements in particular, which face serious water shortages during the summer months, there will be support for measures to protect, enrich and utilise subterranean water reserves, to store surface water, and implement industrial desalination methods, the objective being total water sufficiency. For mediumsized towns, priority is placed on extending water supply networks to areas newly included in the town plan, and on replacing old and problematic sections of networks. In the Greater Athens Area and in other large cities, works are being promoted to secure additional quantities of water, either by piping it in from storage reservoirs or by pumping up underground water, to deal with steadily increasing demand and meet the needs for water, mainly during the summer months. As far as regulatory measures are concerned, there will be extension of strict controls regarding enforcement of sanitary regulations for disposal of urban and industrial wastes in all water basins from which underground and surface water is drawn to provide water supplies for settlements.

With regard to the question of collection and disposal of urban liquid wastes, the emphasis is placed on maintaining the equilibrium of the environment and health. The regulatory framework now in force will be used more directly in the existing system of physical planning for a more systematic control and determination of land uses. For this purpose, studies will be designed to determine the absorbing capacity of specific important receivers of liquid waste. In small villages located in environmentally sensitive areas, encouragement will be given for systematic construction of septic tanks instead of cesspools for on-site disposal of domestic sewage. In towns of medium size, support will be given for expansion of sewer networks to newly developing peripheral areas, for replacement of ruined sections of existing older networks, and total implementation, completion and operation of sewage treatment and biological purification systems. For the Greater Athens Area, the programme for collection and primary treatment will be completed, and implementation of secondary treatment will be pushed forward.

In the sector of solid urban wastes, encouragement and support will be given to modernisation of dumps and the rules of disposal of refuse in sanitary landfills will be enforced. This will involve elimination and gradual replacement of older, uncontrolled dumps, through use of financial and other incentives. Further, provision is made for promoting the mechanical system of collection and transportation of refuse for improvement of urban cleanliness, as well as promotion of new recycling technologies. Encouragement will be given to initiatives by local government organisations to collaborate in collection, disposal and recycling by specific autonomous geographic units (e.g. islands). With regard to toxic liquid and solid wastes, the relevant EU directives will be implemented, for reducing waste at the source of production, recycling useful materials and implementing strict controls and penalties.

e. Provision of Social Infrastructure, Basic Services and Facilities

Completion of infrastructure for social health, social welfare and education services will be promoted in rural areas for implemented settlement complexes, alongside improvement and modernisation of relevant urban infrastructure. To this end, studies will be made for increasing local government resources for the purpose of giving local government a more effective role in the improvement of social infrastructures of cities and villages, and in the development of free space, park land, sports areas and other relevant infrastructure. Particular care will be taken to ensure conditions (e.g. security of public areas) and local services which improve the welfare conditions for groups with special needs and for women, particularly working women, in various family and social activities (day-care centres, Centres for Open Protection of the Elderly, areas for recreation and youth activities, etc.). The involvement of local groups and organisations in supporting the sector of social and cultural services and welfare on the level of the local community will be encouraged, as will expansion and improvement of primary health and welfare services on the level of the neighbourhood, by utilising the sector of voluntary and local non-governmental organisations.

f. Development of Transport and Communications Systems

Major communications works are continuing, to expand the closed national road network and bypass large cities, as well as to improve and expand ports and airports. Support will be given to local government initiatives on works to create inner ring roads in large cities, to relieve traffic congestion in city centres, as well as to increase the capacity of public means of transport. Alongside this, local trafficmanagement initiatives will be promoted, through establishment of a hierarchy of road axes, control of

traffic and parking, provision of off-street parking lots, etc. On the question of telecommunications, relevant planning and programmes of the Hellenic Telecommunications Organisation will be implemented for expanding and upgrading the services provided.

g. Prevention of Disasters and Preparedness to Deal with the Effects of Natural Disasters

Provision is made for the completion and implementation of an updated regulatory framework for protecting buildings and settlements from earthquakes, floods and fires. Alongside this, research programmes and studies to protect settlements and buildings from earthquakes and prepare/revise plans for dealing with emergencies caused by earthquakes are being promoted. Progress will be evaluated and the programme to relocate landslide-prone settlements will be re-examined. There will be studies aimed at improving the organisation of provision of emergency assistance in the form of shelter, healthcare and food, and provision of financial aid for restoring damage to private and public fixed capital, to populations stricken by earthquakes. initiatives to promote flood-prevention programmes involving reforestation of peri-urban areas destroyed by fires, protection and opening up of torrent-beds; and improvement/expansion of stormwater sewer networks are continuing, and will be further reinforced so that they can be expanded into all areas at risk from flooding.

h. Rational Use and Conservation of Energy

Provision will be made to support energy conservation programmes in urban subsystems and bedimatic planning in buildings and city-planning works. In addition, financial incentives will be prested to promote new technologies and systems of application of soft forms of energy. The regulatory framework on heat insulation and energy-efficient design in buildings is to be modernised.

i. Preservation and Revival of Historical and Cultural Heritage

Emphasis will be placed on the protection, renewal and highlighting of historic city centres, historic quarters, monuments and other spaces of a cultural nature, through regulatory measures, interventions and financial incentives. Relevant programmes will be promoted for the protection and showcasing of traditional settlements.

j. Securing Adequate Supply of Land and Housing

Adequate supply of land equipped with the appropriate urban technical infrastructure for proper functioning of the land market is being continued and promoted through completion of extensions of city plans and their deeds of implementation being effected through the Town-Planning Reorganisation Operation. Provision is made for relevant reform of town-planning legislation for the development of newly built up areas and the improvement of the institutional framework and procedures for development through cooperatives and private urban development. The supply of housing for sale is in the main expected to continue to be provided by the private sector, either through commercial companies or through self-housing, i.e. housing by owners of building lots themselves. The supply of housing for rent is also provided by the private sector, and rents are gradually being deregulated. Special favourable town-planning regulations are in force for self-housing of families with small building lots. A special regulatory framework will be provided for housing in conditions which meet certain minimum acceptable "standards" necessary for healthy living conditions and social inclusion, in accordance with the established cultural models of the country and of various social groups. Provision will be made for an increase in interventions to improve the environment, renew and upgrade housing stock in run-down areas and in areas with special problems, through the improvement of the social distribution of benefits and subsidies of every

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type, and of the sectoral distribution of subsidies for strengthening the rental sector, so as to increase the supply of shelter to the lower income brackets and to groups with increased needs. For integrated urban revitalisation projects combining social, economic and residential measures, efforts will be made towards simultaneous mobilisation and participation of local social bodies, private investors, etc.

k. Strengthening Financial Sources for Housing

Access to the purchase, construction and maintenance of housing is supported through lending. by the commercial banks, and by lending from the special credit institutions. The downward trend in interest rates has made such loans accessible to broader economic strata of the population, in addition, in order to regulate market conditions and protect users, owners and tenants, endeavours will be made to reduce the cost of construction and improvement of the technical quality of housing by promoting applied research on new building materials and technologies. For the same purpose, modernisation of the General Building Regulations and other regulations with reference to construction of new buildings will also be promoted. Efforts will be made to increase the role of lending for housing, by securing healthy long-term capital for financing of credit institutions, establishing new forms of nausing loans at low cost during the first years of recayment (low beginning interest rate, index-linked laans), increasing the role of loans and subsidies for marovement of older housing stock and reducing tax burdens on the housing sector and on the rental sector in particular.

I. Support of Social Groups in Acquiring of Shelter

State welfare to support special attention groups for acquiring shelter is expressed that a programmes to subsidise interest rates on loans to acquisition of first homes, through exemption to transfer, inheritance and parental help taxes to assess where a

first home is being acquired, through tax exemption for imputed rent of owner-occupied homes and of expenditure on rent up to a certain amount, as well as through special programmes of subsidies and/or direct public provision of shelter wherever required.

Provision is made for special programmes for loans with favourable repayment terms to employees of the state, local government and public organisations. Special programmes of the Workers Housing Organisation are being continued to provide subsidised housing for low-and middle-income workers in the private sector in cwned housing (construction of new housing, subsidised loans for purchase, construction and repairs) and rent subsidy programmes. For housing of immigrants of Greek origin from the former Soviet Union, special housing programmes are provided. Special assistance will be given for housing of families with more than three children.

Special studies will be promoted to formulate and support policies and measures almed at:

- reorganisation of the system of housing subsidies which today essentially supports only the sector of home ownership, so that it covers the rental sector to a greater degree, together with strata of economically weak households,
- dealing with the problem of social and economic integration and housing of refugees and economic immigrants,
- support for the model of integrated social, residential and economic projects for community development and upgrading, with agencies based on the collaboration and participation of local bodies and groups according to the model introduced by the EU pilot programmes to combat poverty, and
- provision of housing and social welfare for special disadvantaged categories such as the elderly, homeless youth, one-parent households, the unemployed, minorities, etc.

ORGANISATION OF THE ACTION PLAN: AGENCIES OF IMPLEMENTATION AND COORDINATION

In charge of implementation of the National Action Plan for Cities and Housing will be the agencies responsible for planning on the local, regional and national level. The main tool to be used will be the planning made according to the provisions of Statute 1622/1985. The Ministry of the Environment, Planning and Public Works has taken on part of the responsibility for implementing basic infrastructure works of the NAPCH on the national, regional and local scale, due to its competency for carrying out public works. Other Ministries and agencies have undertaken to promote works within their competencies, through their regular annual programmes. A significant part of projected actions will be implemented on the local level by agencies of local government. It is the intention to the Ministry of the Environment, Regional Planning and Public Works and the National Committee to support local agovernment organisations, regardless of the size of the population they represent, through creation, acceptance and implementation of a local action plan for settlements and housing, which will define and specify the principles and objectives of the Habitat Il Conference and proposed national actions up to the year 2000. Finally, encouragement will be given to the various agencies of the private sector to undertake to carry out relevant projects of commercial interest.

The outlay of financial resources during the five years up to 2000 is directly related to the current policy of convergence in the framework of the EU. Consequently, financing of infrastructure works, renewals and various other actions of the NAPCH will be done to the extent that it is judged feasible in each case, on the principle of the greatest possible utilisation of resources coming from the relevant EU finds, as well as rational use of national resources. The national budget of public investment will cover part of the expenditure for infrastructure, through programmes on the national,

regional and prefectural scale. Another part of the resources will be provided by the Special Fund for the Implementation of Street and City Plans, for works and studies/research on infrastructure, upgrading of the urban environment and environmental education. The flow of banking capital for lending in the housing sector is expected to be significant, as will be the disposal of resources of the private sector for specific construction works. Primary responsibility for coordination, apart from the organisational, secretarial and political support of the NAPCH, will rest with the Ministry of the Environment, Planning and Public Works. The other competent ministries and agencies will be called on to set up special head offices to support the NAPCH during its implementation stage.

PROCEDURES OF MONITORING AND EVALUATION

Monitoring and evaluation of the progress of the actions included in the NAPCH and the conditions and problems in the relevant sectors are considered to be of extreme importance, and particular emphasis is laid on the suitable organisational infrastructure, and on secretarial and scientific support of the collective and official organs which will support the NAPCH during its implementation stage.

The manner in which the monitoring and evaluation procedure is organised will be the subject of a special study, which will also exploit the potential of modern networks of information telecommunications. Alongside this, and for the duration of the five years, a basic activity of the monitoring and evaluating agency of the NAPCH will be the publicising of the activities related to the implementation of the objectives and thinking of the NAPCH. Until the monitoring agency is set up, monitoring of the relative actions will be carried out by the Greek National Committee.

An important part of the monitoring and evaluation procedure will be based on an "indicators"

programme, first, for evaluating the progress and results of various actions and works, and second for recording the relative conditions and problems with regard to cities and housing. The system of indicators organised by the "Urban Indicators Programme" of the UN Centre for Human Settlements (UNCHS-HABITAT) will be utilised and completed, as far as possible. The Research Unit of the Public Corporation for Urban Development and Housing (DEPOS), has undertaken to support this Programme in Greece on a permanent basis. Given the lack of data on city and housing matters in Greece, special regular sampling surveys will be organised on many topics.

6. BUILDING UP SKILLS

The NAPCH is in essence an exercise in planning, whose success depends on how prepared each body, participating to a different degree in its implementation, is to respond in a positive and effective manner. Thus, beyond any institutional, administrative or organisational initiatives and actions, the result will also be judged by the capability of the staff of the relevant bodies promoting the NAPCH and of the tools used for its implementation. The Ministry of the Environment, Regional Planning and Public Works, as the central coordinating body, will try to support the skills of the organs of administration in carrying out tasks relevant to promotion of the NAPCH, through training programmes for acquiring relevant knowledge, practices and skills, and utilising of the potential provided by computerisation, information science and telematics. In addition, special emphasis will be placed on the training of local government officials (associations of local government organisations, regional councils, prefectural government), as a move toward support for the institution of decentralisation. In parallel, it is also considered necessary to mobilise the interest of the local population in promoting that part of the NAPCH of direct to concern to it. This interest is expected to act as a catalyst in the implementation of the NAPCH, in particular through support for relevant local initiatives by non-governmental bodies.

PART D

INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION AND ASSISTANCE



GREECE'S PARTICIPATION IN INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION SCHEMES ON CITIES, THE ENVIRONMENT AND HOUSING

PARTICIPATION IN E.U. BODIES AND ACTIVITIES AND INFLOW OF-ECONOMIC AND TECHNICAL AID

E.U. ACTIVITY IN THE SECTORS OF HOUSING AND URBAN RENEWAL

COOPERATION AMONG THE COUNTRIES OF THE EUROPEAN SOUTH

THE NEIGHBOURING REGIONS: THE BALKANS AND THE MIDDLE EAST

INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION AND ASSISTANCE

GREECE'S PARTICIPATION IN INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION SCHEMES ON CITIES, THE ENVIRONMENT AND HOUSING

During the last 20 years, Greece's relationship with international cooperation and assistance schemes with significant activity in the sector of cities, the environment and housing consists in participation in structures and programmes of the European Union, in OECD working groups and in committees and working aroups of the United Nations, specifically those of the Centre for Human Settlements and of the Committee for Housing, Building and Planning of the Economic Commission for Europe. To be sure, as a member of the EU, Greece actively participates in a plethora of international bodies, and receives important economic and technical inputs. Reference will be made to this below. Greece's participation in activities of the OECD and the UN is, due to the nature of those organisations, much more restricted and of a different character. With the exception of certain cases where OECD experts have been called in as advisors on special matters (e.g. the environment), participation in the two organisations has had as its main objective the exchange of information and experiences in the framework of the collective study of certain topics and the formation of policy guidelines.

Despite the significant experience and activity developed, in the recent past, by Greek agencies of

construction and research in countries of the Middle East and Africa, this activity is now quite limited because Greece as a state has a very limited possibility for providing technical and financial aid to countries in its immediate geographic area and to developing countries in general. Limited relations of cooperation and provision of aid have been maintained with Cyprus, in recent years, the country's international orientation in matters regarding shelter, the environment and regional development has been focused on integration, cooperation and support processes on the European level. Thus, Greece's relations with the rest of the world in matters of aid or international cooperation, for example, are essentially shaped and implemented through the relative European instruments and programmes.

PARTICIPATION IN EU BODIES AND ACTIVITIES AND INFLOW OF ECONOMIC AND TECHNICAL AID

It is a known fact that both official EU policy and the relevant Treaties (Rome and Maastricht) allow for a very restricted direct emphasis on actions on settlement problems, and virtually exclude housing from the objects of EU policy. Despite these restrictions, Greece, as it is considered as a whole to be a region in need of assistance, receives through the Union's structural funds and Community Support Frameworks (I and II) a significant amount of economic and

technical aid in the form of financing of studies and research in many sectors in relation to cities, such as infrastructure, major strategic works, city and regional planning, and assistance to local government. In addition, important investments, co-financed by the EU, technical cooperation and studies have been and are scheduled to be carried out before 1999 in the sector of protection and management of the environment.

Apart from these forms of cooperation and economic support, there has been significant development of cooperation between private entrepreneurial and social bodies and scientific forces through study and research networks across Europe and through networks of similar towns and cooperation between government bodies.

On all the above sectors, Greek policy is clearly oriented toward full exploitation of opportunities for cooperation and support being created by the policies and instruments of the EU.

EU ACTIVITY IN THE SECTORS OF HOUSING AND URBAN RENEWAL

As was already noted, there is a serious institutional restriction on development by the EU of actions in the sector of housing and to a lesser degree in the sector of urban renewal. Contributing to this is the application of the principle of «subsidiarity»: these sectors are regarded as pre-eminently a field of concern of the national policy of each member-country. Despite these initial negative conditions, which stand in the way of development of european

cooperation and assistance in these sectors, significant collective efforts and procedures have been developed in recent years to place these matters on the agenda, often with the official blessings of EU bodies*, where Greece has an active participation. Specifically in the housing sector, regular annual meetings of Ministers on housing matters have already been instituted, where experience and information on relevant policies are being exchanged, and by this opportunity a system of statistical monitoring of EU conditions has been developed, and special studies carried out. In parallel, certain european organisations have been formed, such as the organisation of social housing agencies (CEDODHAS) and the organisations for family welfare (COFACE) and the homeless (FEANTSA) which are pressing for cooperation and policy-making in this sector, and function as networks for cooperation and exchange of experiences and information. In addition, the new Community URBAN pilot programme for integrated interventions for revitalising depressed urban areas should be considered a positive development**. In this context, the Ministry of the Environment, Regional Planning and Public Works has an important programme of interventions in the urban centres.

From Greece's viewpoint, the increase in EU economic and social action and the development of collaborations in the housing and urban renewal sectors must certainly be regarded as positive and efforts are made to promote it in the competent organs. These sectors, particularly insofar as they constitute an implementation of social policy, show extremely limited development in Greek conditions, and there is a clear lack of experience and resources.

^{*} See, for example, minutes of the 1992 Brussels Conference on "The Role of Housing in the Building of a Social Europe," (C.E.C., 1993).

^{**} In contrast, the interruption of the Programme for Integration of Disadvantaged Groups ("Poverty Programme") should be regarded as a problematic development. The four pilot applications of the Poverty Programme in Greece may not have been of particular importance in the sense of expenditure of economic resources, but they certainly did constitute very important innovative forms of local cooperation of agencies and an integrated approach to social and economic problems.

Housing conditions, despite significant progress in recent decade, also remain significantly lower than the average level in the Europe of the 12. On the other hand, it has frequently been noted that an increased emphasis on those sectors will lead to a shift of European social policy towards central and northern countries, which have much more extensive old urban zones together with problematic complexes of social housing in crisis and in decline, to the detriment of southern European countries where problems are of a different nature. Expansion of the Union to countries of the former Eastern bloc may quite possibly aggravate this problem. Thus, efforts to uparade the role of the housing and urban renewal. sectors on the level of European cooperation and assistance must be accompanied by a correct understanding and balanced treatment of the particularities and special needs and problems of the Union's various geographic and cultural entities.

COOPERATION AMONG THE COUNTRIES OF THE EUROPEAN SOUTH

The previous points indicate that there are important aspects, in which the countries of southern Europe display distinct characteristics and therefore should develop special collaboration and policies at the European level. More generally, the countries of southern Europe display significant similarities in the sectors of settlement, spatial and regional structure, environment, and housing, in comparison to the countries of central and northern Europe. In addition, there is a significant similarity of features in social and cultural matters, such as the role of the welfare state and the role of the family and of informal social

networks, as well as in sectors such as the rural economy, tourism and holiday-making.

Collaboration and exchange of experiences among the countries of the European south has only proceeded to a limited degree. Thus, Greece considers it necessary to promote such collaboration in the sectors examined here, either directly or through European organs.

THE NEIGHBOURING REGIONS : THE BALKANS AND THE MIDDLE EAST

The countries in the immediate region of Greece, the Balkan countries and the countries of the Middle East, are obviously of great interest as far as development of collaboration and exchange of experiences on questions of infrastructure, settlement and housing are concerned. In addition, the fact that they are as a rule developing countries or countries attempting the shift to a market economy and to liberal systems of political administration, indicates that Greece can act as a source or a channel (as an EU member), of economic, as well as of technical and educational aid. This appears to be of particular importance in the case of the Balkan countries. The conditions and developments in the area up to now have not permitted significant relations of collaboration to develop*. It is hoped, however, that stabilisation in the Balkans will permit, along with more general development, closer economic and political relations and development of collaboration in the sectors under examination here. The competent government and scientific bodies in Greece intend to actively promote a study of the potential, needs and prospects in this sector of collaboration and assistance.

^{*} The Technical Chamber of Greece has developed activities in this sector.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CEC Commission of European Communities

CECODHAS European Liaison Committee for Social Housing
CPER Centre of Planning and Economic Research
COFACE Confederation of E.U. Family Organisations

CSF Community Support Framework

DEPOS Public Corporation for Urban Development and Housing

EPA Town Planning Reorganisation Operation

ETERPS Special Fund for the Implementation of Urban Plans

EU European Union

EYDAP Water Supply and Sewerage Company of Athens

FEANTSA European Federation of National Organisations Working with the Homeless

GDP Gross Domestic Product
GSS Global Strategy for Shelter

GTP General Town Plan

IKA Foundation of Social Security

KAPI Centres for Open Protection of the Elderly
NAPCH National Action Plan for Cities and Housing

NCSR National Centre for Social Research
NSSG National Statistical Service of Greece

OECD Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development

OTE Hellenic Telecommunications Organisation

RDP Regional Development Plan
ROP Regional Operational Programme
TCG Technical Chamber of Greece

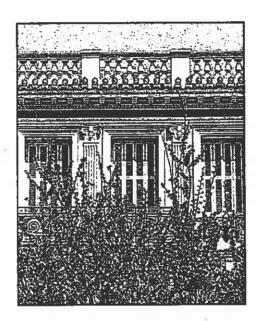
UN United Nations

UNCHS United Nations Centre for Human Settlements

YPECHODE Ministry of the Environment, Regional Planning and Public Works

n.a. no data available

APPENDICES



SELECTION OF BEST PRACTICES

NATIONAL EXPERIENCE IN IMPLEMENTING THE HABITAT I ACTION PLAN DURING THE LAST 20 YEARS

IMPLEMENTATION OF THE EARTH SUMMIT'S "AGENDA 21"
AND OF THE GLOBAL STRATEGY OF SHELTER FOR THE YEAR 2000

APPENDIX 1

SELECTION OF BEST PRACTICES

PROCEDURES AND SELECTION CRITERIA FOR EXEMPLARY RESIDENTIAL AND ENVIRONMENTAL INTERVENTIONS

in order to select the successful efforts made in this country, which implement the objectives of the Habitat Il Conference for cities that are healthy, safe, and environmentally sustainable, and for housing for all, and then to highlight them so that they constitute a model for broader implementation, the Greek National Committee, bearing in mind the relevant guidelines of the Preparatory Committee of the Habitat II Conference, announced a nationwide competition, by Decision No. 328/25/731/4.5.95 of the Ministry of the Environment, Planning and Public Works, in accordance with Article 5, paragraph 2 of Law 1512/ 1985 (Government Gazette, No. 4A). This was judged to be the most effective method of publicising the activity of the National Committee in the whole process of preparing the country to participate in the above Conference.

This competition has provided an opportunity for those agencies which have taken relevant action, primarily Greece's local government organisations, to successfully put forward their own models of policy and programme implementation for improving the quality of the local urban environment and housing through specific projects. The announcement that honourable distinctions and ten token cash prizes of

Drs.500,000 each would be awarded was a factor that reinforced interest in the competition.

For the information of the interested parties, the relevant announcement was published in the daily press and in the bulletins of the Technical Chamber of Greece and the Central Union of Municipalities and Communes of Greece. Specifically for the information of the local government organisations, individual announcements were sent to 30 of the country's biggest municipalities. Despite the limited time available and the intervening summer holiday period, 23 proposals for such models were duly submitted before the end of July.

To evaluate the proposals submitted, the Ministry of the Environment, Planning and Public Works decided to set up a special committee consisting of seven members of the National Committee. It proposed that ten cash prizes and eight bonourable mentions-be conferred. The distinctions were granted by a Ministerial Decision which accepted the recommendation of the Evaluation Committee. The ten proposals which received a cash prize were forwarded to the UN Habitat II Secretariat, which also judged them to be suitable for inclusion in the relevant database maintained by the Habitat II Secretariat and eligible for an international award.

The criteria on which the Committee based its

judgement were defined with special emphasis in the Announcement of the competition. They are the following:

- a. The degree to which the intervention has been implemented.
- b. The number of set criteria that it meets.
- The breadth and variety of collaboration and the participation of local bodies and groups in its implementation.
- d. The significance and impact of its positive effects.
- e. Originality,
- f. Coverage of as many sectors of activity as possible.
- g. Potential for serving as a model for broader implementation in similar cases.

A study of the interventions submitted for evaluation determined that they-were so different with regard to subject, scale and means of intervention that it was difficult to evaluate them in order of priority. The Committee could not document its opinion on the basis of measurable parameters of the same type. Therefore, the Committee judged the proposals by dividing them into three groups:

- a. Included in the first group were the proposals chosen to receive a cash prize in the amount of Drs.500,000 provided for in the Announcement Decision. All the proposals in this group display original ideas which can be characterised as important by international standards. They also cover a broad spectrum of activities aimed at environmental, social and functional improvement of natural and urbanised territory and at its harmonious adaptation to new functional requirements. They also set a positive example to other bodies to devise similar applications which may play a part in realising the principles and objectives of the Habitat II Conference.
- Included in the second group were the proposals chosen to receive honourable mention: they displayed most of the characteristics of the previous group, but with a lesser degree of

- originality. Several of them could have been included in the previous group if their implementation had progressed further, in which case the effectiveness of the attempted interventions would have been more apparent.
- c. The remaining proposals made up the third group. Some of them, although they were very significant initiatives in their local context, have already been implemented in quite a few cases and therefore their originality is limited.

The cases which received distinctions refer to a broad spectrum of city-planning and environmental interventions, such as:

- Interventions for the functional, cultural and environmental upgrading of historic and commercial city centres, and their adaptation to present-day requirements (Plaka in Athens, Trikala historic centre, Ladadika in Thessaloniki, historical and commercial centre of Thessaloniki, Nafpilo, Chrissopigi Monastery in Hania, music centre in Rethymno).
- Applications of energy-saving practices for urban uses (solar village in Likovrissi, Attica).
- Integrated applications for purification and management of urban waste in built-up areas (Zakinthos, Kefalonia, coasts of Attica, Kos),
- Integrated model housing interventions (Workers Housing Organisation settlement in Kalamata and solar village).
- Interventions to showcase, protect and develop natural endowments (Kria Livadias, Valie) of the Butterflies in Rhodes), and
- Interventions to achieve sustainable development of small settlements (settlements of Keramitsa in Thesprotia and Palamas in Karditsa).

Naturally, the Committee evaluated only those models submitted to it by the interested agencies. There are undoubtedly other equally or more important models that were not considered by the Committee because they were not submitted by way of the official

competition. It should be stressed that through the factics employed in this case, the competition became widely known. If the competition is repeated in future, participation is expected to be significantly higher.

Apart from forwarding the above ten models to the Habitat II Secretariat for international evaluation and publication, the National Committee has made plans for the publication and presentation, in a special publication to be financed by the Ministry of the Environment, Planning and Public Works, of all the models which received a cash prize or honourable mention. Thus they will be made known to a broad circle of agencies and will serve as a good example to others, thus fulfilling one of their main objectives.

Set out below are the models which received distinctions in the above competition, together with their subjects and agencies of planning and implementation, as well as the relevant rationale of the evaluation committee. Also given are the names of the members of the Evaluation Committee and the agencies they represent.

B MODELS WHICH RECEIVED DISTINCTIONS

(The following honourable distinctions were awarded by Decision No. 39438/1678/ 17.10.1995 of the Deputy Minister of the Environment, Planning and Public Works,)

1. Solar Village in Likovrissi, Attica. Main planning and implementing agencies: the Workers Housing Organisation, the Ministry of Research and Technology and the Government of Germany.

It was awarded a cash prize for the following reasons:

- It is an original, exemplary pilot implementation of methods and means of saving energy through the use of alternative sources of energy in cities, with the potential for further selection of suitable forms of energy and development.
- Through dissemination of the experience acquired

from the experimental energy-saving techniques used, it has the potential for playing a positive role in realisation of the goals and principles of the Conference for sustainable cities.

- It is the result of positive cooperation on the international level, and between the public- and private-sector bodies concerned, and
- it demonstrates how a public organisation (the Workers Housing Organisation) can positively rise to the challenge of modern environmental technology and implement it in its housing programmes.
- 2. Upgrading/Cleaning up the Coasts of Southern Attica and Salamina. Main planning and implementing agencies: the Ministry of the Environment, Planning and Public Works (Directorate of Special Area Renewal Works), the Ram Europe Company and the Ecological Recycling Society Mediterranean SOS.

It was awarded a cash prize for the following reasons:

- It constitutes an original, pioneering, integrated intervention to protect and preserve the quality of the natural environment of coastal areas near large urban centres. Such areas may be used for mass recreation, by providing a clean nealthy natural environment.
- It has a particularly important impact on the quality of life of a large part of the country's urban population.
- It utilises modern technology in an effective way, by successfully adapting it to very special local and labour requirements, through simple practical and economically feasible means.
- It fulfils goals on the national level for moreoving the environment in seaside recreation preas, with positive impacts on the local and reational economy.
- It serves as an example for broader and an extension of such interventions, on the initiative served bodies.

- It serves as an example of effective collaboration between Government and private bodies.
- 3. Solid waste management in Zakinthos, where the main planning and implementing agencies were the League for Clean Municipalities and Communes of S. Zakinthos, the Municipality of Zakinthos, the Prefecture's 46 Communes, and 32 other agencies of the public and private sector.

It was awarded a cash prize for the following reasons:

- This original, integrated intervention manages in a rational way the island's solid urban waste; it recycles a significant quantity of refuse and plays a role in ensuring healthy living conditions, with positive impacts on the island's social and economic life.
- The whole intervention implements environmentally friendly practices, promotes sensitisation to and consciousness of environmental questions on the part of the public, and is in accordance with the principles and goals of sustainability and of the Conference.
- It is implemented as a single programme on a wholeisland scale, in complete, effective collaboration with a large number of local agencies, nongovernmental organisations, members of the general pubic and students, setting an example for broad implementation throughout Greece and its many islands, as well as in other countries.
- 4. Intervention in the Historic Plaka Quarter: Protection and Revitalisation. Main planning and implementing agencies: the Ministry of the Environment, Planning and Public Works, public utilities (Hellenic Telecommunications Organisation, Public Power Corporation, Water Supply and Sewerage Systems Co. of Athens) and the study group represented by Professor D. Zivas of the Athens Polytechnic Institute.

It received a cash award for the following reasons:

• It is the first large-scale, integrated intervention made in a historic city centre in Greece, with very

- positive results in the functional, aesthetic and social enhancement of the area's living conditions and environment.
- It established a policy of gradual renewal with respect for the area's historical continuity and its proximity to the archaeological and historic site of the Athens Acropolis. This policy has been implemented for many years and is gradually restoring the human element to the area.
- It effectively used suitable existing and new institutional tools to control implementation of the above policy, in conjunction with the parallel execution of wide-ranging works to renew Plaka's technical infrastructure and areas for public use, thus setting a positive example of an integrated intervention for similar areas and historic centres of other Greek cities.
- 5. Programme for Social and Economic Integration of Groups of Disadvantaged Persons in Perama. Main planning and implementing bodies: the Perama Centre for Family and Child Welfare, the Manpower Employment Organisation, the «ICARUS» Neighbourhood Improvement Association, the National Welfare Organisation, Perama Municipality and the Union of Metal Workers.

It was awarded a cash prize for the following reasons:

- It is an initiative implemented for the first time in this country, with a many-sided contribution to the efforts to reincorporate into society a low-income sector of the urban population. Among its objectives are better, safe, hearing housing, equal living conditions, continuing equipation and vocational training and orientation employment opportunities, social cohesion and solidarity, environmental upgrading, etc. 2011 which are at the centre of interest of the Hactar. Conference.
- The initiative constitutes a partial example of effective cooperation between the involved residents of the area and published privatesector bodies, non-governmental main sations and

- the European Union, whose financial contribution has been secured with the initiative's inclusion in the Third European Programme to Combat Poverty.
- The experience of this initiative may prove to be particularly useful for mobilising other groups of citizens to deal with similar problems of housing, employment, education, health and social exclusion in general.
- 6. Environmental Renewal of a Part of the Historic Centre of Thessaloniki (Ladadika). Main planning and implementing bodies: the Environmental and Planning Directorate for Central Macedonia, the Thessaloniki Organisation, the Municipality of Thessaloniki, the «Ladadika» Businessmen's League, and the Macedonia-Thrace Bank.

It received a cash award for the following reasons:

- This intervention had an extremely important, positive result in refurbishing one of the most downgraded areas of the historic centre of Thessaloniki, which it transformed and showcased as a living element of the city's economic and cultural life.
- Acting in the framework of total planning for renewal
 of the broader historic city centre, this intervention
 effectively utilises available city-planning tools
 (changing building-to-land ratios, determining use
 of land and buildings, declaring buildings protected
 from unsuitable development). Alongside suitable
 structural interventions for improving the
 infrastructure and street networks, it has had a very
 important, fundamental effect on the city.
- The whole intervention, which was carried out with the complete agreement and acceptance of the owners of real estate in the area, and with the collaboration of the public and private sectors, which financed most of the expenditure for renovation of buildings, as well as with subsidies from the European Union's financing funds, constitutes an example of efficient project management.

7. Protection and Upgrading of Kria, Livadia. Main planning and implementing agencies: the Municipality of Livadia, the Directorate of Special Works for Area Renewal of the Ministry of the Environment, Planning and Public Works, and the Greek National Tourist Organisation.

It received a cash prize for the following reasons:

- This intervention constitutes a characteristic case of exploiting the natural advantages and the historic heritage of a town, as part of more general efforts towards its functional, cultural, touristic and economic upgrading.
- The upgrading of an area around a torrent-bed, transforming it from a source of pollution into a pole of development for recreational activities, is in complete harmony with the objectives of the Conference for healthy, sustainable towns.
- The potential for serving as an example to be imitated is very great, bearing in mind the large number of other Greek towns where elements of the natural environment could be exploited and transformed into poles of interest, and play a positive role in recreational functioning and their economies.
- Implementation of this initiative took place with respect for the area's historical tradition and with environmental sensitivity, through harmonious collaboration of the Municipality with state and local agencies and with the European Union, which financed part of the project, as well as with the acceptance and consent of the inhabitants.
- 8. City-Planning and Morphological Intervention in the Historic Centre of Trikala. Main planning and implementing bodies: Trikala Municipality organisms of residents and the City's technical services

It was awarded a cash prize for the following reasons:

It constitutes a positive example of an imprated initiative to upgrade the historic nude. In a city, through practical and regulatory interventions, through control of use of land and religious.

creation of areas for public use and restoration of old houses by their owners, preserving the morphological unity of the area, through cooperation between the local municipal authority and central government services, groups of private individual residents, and with financial assistance from the European Union.

- This intervention came about with the general consent of the local residents, and has become their common objective.
- The above measures were the result of overall city planning; they have been implemented continuously and consistently for a number of years, so that today their positive impact on the economic, social and demographic strengthening of the area can be clearly seen, setting a clear example of the usefulness and contribution of rational physical planning in the development of a city.
- 9. Improvement of living conditions in settlements of the Keramitsa Commune, Thesprotia Prefecture. Main planning and implementing agencies: Keramitsa Commune, the League of Emigrants from Keramitsa Living in Athens, the Federation of Emigrants from Mourgana, the Keramitsa Ecclesiastical Council, the Keramitsa Cultural Society and the Civil Aviation Service.

It received a cash prize for the following reasons:

- It is an important example of what can be achieved and contributed by initiative of local society alone in improving the living conditions of inhabitants of villages in the Greek countryside, from the viewpoint of security, hygiene and aesthetics, with the full consent of the inhabitants and their cooperation with communal authorities.
- All the activities put into practice are in complete accordance with the principles and objectives of the Conference.
- The initiatives of the above agricultural Commune near the Greek border are already serving as an example for several neighbouring communes, which are imitating it, with positive effects on their

social and economic revitalisation, and more generally on the demographic stabilisation of Greece's outlying rural areas.

10. Restoration of the Chrissopigi Monastery in Chania, Renewal of the Area around the Monument and Social Upgrading of the Area. Main planning and implementing agencies: the Monastery Board of the Holy Monastery of Chrissopigi, Chania, the Thirteenth Ephory of Byzantine Antiquities of Crete, the Holy Metropolis of Chania and the Chania Social Welfare Department.

It received a cash prize for the following reasons:

- The Holy Metropolis, a special social agency, is restoring an important architectural monument on its own initiative, through and in close collaboration with the competent services of the Ministry of Culture. Through the socially-aimed uses it is establishing for the monastery, it is contributing fundamental, positive elements to the sustainable development of the city's housing, collaborating towards this end with other competent agencies of the city of Chania.
- 11. Housing Programme in the Western Quarter of the Area of Expansion of the Kalamata General Town Plan. Main planning and implementing body; the Workers Housing Organisation.

It received an honourable mention to the following reasons:

- Without constituting an example of different practice from those used by the different practice from those used by the different practice from those used by the different practice.
 Organisation in other cities, it streams are response of the Organisation in meeting needs are remainded by the earthquakes are responsed to decade.
- This case, characteristic of the an appropriate practices used by the Workers Housing Orall processing an urban harmoniment processing and urban harmonime

view of living conditions, environment, aesthetics, hygiene and security, meets the objectives of the Conference.

- •1 It can serve as an example to other Greek municipalities, showing how positive and effective the excellent cooperation of a state housing agency with the relevant municipal authority can prove to be, on the basis of a more general, overall city-planning development programme.
- 12. Model Plan for Revitalisation and Development of the Historic and Commercial Centre of Thessaloniki. Main planning and implementing bodies: the Thessaloniki Organisation, the Region of Central Macedonia, the Environmental and Planning Directorate of Central Macedonia, the Nomarchy of Thessaloniki, the Municipality of Thessaloniki, the Fourth Ephory of Modern Monuments, the Ninth Ephory of Byzantine Antiquities and the Sixteenth Ephory of Prehistoric and Classical Antiquities of the Ministry of Culture, the Public City-Planning and Shelter Corporation, the Aristotle University of Thessaloniki, the Technical Chamber of Greece (Section for Central Macedonia) and the Macedonia-Thrace Bank.

It received an honourable mention for the following reasons:

4

- It is the product of an integrated city-planning programme for the unified presentation of the city's historical physiognomy. Its implementation entailed the harmonious collaboration of all competent local and central public agencies, the university community, local government, and private-sector and EU financing institutions.
- The way in which the above intervention was planned and is being implemented can serve as an example of methodological approach to similar issues in other Greek cities.
- If the above planned interventions had been implemented on a larger scale, the Committee could also have examined the case for awarding the above higher distinction.

13. City-Planning and Environmental Interventions for the Protection and Renewal of the Town of Nafplio. Main planning and implementing bodies: The Interdisciplinary City-Planning Study Group and Nafplio Municipality.

It received an honourable mention for the following reasons:

- The intervention being attempted on the historical city centre is aimed at a balanced development of new activities through its functional upgrading from the standpoint of infrastructure and maintenance of areas for public use, as well as private and public buildings which demonstrate its historical character.
- This initiative to upgrade the centre of the above city is the result of many years of study and cooperation of the Municipality with the cityplanning group and the residents of the city centre, whose efforts toward acceptance and realisation of the proposed actions have already begun to yield affirmative results.
- The fact that realisation of this extremely important intervention has not progressed to a significant degree restricts its potential for higher distinction.

14. Joint Waste Management on the Prefectural Level. The Experience of the Kefalonia Intermunicipal Corporation. Main planning and implementing bodies: The Kefalonia Intermunicipal Cleanliness and Environmental Protection Corporation, Kefalonia Municipality, the Ministry of the Environment, Planning and Public Works and the Kefalonia Prefecture Technical Service.

It received an honourable mention for the following reasons:

 The initiative of the Kefalonia Intermunicipal Cleanliness and Environmental Protection Corporation is an example of a serious effort to deal with the matter of solid waste collection and disposal, in a manner that ensures public health and protection of the local environment.

- Even though it did not bring the matter of solid waste management to completion through recycling activities, the initiative of the Intermunicipal Corporation is outstanding for its foresight in covering the island as a unified whole, restricting scattering of refuse in non-controlled areas and contributing to the qualitative upgrading of the island's countryside.
- Managing solid waste in the above unified way sets an example for similar initiatives on other islands, promoting as a positive element the potential the unified agency has for more effective management, in comparison with isolated initiatives of communes with limited collection and disposal potential.
- **15. Palamas: Human Town.** Submitted by the Mayor of Palamas, with Palamas Municipality as the main planning and implementing agency.

It received an honourable mention for the following reasons:

- Without making a more detailed examination of the particular conditions existing in this town, the Committee believes that the strong stand taken by the Municipal authority in resisting pressures to increase the height of buildings, and in insisting on maintaining low building-to-land ratios in the town, conforms to the principles and objectives of the Conference for towns that are environmentally and functionally sustainable and equitable.
- Such initiatives have need of moral support and public commendation to reinforce the vigaur of the local authorities in guaranteeing those parameters of town-planning development that ensure a healthy and high-quality urban environment and standard of living, both for present residents of the town as well as for their descendants. If this initiative had found imitators among town elders during the last fifty years, the environment and quality of life in Greek towns would be much better than they are today.
- The way that Palamas Municipality took action proves that, in order to achieve a positive town-planning result, it is not always necessary to

consume resources: of primary importance is a consciousness of the need for the existence and implementation of the appropriate development policy, based on the principles of sustainability.

16. Renewal of the Environs of the Biological Waste Treatment Plant in Kos Municipality. Main planning and implementing agencies: the Department of the Environment of the University of the Aegean, and the Municipal Water and Sewerage Corporation of the Island of Kos.

It received an honourable mention because it was judged to be an exemplary intervention for biological treatment of the town's liquid waste.

17. Protection and Development of the Valley of the Butterfiles in Theologos Commune, Rhodes. Main planning and implementing bodies: the Department of the Environment of the University of the Aegean, and Theologos Commune, Rhodes.

It received an honourable mention because it constitutes an intervention with multi-faceted returns with regard to environmental matters.

18. European City of Music, Rethymno. Main planning and implementing agent: Armand Nobel, General Director of the European City of Music.

It was exceptionally awarded a special honourable mention. The subject of this initiative is very specialised in one dimension only, the cultural dimension. However, the Committee judged it to be deserving of the above distinction because such initiatives for enriching a city with cultural activities of international scope, which are in harmony with the city's character, show it to advantage and promote it as a centre of high-quality cultural activities of international interest, have fundamental effects on other sectors of social and economic activities and contribute in a very positive way to the city's integrated development.

EVALUATION COMMITTEE

The Evaluation Committee was made up of the following members, who were appointed by the bodies represented on the Habitat II National Committee.

- 1. IOANNA GEORGOULIA, representative of the Housing Policy Directorate of the Ministry of the Environment, Planning and Public Works
- 2. PANAGIOTIS PSOMOPOULOS, representative of the National Committee

- 3. FILIPOS LOUKISSAS, representative of the National Committee
- 4. ILIAS BERIATOS, representative of the Central Union of Municipalities and Communes of Greece
- 5. CHRISTOS SPIROPOULOS, representative of the Technical Chamber of Greece
- 6. NIKOS BALABANIS, representative of the Association of University-Graduate Architects
- 7. ARISTIDIS SAPOUNAKIS, representative of the Association of Greek Town- and Regional Planners

APPENDIX 2

NATIONAL EXPERIENCE IN IMPLEMENTING THE HABITAT I ACTION PLAN **DURING THE LAST TWENTY YEARS**

THE 1976 CONFERENCE ON HUMAN **SETTLEMENTS**

1.1 THE VANCOUVER DECLARATION AND ACTION PLAN

In June, 1976 the first major United Nations Conference on Human Settlements was held in Vancouver, Canada. The Conference concluded with The Vancouver Declaration on Human Settlements and with an Action Plan containing 64 recommendations for national action domestically in each country.

The recommendations of the Vancouver Action Plan were classified in six units, set out below, together with the respective numbers of the recommendations they contained:

- a. Settlement policies and strategies: A.1 A.7
- b. Settlement planning: B.1 B.16
- c. Shetter, infrastructure and services: C.1 C.18
- d. Land: D.1 D.7
- e. Public participation: E.1 E.6
- f. Institutions and management: F1 F10

1.2 THE GREEK EXPERIENCE AFTER VANCOUVER

In this chapter an account is given of the national experiences and action taken in implementing the principles and Action Plan of the Vancouver

recommendations of the Action Plan is summarised by unit and an attempt is made to evaluate the policy followed by Greece after 1976, using the Vancouver guidelines as criteria. To be sure, an assessment of the work and experiences of two whole decades in a specific country cannot be made only from the viewpoint of the conclusions of an international conference. These conclusions were inevitably an expression of the conjuncture of time of the Conference. the experiences and problems of the period which preceded it, and the political equilibrium in existence at that time. Many of the recommendations of the Action Plan are applicable to certain countries, but not at all to others. As a result, any effort to attempt an evaluation with regard to each separate recommendation would be meaningless. But the evaluation contained in this chapter is nevertheless connected only to the content and spirit of the Vancouver Declaration and Action Plan, and cannot be regarded as a full and final verdict on the period.

One of the six sections of the Vancouver Action Plan. refers to matters of housing and the infrastructure relating to it. Although some of the policies pursued by Greece in the sector of city and land planning are directly linked to the housing sector and are as a consequence touched on here, in general no reference is made in this chapter to housing and to the relevant section of the Vancouver Action Plan. The problems Conference. To this end, the essence of the . and policies with regard to housing appear at other points in this report, primarily in the section on the actions taken in implementing the principles and action plan of the World Housing Strategy for the year 2000 and in the section on housing for disadvantaged social groups. Something similar holds true for environmental policy. Although it is obvious that urban policy includes many elements of environmental policy, the main actions, particularly those of the recent past, with regard to environmental matters, are recorded in the chapter on the policy developed in implementation of the principals and Action Plan of the UN Conference on the Environment in Rio de Janeiro in 1992 and in the main body of the National Report.

In the individual sections of this chapter, each of which corresponds to one section of the Vancouver Action Plan, the sections are summarised and then the Greek experience of the last 20 years in the same thematic area is set out.

2 SETTLEMENT POLICIES AND STRATEGIES

2.1 THE VANCOUVER PROPOSALS FOR NATIONAL POLICY

3

The central idea of the Vancouver proposals on human settlements was that each country must develop a national settlement strategy, embodying its policy on distribution of population and associated economic and social activities in the national territory. This strategy should constitute an integral part of national policy on economic and social development; it must promote a fairer regional distribution of the benefits of development, guarantee access of all social groups to these benefits, set the quality of life in human settlements as the first objective in distribution of conventional resources for development, and mobilise new resources, particularly manpower. From a methodological viewpoint, settlement strategy should focus on crucial matters and provide basic directions for action. It should be characterised by clarity, allroundedness and flexibility, and should be submitted to constant public evaluation.

2.2 NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES AND LAND-PLANNING POLICY

The practice of drawing up national 5-year development programmes became established in Greece at the end of the '50s, with limited results at the implementation stage. The same is true of political reinforcement of the country's regions, through provision of incentives and development of industry. But the regional planning content of national projects and incentives policy has been restricted, as has been their reference to a policy on the network of urban and rural centres. Proposals for such a policy made their appearance at the level of studies by competent planning bodies just before the period of the dictatorship (1967-74). The role of regional planning, including specific proposals on a national settlements policy, was reinforced much later after the adoption of the new Constitution in 1975 and after the Vancouver Conference.

2.3 THE 1975 CONSTITUTION

Article 24 of the 1975 Constitution, introduced into Parliament by the same political leadership that later submitted the Greek National Report to the 1976 Human Settlements Conference and represented this country in Vancouver, states that «The master plan of the country, and the formation, development town planning and expansion of towns and residential areas in general shall be under the regulatory authority and the control of the State...» The Constitution of 1975 ordains that laws be drawn up on regional planning, the environment and town planning, and these laws were enacted in the decade that followed.

2.4 THE NETWORK OF SETTLEMENTS

During this period, the matter of structure of the network of the country's settlements has been of great

concern from the point of government policy. It is a well-known fact that the dominant phenomenon in the process of urbanisation in Greece has been the growth of Athens and, to a much lesser degree, of Thessaloniki, always in relation to the backwardness of the remaining, much smaller, urban centres and to a very great extent of rural settlements. In the late 1970s, official policy laid stress on selective reinforcement of the most important urban poles, which were capable of playing a competitive role with regard to the two metropolitan centres. In contrast, during the '80s, the emphasis was shifted to the rural area and reinforcement of agglomerations of small centres capable of functioning as unified wholes, through complementary functions, in the form of «open towns». Despite the difficulty of translating policy at any given time into specific measures, there is no doubt that the country is developing a national settlement strategy. Legislative regulation now in progress expresses a synthesis of the above-mentioned policies.

2.5 REGIONAL PLANS

In the years following the Vancouver Conference, the element of space has been ever more present in national development programmes. A process is now under way of more effective incorporation of regional planning in economic and social planning. The 1976 law on regional planning institutes the drawing up of national and regional spatial planning projects. incorporated in the framework of economic and social development programmes, which determine the distribution and structure of population in relation to economic activities. In practice, the drawing up of these regional plans was never promoted, and when in certain cases plans were designed, their implementation was almost non-existent. But the law also established that special plans be drawn up, which in recent years are being systematically created for areas where protection of the natural environment and rural land is a priority. In 1984 coverage of Greek

territory with preliminary regional plans for the country's 54 Prefectures began on an experimental basis, but efforts in this direction were not continued. At the same time, in 1986, organisation of planning for development was placed on a new basis through the institution of national, regional and local development programmes and their counterparts in a new administrative structure, providing for 13 administrative regions and second-degree local government on the Prefectural level. The economic recession which was felt more and more as we moved into the '80s, proved to be detrimental to long-term planning, as it placed regional planning on a lower footing. The public finance crisis and the scarcity of investment resources make an urgent inflow of capital for infrastructure and modernisation of production imperative.

2.6 DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES AND THE EUROPEAN UNION

Greece's entry as a full member into the European Community in 1981 created new conditions for the national area, as well as for national development policy-making, particularly from the moment when it was decided to pursue a regional policy assisted by the structural funds, with a view to assisting less developed areas of the Community. Greece is among the so-called «Objective 1» areas, as a developmentally backward region in need of development and structural adjustment. The assistance of the European Community (later the European Union) is channelled through the Community Support Frameworks (CSFs), programmes through which it is agreed to reinforce investment projects submitted by the country concerned. The CSFs, i.e. the first CSF covering the period from 1989-93, and the second covering the period from 1994-99, are broken down into 13 Regional Operational Programmes (ROPs) and into sectoral operational programmes for industry, agriculture, the environment, etc. They have arisen out of the creation of a Regional Development Plan.

(RDP) for the country as a whole and for the 13 regions. This process, towards which the state machine central, regional and prefectural - has directed all its efforts over the last 8 years, has replaced the development planning process of the past, in the light of the fact that the CSF is now the mainstay of the country's development efforts.

Although a human settlement strategy does not constitute a separate part within the framework described above, nevertheless the structure of the CSF and the RDP on which it is based, places clear emphasis on the sectors stressed at Vancouver and the recommendations made there, i.e. on development of human resources and quality of city life. In addition, both through the CSF and through the Community Initiatives supported by the European Union, important goals set at Vancouver are promoted, such as care for marginalised social groups, e.g. repatriated refugees. The functioning of the planning instruments institutionalised in the mid-'80s, but put into operation at a slow pace, ensures democratic openness to a much greater degree than in the past. Nevertheless, there is no doubt that full coordination between economic and social policy and regional and city planning still has a long way to go, because administrative structures, planning procedures and the necessary experience and research have not yet reached the desired level of maturity.

SETTLEMENT PLANNING

3.1 GUIDELINES ON PLANNING CONTENT

The Vancouver recommendations for the planning sector of large and small settlements are not strictly confined to the settlement level. They recognise that decisions influencing the future of settlements are taken on all levels (national, regional, local or even neighbourhood) and require inclusion of residential and environmental planning in the process and priorities of economic and social planning at all levels,

with respect for the values of each locality. Projects, activities and resources of national importance should be the object of national settlement strategy, and the same holds for the distribution of population, e.g. certain economic sectors and important infrastructure. But on the regional level as well, the Vancouver recommendations insist on the necessity of regional planning of rural areas to reinforce their economic and social institutions and to overcome the disadvantaged status of scattered populations, as well as of metropolitan areas, through an integrated approach to all their functions. And finally, on the local level, planning should deal with social and economic factors, and with establishment of activities and longitudinal change in uses of physical space.

3.2 PLANNING AND METHODOLOGY

As on the level of national settlement strategy, so on the level of planning for them the Vancouver Action Plan did not fail to stress certain methodological aspects of planning. Thus stress is placed on the need for realistic evaluation and management of existing or «potential» available resources, including ecological and human resources, innovations and organisational structures, and skills of all social groups, even the most marginalised and disadvantaged persons. It should also be pointed out that planning is of a continuing, cyclical nature, and requires constant coordination, monitoring, evaluation and revision; it also needs to be responsive to the views of the groups and attracts.

3.3 CATEGORIES OF PLANNING

In the Action Plan of the 1976 United 1.01 ons Conference, recommendations were set 1.1 for all categories of town planning. Improvement 11 wisting settlements should be a continuing process monted toward improving living conditions, functional 11 for tures and environmental quality, with respect 11 for 1981 and expectations of the less advantable and

protection of the cultural and social values embodied in the settlement. In neighbourhoods, planning is focused on provision and the social character of services, installations and facilities needed in residents' daily life. Expansion of settlements, always within their regional planning framework, must be coordinated with their improvement, giving rise to comparable living conditions in old and new areas. But planning of new settlements must also be included in their regional framework, serving the purposes of the national strategy for settlements and development.

In the special case of rural settlements and planning for their upgrading, emphasis should be placed. according to the Vancouver guidelines, on the present and projected structure of rural employment and on appropriate distribution of opportunities for employment and services. The special category of mobile social groups and their spatial, socio-economic and cultural needs has need of special treatment, whereas all types of temporary settlements require attention from the standpoint of social needs and their long-term incorporation in the permanent settlement network. And in dealing with natural disasters, requirements include both preventive planning of settlements for minimising dangers from such disasters, and suitable planning for reconstruction after a disaster takes place, taking advantage of the opportunity to upgrade the settlement in general, for achieving long-term goals.

3.4 DEVELOPMENTS IN TOWN PLANNING IN GREECE

in the decade following the 1976 UN Conference there grew up a hierarchy of land-planning tools unheard of until that time in Greece. Although there were delays in the case of spatial planning, on the Prefectural and regional levels, as explained above, in the sector of town planning developments were swift. Establishment of a hierarchy of town-planning projects is connected in Greece with the pressing need to deal with the problem of spontaneous housing

development, i.e. unauthorised construction, without the permits required by law, mainly in areas outside the plan, i.e. beyond the limits of settlements covered by an approved town plan. It is therefore linked with the exercise of a land policy, which will be discussed further below, consisting of acquisition by the state of part of the property being included in the town plan, at precisely the moment this inclusion takes place.

An initial approach to the institution of two successive categories of town plans appeared in the new town-planning legislation of 1979, which was amended and finalised in 1983 and 1985. The final scheme is still inforce today, but is to be supplemented by an impending revision of town-planning legislation. The picture outlined in this chapter takes these supplements into consideration.

3.5 TYPES OF TOWN PLANS IN GREECE

Since 1983, the primary tool for town planning has been the General Town Plan (GTP), a plan for general development directions, covering all built-up areas, or areas scheduled to be built up, consisting of at least one municipality or commune. This plan determines into which areas the settlement will expand, to include areas which have already developed spontaneously without a sign, or other areas, in order to meet existing and anticipated demand. It is worth stressing here that in Greece settlements as a rule develop in the absence of planning, through individual efforts to meetineeds for accommodation or through profit-making activities. Recognition by the state usually sometrater, with legalisation of expansions often tar makess of real needs, with obvious unfavourable to atslight operative cost. Besides areas of exclusions, the GTP also determines land uses and zone: Which special conditions of development or assertion will exist.

Within the framework of the GTP and a scanning is then set in motion on the basis of a registry,

which results in the official town plan. This is binding on households, enterprises and public agencies in all their decisions in relation to building, or in general to the manner and intensity of land use. Detailed planning is barried out through a Town-planning Study as provided for by legislation, either on expansion of a settlement, or on revision of the town plan. In the town plan, street grids and lines of construction are set, together with the building-to-land ratios and conditions of building which regulate the permissible exploitation of land. In addition, in the case of large urban centres, already in 1985 in the metropolitan centres of Athens and Thessaloniki, and in the future in the main regional centres, regulatory plans are mandatory, i.e. strategic plans of broader scope which lay particular emphasis on environmental protection. Within the limits of those plans, general town plans and town-planning studies are drawn up of the municipalities making up the respective urban agglomerations. In the regulatory plans, zones, axes and uses of major importance are also mapped out.

3.6 AREAS OUTSIDE THE PLAN AND RURAL SETTLEMENTS

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In the areas outside the plan, which are not covered by an approved town plan, construction is permitted under special conditions which keep its density down to very low levels. In particular, the areas around settlements but outside the plan or even within the limits of the regulatory plan of major centres are controlled by declaring them to be «zones of controlled settlement», and as such subject to restrictive ordinances whose chief objective is protection of the environment. The same tool is used in the special master plans already mentioned, where protection of rural space, sensitive ecosystems and the natural environment in general is of primary importance.

Beyond the above general categories of plans, there are also particular categories for meeting the needs of town-planning organisation, e.g. of small rural

settlements or resort areas, whereas special ordinances are in effect for traditional settlements of great historical or architectural interest. As far as small rural settlements are concerned, the policy of «open towns» already referred to has now taken the form of a specific tool for town planning, through the impending establishment of single plans for the complexes of settlements coming under this heading, a policy aimed at revitalising these settlements.

3.7 TOWN PLANNING AND REGIONAL PLANNING

The structure of town plans we have described is obviously aimed at incorporating town-planning development decisions at the local level in a planning hierarchy. Of course, it presupposes the existence of regional and prefectural master plans, a deficiency that was dealt with from within when in 1983 an ambitious effort known as the «Town-Planning Reorganisation Operation» was begun, to provide all settlements with overall town plans and town-planning studies; it is now almost complete. In the intervening years, all the efforts of the competent services, together with a corresponding mobilisation of the potential of private research bureaus, were primarily directed towards this effort, concentrating much less on the level of regional planning. This certainly did not help link town planning with economic planning on the national and regional levels. The increasing emphasis during the last two years on regional planning, due in part to the impact of the European Union's territorial development policy, will restore the balance to a great degree -

3.8 THE ENVIRONMENT IN CITIES

Another sector fowards which town-planning all by is gradually turning is improvement of the environment in cities, in contrast to the emphasis which as the environment in whas been placed on expansions of settlements to sarry to deal with the problem of areas of which as the building around large as well as medium-size: small urban centres. This policy takes the form of the environment of

to improve the urban environment, combat pollution, protect the architectural heritage, upgrade neighbourhoods and preserve their particular character, improve urban transport (extreme examples of which are the Athens and Thessaloniki underground railways), and urban rehabilitation. With regard to the latter, the reform of town-planning legislation now under way is creating new interventionary tools.

3.9 PLANNING PROCESSES

The procedure for drawing up town-planning studies has become the object of regulation, with the establishment of specifications and standards, so as to ensure a single high quality and provide a guarantee that town planning will take into consideration the crucial matters of social and economic developments, financing of its implementation, technical infrastructures, and citizen participation, a subject broached in another part of this chapter.

These specifications also aim at dealing with a settlements' shortage of social service greas. Mechanisms for implementing plans and ensuring necessary resources have been an object of particular interest for the state and have become an inseparable part of town planning, as is also stated in the section on land policy. This does not mean that no problems remain of implementation and observance of plans; such problems are also linked to the shortage of resources, in a time of public finance crisis, and to the resistance of the average citizen to the state's regulatory functions. Violation of these regulations and the resulting difficulty in implementing government policy remain social problems requiring constant information, education, and promotion of the advantages of socially oriented planning.

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3.10 SPECIAL CASES OF TOWN PLANNING

Special problems were encountered in the sector of rehabilitation of refugees and repatriated Greeks,

where only now is the extent of the difficulties is realised and experiences put to use. At any rate, programmes are under way to integrate and provide housing for the above groups, and it is hoped that progress will be made. The same is true, although there have been some cases of success, of the matter of rehabilitation after natural disasters. especially earthquakes. Greece was able to successfully overcome large-scale earthquake disasters in important urban centres, such as the 1986 Kalamata earthquake. It is also currently dealing with rehabilitation efforts in various parts of Greece, both in urban centres and in rural settlements. Although there is plenty of room for improvement, the state's ability to respond has been strengthened, whereas a prevention plan is slowly getting under way.

SHELTER, INFRASTRUCTURE AND SERVICES

4.1 THE VANCOUVER CONFERENCE AND THE PROBLEMS OF HOUSING

The recommendations contained in this part of the Vancouver Action Plan refer mainly to provision of shelter and the necessary accompanying infrastructure and services. They also refer to more specific topics, such as housing standards. construction in the so-called «informa» sector of the economy which predominates on the Third World, the construction industry, the needs of lowincome classes and self-help in sequing shelter. As has already been stated, we was a sepand, in this chapter, on the Greek experience and policies in the housing sector. However, in the weart text of the Action Plan, it is recognised to a settlements constitute the framework within an in people's needs and expectations are fulfilled. pordance with the principles of human a man and that provision of housing is merely ment of concern for life in a human comm. at is why recommendations of interest to <amined in this chapter as well.

4.2 HOUSING AND SETTLEMENTS

The most important of the Vancouver recommendations is that efforts must be made to reorganise, from an environmental and city-planning point of view, the spontaneous, i.e. unplanned, unauthorised settlements, while providing in parallel the necessary services. This will encourage local initiative, and the marginalised societies in these settlements will be incorporated in the process of national development. Also of relevance to this endeavour, although it does not concern unauthorised settlements only, is the hope to adapt provision of health, education, security, transport and recreation services to local needs and to extend these services to all scattered rural settlements. The need to protect the environment of settlements is also stressed, in relation to solid waste management and pollution by vehicles; for that reason a turn towards mass transport as well as use of the transport system in a way that will benefit the desirable spatial urban development are also sought for.

4.3 UNAUTHORISED BUILDING IN GREECE

Dealing with the phenomenon of unauthorised building was always and is still today one of the basic priorities of housing and city-planning policy. The phenomenon was formerly extremely widespread in peri-urban zones of primary housing and later spread to resort areas of second homes, where more and more unauthorised permanent houses are now appearing. Areas of unauthorised housing, erected without a building permit. usually on building plots that are privately owned but of very small dimensions, the product of illegal subdivision into building lots, were for a long time the typical case. It was difficult to secure land for social services, the road network and free space and the municipalities concerned had insufficient means to expropriate land. Demolition of illegal buildings was socially unfeasible, but the continuation of unauthorised activity, without city-planning regulations, created social problems just as great. City-planning regulations in the decade following the Vancouver Conference, as described above, were aimed at dealing with these problems.

4.4 POLICY FOR DEALING WITH THE PHENOMENON OF UNAUTHORISED DEVELOPMENT

The policy adopted in Greece had on general lines three components. The first was legalisation of unauthorised buildings, but with a financial charge for reasons of social justice. It was in fact accompanied by recognition of the role played by unauthorised building in the growth of cities, providing an outlet, albeit in an anarchic way, to pressures for shelter. The second component was, in parallel to legalisation, planned inclusion of areas which had grown up spontaneously in the city plan. This undertaking, which has already been mentioned, was known as the «Urban Reorganisation Operation». The third component was the machinery for acquisition of the land and economic resources to create in the extensions of settlements the necessary areas for public use or public utilities and to install the necessary infrastructure. Even though great progress has been made in implementing this policy, the problems of unauthorised subdivision of land outside the city, plan, unauthorised building, even in areas within the plan, and unauthorised use of land still remain. Although this problem is associated with the public's general attitude towards the laws and functions of the state, it is always a high-priority object of city-planning policy.

4.5 PROVISION OF SOCIAL SERVICES AND INFRASTRUCTURE

Adequate provision of social services has been a policy concern in a broad spectrum of sectors of government activity, and it cannot be completely covered in this report. However, an indication of this are the efforts to create infrastructure in the health sector, in the framework of a National Health System, established in the '80s. This infrastructure is based on

a spatially-planned distribution of regional hospitals and local health centres. The diminishing demographic growth of small rural settlements creates a problem in supply of services to all settlements. Efforts are being made to deal with this problem, both through improving transport infrastructure, and though grouping settlements together and unifying planning for them; reference has already been made to this. There has been great progress, however, in improving electricity and telecommunications Infrastructure.

The environment of settlements suffers from problems regarding infrastructure, mainly that of sewerage and solid waste management. This is a sector where big investments have been made since the mid-'80s, with a great degree of assistance from the Community Support Framework of the European Union. Particular emphasis is placed on large cities and ecologically sensitive zones. Similar emphasis is put on public investment programmes in urban transport infrastructure, such as large road-works, and principally the Athens underground railway, as well as in reorganisation of public transport.

5 LAND

5.1 THE IMPORTANCE OF LAND IN DEVELOPMENT OF SETTLEMENTS AND THE VANCOUVER PRINCIPLES

The basic principle of the Vancouver Action Plan is that land plays such a vital role in development of settlements that urban land cannot be regarded as ordinary fixed capital. As a result, uncontrolled, excessive use and exploitation of landed property cannot be left to market functioning. That is why the authorities must have knowledge of territorial distribution and property boundaries, why there must be legislation to delimit individual property rights in relation to the common good and why suitable tools must be devised to transfer to the whole of society the unearned increment arising from changes in use

of land, from social development in general and from public investments and decisions.

5.2 CONTROL OF LAND

Within the framework of the above principles, the 1976 Action Plan proposes public control and monitoring of land, treating it as a scarce resource, particularly when its use shifts from rural to urban, together with creation of a public system of records and information on landed property, so as to ensure the best possible decisions for the future and the modernisation of the often outdated system of property relations, and to bring it into line with contemporary social needs. The Plan also recommends confiscation, in favour of society as a whole, of the socially-created unearned increment, unless total land expropriation is called for; accumulation of public property when needed for reasons of protection, even development, and combating profiteering in land; and protection of land useful to agriculture or suitable for other forms of use. with parallel prevention of disruption of the ecological equilibrium.

5.3 LAND PROBLEMS IN GREECE

There are many characteristics and problems relating to landed property in Greece, which create difficulties in the exercise of settlement policy. As an indication of this, we would mention disputes over titles dating from the time of the Ottoman occupation, extensive trespasses on public land and the inability of the state in the first decades of its existence to control them, citizens' clinging to ownership of land as a form of social insurance against unforeseeable individual family exigencies, the lack, even today, of a national land registry, low taxation of real estate, and the priority given by society to individual as opposed to societal goods. On the subject of securing land within settlements to meet social needs, there has for decades been an objective inability of local government to pay

compensation for expropriation of land, even in areas newly included in the city plan.

5.4 LAND POLICY IN GREECE AND THE MACHINERY OF CONTRIBUTIONS OF LAND

Developments of the last 20 years regarding this matter constitute a decisive break with the past. Thanks to provisions of the new 1975 Constitution and to the city-planning legislation which followed, it became possible for the first time to impose a substantial contribution in land and in money on owners of land being included for the first time in the town plan. This contribution, which accrues to local government organisations, gives them the ability to provide adequate space for social uses and to secure a significant part of the social unearned increment of the land. Special machinery for transferring these contributions has been developed; it includes drawing up of «deeds of implementation», i.e. special plans for implementation of town-planning studies on the land, with the necessary adjustment of property boundaries, accompanied by relevant calculations of contributions according to size of property and necessary social facilities. Despite initial difficulties, mainly due to the lack of a land registry, there has been significant progress in implementing plans.

5.5 OTHER LAND POLICY TOOLS

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Land contribution procedure is not the only land policy tool. Building-to-land ratios in themselves, which regulate quantitative parameters of land development, are determining factors for the value of land. Legislative regulations of the last 20 years have gradually restricted the ability to over-exploit land, together with inflationary trends in real estate values in fact, in the case of buildings protected from unseemly development for historical or aesthetic reasons, it became possible to transfer the building-to-land ratio which could not be used by the owner to another building. In other words, the right to develop,

which the owner cannot exploit to the full, can be transferred to another piece of property, under certain conditions. In cases where it is justified by reasons of public utility, it is possible to expropriate real estate, e.g. for road building or creation of social infrastructure, but even for organised industrial zones.

With a view to reinforcing the state's ability to acquire land, public bodies have been allowed, under certain conditions, to exercise the right of preference in real estate transactions. In the framework of approved general fown plans, zones can be set aside for future development, either in the form of active town-planning zones, which allow unification of titles of ownership and extensive renewal of an urban zone, or in the form of zones of «urban reparceling», which allow property to be laid out anew and redistributed. Important land policy measures included establishment of the obligation to enter transfers of real estate on tax declarations and determination of objective values of real estate, which are taken into consideration in taxation of property transfers.

5.6 LAND REGISTRY

The most important step, however, in the evolution of land policy in Greece will be the creation of a National Land Registry, a project which has already begun and is being financed by the Second Community Support Framework. Its manifest goals are the protection of public property and facilitation of future city-planning and regional planning regulations, which today are hampered by property disputes. The project's usefulness obviously does not concern urban and peri-urban zones, but rather rural and forested areas.

5.7 PROTECTION OF THE COUNTRYSIDE AND THE ENVIRONMENT

The objective of protecting rural territory and the countryside has been promoted since 1986, both through the passage of legislation for protection of the

environment, and of course through special legislation on forests and coastal areas. But this is a sector in which there is still much to be done; for that reason special regulations on Greece's important wildlife sanctuaries and improvements in tools, admittedly inadequate, for protecting high-productivity agricultural land are expected in the immediate future. Constant information and mobilisation of public opinion on the significance of these regulations, leading to an understanding of the impasse to which the pursuit of one-sided benefits from profiteering in land leads: in the end, this is the only way to win the land-policy battle. However, that is not to say that it is not necessary to strengthen the machinery for imposing the regulations decided on by the state.

CITIZEN PARTICIPATION

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6.1 THE HUMAN FACTOR IN THE VANCOUVER RECOMMENDATIONS

The starting-point for the Vancouver proposals in this unit is the fact that collective efforts by the public and the administration are a necessary precondition for any effective action in human settlements. The work that must be taken up is so complex that it cannot possibly be carried out without enlisting the interest, intelligence and skills of citizens, who usually constitute unexploited resources for development. So there is need for truly democratic processes and cooperation with all the social groups, many of which are normally excluded from these processes.

6.2 PARTICIPATION IN THE PLANNING PROCESS

A logical consequence of the above starting-point, clearly set out in the recommendations of the Conference, is the fact that there is need for a process of settlement planning that will allow the greatest possible degree of participation, both in elaborating plans and strategy, as well as in making and implementing decisions. Preconditions include the free circulation of information;

mutual understanding between the administration and social groups, and incorporation in this process even of those people who traditionally had no participation. If one takes account of the fluidity of social relationships and needs, it becomes obvious that new mechanisms for participation and social awareness are necessary as inputs to all categories of decisions on human settlements, but primarily to influence the use of resources for improving conditions and quality of life.

6.3 DEMOCRATIC INSTITUTIONS AND ACTIVATION OF THE PUBLIC IN GREECE

Smooth functioning of democratic institutions in Greece, after the collapse in 1974 of the dictatorial regime and the strengthening of local government, has been the main factor in ensuring more effective participation of the Greek public in dealing with the problems of their towns and villages. Although securing these conditions is the primary prerequisite for any sort of participation, there is no doubt that voting in elections is not sufficient to activate the human factor. Such activation is first of all a matter of political education, but various reforms in the local government sector and in the processes of town planning after 1983 have played an important role in this direction. We are forced to admit, however, that participation expressed only occasionally or when someone's interests are at stake is not fundamental participation, which requires that the public change its attitude towards the functions of the state.

6.4 PARTICIPATION AND LOCAL GOVERNMENT

The period under examination was marked by progress in the direction of transfer of competencies from central administration to the elected local governments. In the beginning it was hesitant, but became more decisive in the recent past, particularly after the election in 1994 of prefectural administrations, i.e. second-level local government, which will be discussed below. Soon important competencies for

approval of town plans will be transferred to these new authorities. Local government has been enriched with new institutions on the level of the prefectures, coalitions of municipalities and communes (in the form, redently, of area councils), districts of municipalities, neighbourhood councils, municipal corporations and development companies, which offer many more opportunities of activating the public. The approval procedure for general town plans and town-planning studies includes opportunities for the public to receive information through public presentations and discussions, as well as to voice objections.

6.5 THE ENVIRONMENT AND PROTEST MOVEMENTS

The sector in which mobilisation of the public has recently been developing most strongly is protection of the environment. The dramatic deterioration of environmental conditions in cities and the damage suffered by the natural landscape in the countryside and in the man-made environment in many historic settlements and neighbourhoods by unauthorised activity, public works or profiteering activities, has brought about a healthy, albeit limited, reaction on the part of environmental organisations and movements by members of the public. Although the reactions are often due to political motives, in an effort to preserve privileges or in a senseless defence of local interests, awareness of the importance of protecting the urban and natural environment is a positive development. The extension of potential for participation to the great mass of indifferent citizens, particularly members of special categories such as immigrants and repatriated refugees, should be a future objective.

INSTITUTIONS AND MANAGEMENT

7.1 THE VANCOUVER THESES ON MANAGEMENT AND INSTITUTIONS

Planning and implementation of effective interventions in human settlements are neutralised by the lack of

appropriate tools, i.e. political, administrative and technical institutions, legislative framework, regulatory instruments and institutionalised procedures for freeing necessary resources for development. Having noted this, the Vancouver Conference concurred on the relevant chapter of the Action Plan which refers to schemes of administration and government, correspondence of agencies and available resources, financing, particularly for works slow to yield results, current legislation, training of administrative officers, influence of models from more developed countries and finally management of the workforce.

In the recommendations of the Action Plan note is made first of all of the need for policy and implementation agencies on settlement matters, at all levels of public administration, for coordination of such agencies with all those responsible for national social and economic development and environmental policy, as well as adaptation of existing agencies to the changing conditions of settlements in each country. This may require that institutions and agencies be created to resolve newly emerged, short-term problems, but they need not remain in existence when the reason they were formed ceases to exist

7.2 AVAILABLE RESOURCES AND DEVELOPMENT

Several recommendations of the Vancouver Action Plan refer to the subject of necessary resources in the broad sense of the word. It is stressed that not only are special financing regulations and adequate means for fulfilling needs of settlements required, but also that there is a need for management of all available resources with imagination and flexibility of response to problems, and that the human resources involved in scientific research, acquisition of knowledge and dissemination of information must be exploited effectively. For the social groups and citizens involved, the Conference called for institutions to facilitate participation and procedures to guarantee that the resources made available and the benefits that arise

do indeed reach those whom planning has sought to benefit from the beginning. For those and other reasons, the legal framework must have clear, realistic aims and must secure the means to implement the relevant policy.

7.3 PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION IN GREECE

Developments in Greece from the viewpoint of the creation and organisation of planning and implementing agencies have not been as swift as the establishment of new planning tools has been. Reforms in public administration, far from attaining the maturity of administration of countries which have functioned longer as a national state, need more time. A negative influence is also exerted by the shortage of resources in a period of public finance crisis, as well as by the lack of trained professionals. These deficiencies are associated with school, university and professional education, where there are still undoubtedly many problems. Nevertheless it is a fact that a full structure of agencies and organisations with important competencies in the sector of spatial development and settlements is gradually being completed.

7.4 SPATIAL PLANNING AND CENTRAL ADMINISTRATION IN GREECE

A short time after the United Nations Conference in 1976, the place of town and spatial planning, settlement policy and environmental protection was upgraded in central administration through the creation of a special ministry. Even though later that ministry merged with the Ministry of Public Works, forming the present Ministry of the Environment, Regional Planning and Public Works, there is no doubt that the presence of those sectors in governmental activity is today incomparably stronger in relation to the pre-Vancouver period. But special state organisations were also created, and they constitute an important presence in spatial development matters. They include the State Land Corporation, formed to manage the state's real

property, and the Public Corporation for Urban Development and Housing (DEPOS), whose field of action is middle- and low-income housing.

7.5 REGIONS AND PREFECTURES

On the regional level, 13 regional administrations were created; they are the General Secretariats of the Regions, which are already playing a major role in programming and managing the regional operational programmes of the Community Support Frameworks. On the level of the 54 Prefectures, power passed early in 1995 from the appointed Prefects to elected prefectural administrations, to which many competencies of the Minister of the Environment are already being transferred. In the large cities, Athens and Thessaloniki, special organisations for strategic planning and protection of the environment have been created, and this institution will soon be extended to other large centres. Many small rural communities have joined together in single municipalities in order to ensure greater effectiveness. A new institution of area councils was created, to ensure more effective cooperation between small municipalities and communes. Municipalities and leagues of municipalities were given the ability to form development corporations to assist them in their development work, to form corporations with entrepreneurial or construction activity, to develop activities without the guardianship of central administration and its representatives, and to assume city-planning responsibilities, even when assumption of such responsibilities meets with difficulties.

7.6 MANAGEMENT OF PROJECTS AND PROGRAMMES

Development of regions and settlements increasingly requires that complex projects and programmes be carried out, ranging from the renewal of cities to integrated programmes for development of backward rural areas. Planning and management of such programmes require advanced administrative and

organisational structures, and they must be suitably staffed with highly qualified officials. Although difficulties are being encountered in this sector, the collaboration of the public and private sectors, which has already developed into large projects and programmes forming part of the Community Support Framework, is a step in the right direction. Training programmes have also been successfully promoted, whereas collaboration of government services with universities or research centres is being developed to a great extent.

Management of major projects and programmes is effected through the creation of ad hoc bodies, formed for a specific purpose and with a specific lifespan, usually through collaboration between the private sector and flexible operational organisations. This has already taken place for major infrastructure projects, such as the Athens underground railway, the new Athens airport and the creation of a land registry; it is also

being promoted for important urban renewal projects, such as the one in the Eleonas industrial zone in Athens, which is also an example of close collaboration between government services and university research centres in the sector of city planning.

7.7 ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICIALS AND TRAINING

Creation of professional staff, in the sector of spatial planning and urban administration, is a long-term goal requiring cooperation between administration and institutions of higher learning. New university departments have already been created in the respective scientific fields, and post-graduate city- and regional planning studies are being promoted, albeit with some delay. From the mid-'80s, university research into spatial matters has been supported by the Ministry of the Environment as well as by the General Secretariat for Research and Technology; European Union programmes have also provided major assistance.

APPENDIX 3

IMPLEMENTATION OF THE EARTH SUMMIT'S "AGENDA 21" AND OF THE GLOBAL STRATEGY FOR SHELTER FOR THE YEAR 2000

IMPLEMENTATION OF AGENDA 21

The Global Action Plan for the transition to sustainable development, known as Agenda 21, is one of the most important achievements of the UN Conference held in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, in 1992. The forty chapters of Agenda 21, which set out the framework for global action, cover vital questions which have, to a greater or lesser degree, a direct or indirect impact on human settlements. Such questions include dealing with poverty, demographic equilibrium, protection and improvement of health, integration of environmental and developmental interests in the decision-making system, protection of the atmosphere, biodiversity, an integrated approach to planning and management of natural resources and land, management of sensitive ecosystems, etc.

More particularly, Chapter 7 of Agenda 21 deals with promotion of sustainable development of human settlements, and includes specific actions for the following sectors:

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- Provision of adequate housing for all, through development of cooperation between the state and the private and community sectors,
- Improvement of management of human settlements, through improvement of urban management, reduction of urban poverty, assistance for creation of databases, and encouragement for development of towns of medium size,

- Promotion of sustainable planning and management of land uses,
- Promotion of an integrated provision for environmental infrastructure: water, sanitary installations, sewerage and management of solid wastes,
- Promotion of sustainable systems of energy, transport and communications,
- Promotion of planning for human settlements and management of areas susceptible to natural disasters,
- Promotion of activities of a sustainable construction industry, with no negative effects on health or on the biosphere,
- Promotion of development of the human factor and creation of skills for development and management of human settlements

In most of the above sectors for action relevant policies which vary as to range and scape have been implemented in Greece since the 1980s, through programmes on the national and regional scale. One landmark in the creation and development of such policies was the 1975 Constitution of the endoment is the right and obligation of every Greek above in execution of a constitutional imperative, Statute 150 on the environment was put into effections. This law determined the framework for development is the policies and programmes in the policies which individual policies and programmes.

which implement the principles and objectives set out later in Agenda 21. It has been observed that many of the programmes implemented have lacked the necessary cohesion and coordination with each other, and this has had an influence on their effectiveness.

A decisive role in gathering such policies and programmes together in one single framework for action, where specific objectives are coordinated with the principles of sustainability, has been played by the relevant programmes of the European Union and its initiatives for supporting the less developed countries of the Union, through the well-known Community Support Frameworks. Both the First Community Support Framework (for the 1989-93 period) and the Second Community Support Framework (for the 1994-99 period), which happen to coincide with the time framework in which Agenda 21 appeared and in which it is to be implemented, have made it possible to mobilise significant financial resources in widescale interventions for the environment and remodelling of settlements, which also implement relevant Community directives for promotion of sustainable development. A large part of the basic infrastructure works being carried out today, which are also included in Greece's National Action Plan for Cities and Housing, receive economic support from the Second Community Support Framework and the Cohesion Fund of the EU, with broad positive impacts.

In conclusion, therefore, it may be said that Agenda 21 has had, both directly and indirectly, a very positive and very significant influence on the orientation of national policies and actions according to its principles and specific provisions. Alongside this, the principles of Agenda 21 and the guidelines for action to achieve sustainable development have been adopted and are being actively promoted by the agencies of central administration, the most important of which is the Ministry of the Environment, Regional Planning and Public Works. A similar mobilisation may also be observed on the side of non-governmental organisations concerned

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with the sector of settlements and housing, among them the Association of Greek City and Regional Planners. Particular interest and emphasis are placed on expanding and implementing the above principles at the local level, first of all by mobilising local government, with the objective of adapting local operational programmes of municipalities and communes to the model of Agenda 21.

It should, however, be mentioned that the national mobilisation to implement Agenda 21 differs in the degree and intensity of intervention in each sector of action, for example, in sectors related to the social and institutional dimension of policies for sustainable development of settlements and housing. The reasons for this response have already been stated in Part B of the National Report; mainly they have to do with lack of experience in practices of integrated planning, with failure to achieve the planned coordination of action of the public and private sectors, and with the economic conjuncture of the 1990s, which demands significant cutbacks in public spending. But the prospects with regard to the degree of implementation of the principles and proposals of Agenda 21 with reference to development of settlements on the national level will in large part depend on the successful completion of the actions forming part of the Second Community Support Framework of the EU, as well as on the acaptation and coordination of the action of agencies of central administration in this direction.

2 IMPLEMENTATION OF THE GLOBAL STRATEGY FOR SHELTER FOR THE YEAR 2000

The Global Strategy for Shelter for the Year 1.13 (GSS) was approved by Resolution No. 43/18 1.13 of the UN General Assembly, after initiatives taken by the UN Centre for Human Settlements (Habitation for the main purpose of facilitating provision 1.13 and it constitutes one of the two basic object 1.13 (GSS)

Habitat II Conference, and is being integrated in the framework of its global action plan.

The basic principles of the GSS relate to the following subjects:

- to the right to adequate and suitable housing, as confirmed by Resolution 42/146/1987 of the UN General Assembly, entitled "Implementation of the Right to Adequate Shelter",
- to support for and utilisation of the potential and resources of all sectors in the production of housing and improvement of the housing situation (enabling approach), giving individuals the opportunity to improve their housing conditions, according to the needs and priorities defined by them,
- to assistance for low-income groups of citizens, especially those living in sub-standard housing, for acquisition of suitable shelter, through national policies and programmes,
- in integration of the contribution women can make in the process of housing production.

The impact of the above principles of the GSS on Greek housing policy could be judged to be limited in degree, in the sense that to date no initiatives have been put forward on the formulation of a single national housing policy alongside these lines. Various factors may explain this situation. One of the most important is that the housing question in Greece is not considered, on the political level, to be a matter of top priority, because from the quantitative point of view Greece displays high rates of owner occupation, self-housing and basic sanitary and safety services, in comparison with other developed countries. This is affected by the lack of a common Community housing policy in the framework of the EU, which would act as a catalyst in formulation of a relevant national policy, as has been the case in other sectors. On the contrary, the need for economic stabilisation and reduction in public spending demanded in the context of policies for economic convergence among the countries of the EU, acts as a restraint in the shelter

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sector. In addition, another factor is that, in general, current Greek policy on housing and residential development already displays a significant degree of conformity to the above principles, despite the fact that, as stated in Part B of the National Report, there is no appropriate administrative body in this country to map out a unified housing policy. Fragmentation is also noted in the implementation of housing policy by many bodies from the point of view of competencies, which are exercised with a loose degree of coordination.

With reference to the implementation in Greece of the principles and directions of the GSS, the following general observations have been made:

- The right to adequate housing provided for by the GSS is established institutionally in the Greek Constitution for every Greek citizen, regardless of race, creed, social group or age. The Constitution also explicitly provides for the intervention of the state to assist economically disadvantaged groups with regard to housing.
- Promotion of the principle of assisting interested groups in acquisition of housing (enabling approach), was being implemented even before the GSS was formulated, with a gradual decrease in government intervention in direct provision of housing, which was, to be sure aways very restricted in Greece, together with an increase in supportive regulatory and planning interventions. Indicative of this is the case of the Town-Planning Reorganisation Coercian (EPA), promoted by the Ministry of the Environment, Planning and Public Works from the cheginning of the 1980s on a national scae . The of the important state initiatives giving : For picture of this frend. The EPA is a co-"amme of institutional recognition of the . total of unplanned peri-urban and ≛ th-home housing development of the 'c:' ars, which is gradually making it possible to careas of thousands of families to acquire in nich has

already been organised according to a town plan. It also implements planned interventions for upgrading such areas operationally, socially and environmentally. In addition, bank lending for housing is becoming more widespread, and regulatory interventions for providing safety, sanitation, economy, energy saving, care for persons with special needs, and a host of other relevant provisions and programmes make a positive contribution to the realisation of the same apadl.

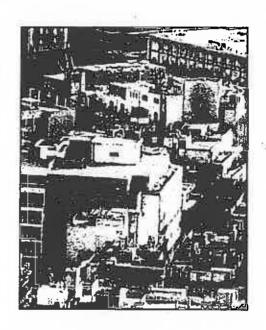
 In order to assist low-income groups of citizens in acquisition of shelter, it was observed that through the people's housing programmes of the Ministry of Health and Welfare, implemented up to the end of the 1980s, shanties have been completely eliminated from cities. Today, relevant welfare support in the form of housing for financially underprivileged population groups is being exercised through various state programmes which provide financial assistance and facilities for acquisition or improvement of shelter, rentals, etc.

From the above, it becomes clear that the GSS and other Habitat initiatives developed after the Vancouver Conference have had an indirect but significant impact on the creation of relevant individual policies in Greece.

The conclusions and problems of the housing situation in Greece set out in Part B of the National Report show the scale on which and the sectors in which interventionary and regulatory initiatives must be taken, mainly on the part of the state. In response to the above, Greece's National Action Plan has provided a relevant framework for action in the direction of the realisation of the objective of the GSS and the Habitat II Conference for adequate housing for all, based on the strategy of assisting and facilitating citizens in meeting their housing needs.

ADDENDUM

URBAN AND HOUSING KEY INDICATORS FOR GREECE AND ATHENS



BACKGROUND DATA

URBAN INDICATORS

HOUSING INDICATORS

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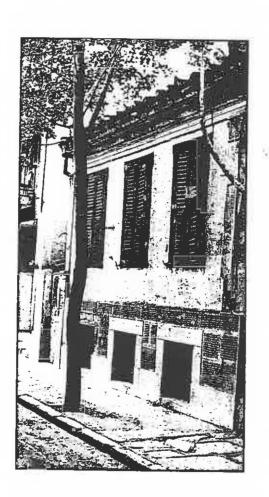
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PART A: BACKGROUND DATA



■ Indicator D1: 1991 Land Use (in square kilometres)

	Athens(1)	Attica Prefecture (2)	National
Residential (3)	322.4	741.1	5,303.2
Agricultural (4)	12.3	947.7	39,436.6
Other (5)	122.0	2,119.3	87.217.7
Total	456.7	3,808.1	131,957.4

Source: National Statistical Service of Greece (ESYE), 1991 Census

Notes:

- (1) The Greater Athens Area (G.A.A.) is used as the "metropolitan area" which, according to the instructions of Habitat II, is defined as the set of formal local government areas which are normally taken to comprise the city as a whole.
- (2) The Attica Prefecture does not fit the definition of «urban area», as specified in the instructions of Habitat II (built-up or densely populated area containing the city proper, suburbs, and continuously settled commuter areas). It will, however, be used as a reference area, given the fact that it functions as a unified whole for activities such as employment, second homes, etc.
- (3) The ESYE does not distinguish between residential (authorised or unauthorised), commercial or industrial, and transport, as specified in the instructions of Habitat II. These uses are recorded generally in the category "settlements".
- (4) Includes only land under cultivation and fallow land.
- (5) Includes grazing land, forests, water and other areas.

■ Indicator D2: 1991 Population by sex

1991 Population: 10,259,900 1981 Population: 9,739,589

	Male	Female	Total
City of Athens			772,072
Greater Athens area	1,463,714	1,609,208	3,072,922
Attica Prefecture			3,523,407
National	5,055,408	5,204,492	10,259,900

Source: ESYE, 1981, 1991 Censuses

Notes:

- (1) Because households travel to their ancestral homes to be counted in censuses, the population of the Greater Athens Area is deemed to be systematically underestimated in general censuses.
- (2) Included in the population of Attica Prefecture are the islands which administratively fall within the boundaries of Piraeus Nomarchy.

■ Indicator D3: Annual growth in population 1981-1991 (%)

• Greater Athens Area 0.15

• National 0.52

Source: ESYE, 1981, 1991 Censuses

■ Indicator D4 : Woman headed households (%)

	1988	1991
, Greater Athens area	22.27 .	
National	17.29	20.25

Sources: ESYE, 1991 Census

ESYE, 1987/88 Family Budget Survey

■ Indicator D5 : Average household size, 1991

Greater Athens Area 2.79

National 2.97

Intermediate variables:

Total households: • Greater Athens Area 1,026,334

• National 3,203,834

Source: ESYE, 1991 Census

■ Indicator D6: Household formation rate - Annual rate of growth 1981-1991

• Greater Athens Area 0.30 %

• National 0.75 %

Source: ESYE, 1981, 1991 Censuses

■ Indicator D7 : Household distribution by level of expenditure*

a) Greater Athens Area

Quintile	Interval (US	\$)	Average annual expediture (US\$)
Ť.	14.69 - 8,1	63.56	5,628.14
2	8,165.42 - 13,0	13.61	10,635.56
3	13,024.87 - 17,9	17.80	15,435.50
4	17,934.15 - 25,5	67.46	21,245.77
5	25,608.00 - 115,0	93.62	36,797.60
••			17,946.78

b) National

Quintile	Inte	rval (US\$)	Average annual expediture (US\$)
1	14.68	- 6,998.88	4,671.31
2.	7,002.40	- 11,160.16	9,033.18
3	11,164.66	- 15,852.58	13,471.51
4	15,854.64	- 22,655.75	18,955.04
5	22,667.89	- 115,093.62	32,798.63
			15,785.45

(*) As a proxy of household income distribution

Source: ESYE, 1987/88 Family Budget Survey. The amounts have been adjusted to 1993 US dollars.

■ Indicator D8: Greater Athens Area - Per capita gross product

Attica Prefecture

Gross Domestic Product 1991 (1)

Drs.3,797,610 million

Population 1991

3,523,407

Per capita GDP 1991

Drs.1,077,823

1993 US\$6,027

Sector of econo- mic activity	GDP 1991	National employment 1991	Greater Athens Area Employment 1991	Wage ratio	Greater Athens Area GDP
Sectors 1,2	11,050.44	684,050	6,148		
Sectors 3,4,5	15,725.80	837,663	264,876	1.00	
Sectors 6,7	12,133.43	894,906	328,043		
Sector 8 -	1,955.52	205,351	104,448		
Services (2)	13,832.63	450,102	179,845		
Administration (3)	7,221.09	293,254	116,955		
Other		=			
Total	61,918.91	3,571,057	1,086,091		

Sources: National Accounts, 1993 ESYE, 1991 Census

Notes:

- (1) Gross Domestic Product for Attica Prefecture is taken from the journal Epilogi, Economic Review 1994.
- (2) Included in employment in services are the sectors of Health and Social Welfare, Education, Provision of Services and domestic staff, public enterprises and entities.
- (3) Also included in public administration employment are those employed in mandatory social insurance organisations.

■ Indicator D9: Tenure type

Greater Athens Area - Percentage of households	1981	1991
Owned (1)	52.69	63.88
Rental (2)	42.18	31.69
Other (3)	3.51	4.26
Total in regular housing	98.38	99.83
In non-regular (4)	1.54	0.03
In collective housing (5)	0.08	0.14
Total households	100.00	100.00

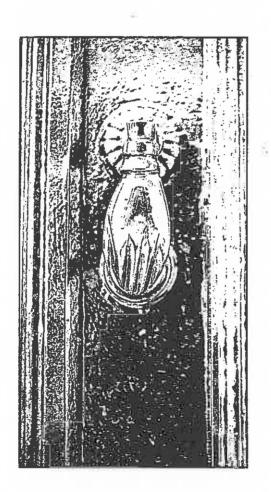
National - Percentage of households	1981	1991
Owned (1)	68.55	75.09
Rental (2)	26.34	20.33
Other (3)	3.74	4.23
Total in regular housing	98.63	99.64
In non-regular (4)	1.28	0.18
in collective housing (5)	0.09	0.17
Total households	100.00	100.00

Source: ESYE, 1981, 1991 Censuses

Notes:

- (1) Also included in owned housing is housing purchased through a loan not yet paid off (purchasing), as well as some unauthorised housing (with no title of ownership) on the condition that it has been registered as regular housing. Thus this category includes categories A1, A2 and part of E1, based on the Habitat II Worksheet. It should be mentionned that, on the basis of a 1988 survey, owner-occupiers in large urban centres who have taken out a loan, together with those who have acquired housing through a government agent, represented in 1988 approximately 19% of all owner-occupiers. Thus those who have not yet paid for their houses and in this sense should be included in category A2 (purchasing) must certainly represent a proportion of under 15% of owner-occupiers, or under 8% of residents of large urban centres.
- (2) Given the fact that there are no social housing rentals, category B2 is without meaning. Included in the Rental category are category B1 (private rental), C (sub-tenancy), and part of category E2 (squatter-paying rent), on the condition that they have been registered as regular housing.
- (3) The "Other" category includes mainly rent-free housing, which should be recorded in category D. This latter category, however, may include households which live in houses within collective nousing and are counted separately.
- (4) The category of non-regular housing does not indicate tenure type, as it refers to temporary" accommodation or accommodation in buildings unfit for habitation. As regards tenure to each may refer to rental, rent-free accommodation, legal ownership, or squatter housing.

PART B: URBAN INDICATORS



■ Indicator 1 : Households below poverty line

Greater Athens Area n.a.

National

n.a.

Notes: There are no official definitions or studies for determining *absolute* poverty. In recent years in Greece, use has been made of the concept of *relative* poverty in accordance with the definition established in the EU (households with total expenditure per adult equivalent under 50% of the national average). According to this relative definition, the percentage of households under the poverty line was in 1988 23.6% in the country as a whole, and 15.6% in the Greater Athens Area.

■ Indicator 1.1 : Women-headed households below the poverty line

Greater Athens Area n.a.

National

n.a.

Notes: There are no official definitions or studies for determining *absolute* poverty. By the definition of *relative* poverty referred to above, the percentage of women-headed households under the poverty line was in 1988 23.5% in the country as a whole, and 31.1% in the Greater Athens Area.

■ Indicator 2 : Informal employment

• Greater Athens Area n.a.

National

n.a.

Sources-Notes: Although it is quite probable that conditions of employment in Greece include some moortant elements usually attributed to the «informal» sector of the economy (small units with no organisation, emproyment of family members and other relatives), it is not possible to measure the size of the «informal» sector in accordance with the full definition in the Habitat guidelines. Moreover, by that full definition, the size of such a distinct sector in Greece would be negligible.

■ Indicator 3 : Hospital beds

• Greater Athens Area 126.60 persons per bed

• National 200.01 persons per bed

Source: ESYE, Social Welfare and Health Statistics, 1991

■ Indicator 4 :: Child mortality

• Greater Athens Area 0.24 %

National 0.19 %

Source: ESYE, unpublished data, 1991

■ Indicator 5 : School classrooms

a Primary school • Greater Athens Area 24.3 children per classroom

National
 20.8 children per classroom

b. Secondary school • Greater Athens Area 27.5 children per classroom

• National 25.3 children per classroom

Sources-Notes: Unpublished data of the Ministry of Education for 1991, with regard to daytime schools (state and private).

■ Indicator 6: Crime rates

a. Murder • Greater Athens Area 0.033 per 1000 population

• National 0.024 per 1000 population

b. Theft

• Greater Athens Area

12.7 per 1000 population

National
 5.6 per 1000 population

Sources-Notes: Unpublished data of the Ministry of Justice for 1991. The indicator refers to a segarded as the "penal" population, i.e. population 7 years of age or older.

■ Indicator 7: Household connection levels to:

a. Water	 Greater Athens Area 	100.0 %
	 National 	96.9 %
b. Sewerage	 Greater Athens Area 	94,5 %
	 National 	58.9 %
c. Electricity	• Greater Athens Area	100.0 %
	 National 	99.3 %
d. Telephone	 Greater Athens Area 	85.8 %
	 National 	74.8 %

Sources: DEPOS: Conditions and Trends in the Housing Market in Large Urban Centres, Survey, 1988. ESYE 1987-88: Household Expenditure Survey

Notes

- The indicators refer to 1988.
- The proportion of semi-urban and rural households connected to sewerage networks is only 17.8%, the chief method of waste disposal for these households still being underground disposal (septic tanks).
- The proportion of households connected to networks (e.g. telephone network, local or private water networks) is not necessarily an indicator of whether or not buildings are authorised, particularly in areas of unauthorised or village settlements, given the fact that a building permit is not always required and that unauthorised connections may be made.

Indicator 8 : Access to potable water

Greater Athens Area 100.0 %National 95.0 %

Sources: Expert estimates of the Environmental Protection Department of the Ministry of the Interior for 1994.

Centre for Planning and Economic Research, 1990: Water supply - Sewerage, Report for the 1988-1992 Programme.

Notes: Despite the great development of local networks, it should be pointed out that mainly in small settlements, due to organisational weaknesses of the relevant water supply agencies, there is no systematic monitoring or control of water quality. Indicative of this is the fact that water is chlorinated regularly in only 8% of the networks in small settlements.

■ Indicator 9 : Consumption of water

• Greater Athens Area 130 litres per day per person

• National n.a.

Sources-Notes: The figure for the Greater Athens Area was based on estimates by competent officials of the Water Supply and Sewerage Systems Co. of Athens (EYDAP) for 1994, on the basis of which the consumption of a typical urban family of three over three months (the interval at which bills are issued) amounts to 35 cubic meters. It should be noted here that the above consumption level is the result of the water company's restrictive policy (informative campaign, rate increases) to deal with the water shortage during the period 1992-1994. According to the EYDAP, this policy achieved a reduction of the order of 20%. However, it is estimated that the recent removal of some of the surcharges on rates will still not bring about a return to the full pre-1992 levels of consumption (150 litres per day per person); one reason for this is that new consumption habits have been created.

■ Indicator 10: Median price of water scarce season

• Greater Athens Area 0.0747 US\$ per 100 litres

National n.a.

Sources-Notes:

The value of the indicator for the Greater Athens Area is calculated for 1994 on the basis of the EYDAP rates in effect from 1.7.92. The price of water is constant throughout the year. It is based on a sliding scale, at the household level, according to the amount of consumption (ranging from Drs.102 per cubic meter for family consumption up to 5 cubic meters per month, up to Drs.750 per cubic meter for consumption over 35 cubic meters per month). The indicator is based on calculations by the EYDAP of the average price of water, weighted on the basis of the distribution of total consumption into five price zones. It is noted that during the period 1993-1994 a special increased rate schedule was imposed for high consumption, within the framework of the programme for dealing with the water shortage; this schedule is no longer in effect and is not included in calculations.

It is not feasible to calculate the indicator for the country as a whole, because there are no centralised, comparable data on the local networks of towns and settlements, each of which has its own pricing policy. On general lines, however, the following can be pointed out:

a. The price of water is as a rule constant, and independent of seasonal fluctuations of reserves.

b. In most cases the price of water is comparable to or lower than that of the Greater Athens Area.

■ Indicator 11: Modal split. Proportion of work trips undertaken by:

Greater Athens Area

a.	Private car	36.0 %
b.	Train or tram	10.2 %
C.	Bus or Minibus	23.8 %
d.	Motorcycle	5.5 %
ę.	Bicycle	0.5 %
f.	Walking	12.0 %
g.	Other	12.0 %

Sources-Notes: Assessments by experts of the Athens Urban Transport Organisation (OASA) on the principal mode of travel to work in 1994. It should be noted that for travel on foot ("walking"), the OASA includes only walks over 15 minutes in length.

■ Indicator 12: Average travel time in minutes for a work trip

Greater Athens Area 53.25°

Sources-Notes: This indicator was estimated on the basis of data from the DEPOS survey "Conditions and Trends in the Housing Market of Large Urban Centres", and refers to the year 1988. It consists of the average travel time for all modes, weighted on the basis of participation of each mode. It is noted that, according to recent measurements, traffic loads on Athens' main road axes increased by 50-100% in the period between 1988 and 1995, and therefore the above time must also have increased significantly.

■ Indicator 13 : Expenditure on road infrastructure

• Greater Athens Area n.a.

National

■ Indicator 14 : Automobile ownership

• Greater Athens Area 354 per 1000 population

n.a.

• National 245 per 1000 population

Sources-Notes: Indicators refer to 1991, and are based on statistical data of the Ministry of Transport and the ESYE (1991 census).

■ Indicator 15: Percentage of wastewater treated

• Greater Athens Area 90 %

• Rest of the country 12 %

Sources-Notes: Estimates based on data and assessments of the Environmental Protection Department of the Ministry of the interior and the EYDAP for 1994. In 1991 the percentage of wastewater treated nationally was negligible, in view of the fact that primary purification had not yet come into operation at the Athens Psittalia plant, and that there were very few biological purification plants in the rest of the country.

■ Indicator 16: Solid waste (refuse) generated

Greater Athens Area 1.3 million tonnes

0.4 tonnes per person

National
 3.3 million tonnes

0.32 tonnes per person

Sources-Notes: Estimates based on data of the Environmental Protection Department of the Ministry of the Interior for 1994. The measures refer basically only to solid waste collected through the refuse disposal system, and do not cover informal forms of dumping, incineration, etc. of solid wastes, which are not, however, judged to be of significant volume.

■ Indicator 17: Disposal methods for solid waste (refuse)

Method of disposal	Greater Athens Area	National	٠,
Sanitary landfill*	85 %	50 %	
Incinerated	14		-
Open dumps	10 %	45 %	
Recycled	5 %	5 %	

Sources-Notes: Estimates by the Environmental Protection Department of the Ministry of the Interior for 1994.

(*): In effect, refuse is regularly buried, but, with certain exceptions, without observing all the modern requirements for protection of the environment from liquid and gaseous by-products.

■ Indicator 18: Regular solid-waste collection

Proportion of households enjoying regular waste collections

• Greater Athens Area 90 %

• National 75 %

Average number of times per month that waste is collected

• Greater Athens Area 20

National

12

Sources-Notes: Estimates of the Environmental Protection Department of the Ministry of the Interior for 1994.

■ Indicator 19: Housing destroyed

Proportion of housing stock destroyed per thousand units by natural or man-made disasters over the past ten years

National

approx. 1/1000

Sources-Notes: According to the guidelines, this indicator must be calculated on present stock or that of the most recent reference year. Total national housing stock in 1991 was over 4,500,000 units, without taking into account completely abandoned housing. It is estimated that housing destroyed nationally in earthquakes, fires, floods and landslides, the principal types of disasters in Greece, must on average be under 500 units per annum; in other words for the '80s the total must be of the order of one per thousand units of total 1991 housing stock. For the Greater Athens Area, this indicator is clearly lower due to the absence of destructive earthquakes during this period.

Introductory Notes

The concept of "local government" bodies set out in the guidelines of the UN indicators Programme is based on the term "local" which is not specifically defined. In accordance with the way the term is usually understood in Greece, provision of government services at the local level is based on Local Government Organisations (Municipalities/Communes). Nevertheless, a wide spectrum of government services of a local character is provided by regional organs of the State and its Nomarchies (Prefectures), which from another standpoint can also be regarded as elements of "local governance". This is of particular importance in the case of government of a metropolitan area such as the Athens area, where there are many relatively small Municipalities and Communes, and many functions are carried out by the prefectural administration (4 Prefectures), or even in many cases by the central administration or by semi-autonomous bodies included in these broader levels of government. The problem of definition which arises has been further complicated after 1994, with the implementation of the second stage of local government by legislation and election of authorities on the prefectural level and the transfer of important competencies and responsibilities to them. But this procedure has not been completed and in any case the relevant economic and operational data have not been compiled, which would allow a clear estimate to be made of the size and role of this new level.

For all those reasons, the term "local government" and the relevant indicators which follow will refer to the units of local government (Municipalities/Communes) and to the institutional framework in effect up to 1993. Moreover, as is the case with the other indicators, available data essentially cover the period up to 1991.

■ Indicator 20: Major sources of income of local government

■ Indicator 20.1: Per capita income of Municipalities and Communes

• National · SUS 204.6 (32877 Drs1990)

• Greater Athens Area \$US 178.0 (28614 Drs1990)

Sources-Notes: Weighted mean for the years 1989-91, allowing for Greek inflation and the mean weighted value of the dollar for the period 1989-91 (base year 1990) and conversion to 1993 dollars. Calculations based on data of the Statistical Service of the Ministry of the Interior. By «income» is meant total income for the respective fiscal year.

■ Indicator 20.2: Sources of income (per cent)

a.	Taxes	4.75 %
b.	User charges	26.91 %
C.	Other own-source income (interest, sales, etc.)	4.64 %
d.	Transfers from higher levels of government	47.92 %
е.	Borrowings	5.34 %
f.	Other income	
	(donations, inheritances, balance from previous year)	10.43 %

Sources-Notes: Municipalities and Communes for the country as a whole. Average weighted measures for the years 1989-91 allowing for inflation: base year 1990. Calculations based on data from the Statistical Service of the Ministry of the Interior. Calculation of respective measures for the Greater Athens Area is not possible due to lack of relevant accounts. In addition, in the case of Athens, local government financial data are skewed by the fact that there are significant functions (water supply, sewerage, etc.) which fall either directly or via special bodies under central administration.

The above division into basic sources follows, as far as possible, the accounts specified by the UN Urban Indicators Programme (UIP). Unfortunately, there are significant differences with regard to accounts (a), (b) and (d). Specifically:

- (a) This is the "Taxes and Levies" account. According to the UIP, levies for betterments from works, inclusion in city plan, etc. (betterment levies) should be recorded under account (b), in the sense of "User charges". By contrast, the "Taxes" account in Greece is incomplete, according to the UIP and should also contain most «duties and charges» necessarily included under (b).
- (b) The UIP includes in this category only user charges in the broad sense (e.g. building permiss), as well as betterment levies which here have been included in (a). In contrast, as has been pointed out, (b) includes duties and charges which according to the UIP should be included in taxes. Other Special Income" which mainly refers to «other third party income» has also been included here.
- (d) Of necessity included here are two relatively small accounts for income from process in of personal labour and from fines.

■ Indicator 21: Per-capita capital expenditure (Municipalities and Communes)

National

147.7 USS

Greater Athens Area

92.5 US\$

Sources-Notes: Weighted averages for 1990 in 1993 dollars based on income and Municipality and Commune expenditure data of the Statistical Service of the Ministry of the Interior for the fiscal years of 1989, 1990, 1991 (account coded 15: "Investments"). Taken into account in calculating the weighted mean of these three years were overall inflation (based on the consumer price index), with 1990 as base year, and average weighted price of the dollar. The arithmetic mean of the price of the dollar for the three years was Drs.167.7.

It should be noted that the significant difference between Athens and the country as a whole is primarily due to the important role of special organisations in Athens which do not form part of local government (water supply, sewerage, transport, etc.).

Indicator 22: Local government debt service charge

Total principal and interest repaid, as a fraction of total expenditure by Municipalities and Communes

National

3.75 %

Greater Athens Area 6.20 %

Sources-Notes: Weighted means for 1990 allowing for inflation, based on Municipality and Commune income and expenditure data of the Statistical Service of the Ministry of the Interior for fiscal years 1989, 1990, 1991 (account code 31).

III Indicator 23: Local government employees

Total local government employees per 1000 population

National

4.3

Attica Prefecture

5.4

Sources-Notes: Calculations for 1994 based on data from the Ministry of the Interior and population mates, with projection of mean annual increase for 1981-91. Employee figures include persons employed by Municipalities, Communes and supervised public entities working under public and private a.c. during the last quarter of 1994. There are no corresponding data for the Greater Athens Prefecture of Attica fundamentally covers the greater metropolitan area of Athens, with a supplier action approximately 15% greater (in 1994) than that of Athens (G.A.A.).

■ Indicator 24: Wages in local government organisation budgets

Proportion of recurrent expenditure spent on wage costs, out of total expenditure

National

41.90 %

Greater Athens Area 46.46 %

Sources-Notes: Weighted averages for 1990 based on Municipality and Commune income and expenditure data from the Statistical Service of the Ministry of the Interior for the fiscal years 1989, 1990, 1991 (account codes 01, 03, 04, 11). In calculating the weighted mean of the three years, overall inflation (on the basis of the consumer price index) was taken into account, with 1990 as base year.

■ Indicator 25: Contracted recurrent expenditure ratio

Proportion of recurrent expenditure of local government organisation spent on activities contracted to private bodies

No relevant data available

Sources-Notes: The main activities where there is a significant degree of participation of the private sector on the basis of contracting out, with regard to local government organisation expenditure are construction works, studies and provision of personal services. In addition, in recent years many local government organisations have contracted with private bodies for parking facilities. In view of the previous data on the structure of local government organisation expenditure (and especially the role of capital investments), we can say that the share of activities contracted out to private bodies in the years around 1990 does not exceed an average, 20% of annual local government organisation expenditure for the country as a whole and 15% in the case of Athens.

■ Indicator 26: Government level providing services

Basic agencies delivering significant (more than 20%) urban services to the population

Services Provided	Public			Other	
	Local Government	National Government	Regional	Semi-public	Private
water	+	+			
sewerage	+	+			-
refuse collection	+				
electricity	·	+			
telephone		+			
public or mass transport		+			
emergency (fire/ambulance)		+			
road maintenance	+	+			
education		+			+
health care		+		+	+
public housing	-	+			
recreation/sports facilities	+	+	·		+

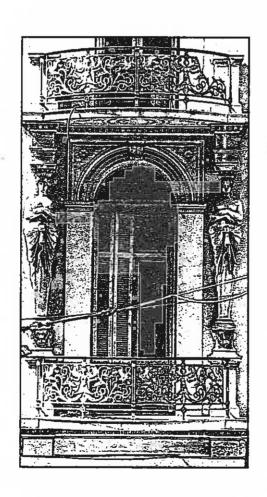
Sources-Notes: This table is representative for the country as a whole with the exception of certain sectors (water, sewerage, transport), which in the case of Athens are controlled by central administration. In accordance with the guidelines of the Habitat II Indicators Programme, agencies which are not completely independent are included in the level of government to which they report.

■ Indicator 27: Control by higher levels of government

No	Replace a local government?				
Remove councillors from office?		All: -	Some: -		
Can the local gove	ernment, without permission from high	er governments:			
Set local tax levels?		All: -	Some: +		
Set user charges for services?		All: -	Some: +		
Yes	Borrow funds?	1	_ _		
Choose contractors for projects?		All: +.	Some: -		
is the amount of gov	vernment subsidies from higher				
government levels known in advance:		All: +	Some (%):		

Sources-Notes: The above answers to the schematic questionnaire have taken into account the fundamental structure of control relationships rather than specific formal relationships (particularly regarding the legality of local government decisions).

PART C: HOUSING INDICATORS



The indicators in this and the next module refer to the country as a whole, as set out in the Habitat II guidelines, unless otherwise stated in the notes on individual indicators.

■ Indicator H1: House price to income ratio

This is defined as the ratio of the median free-market price of dwelling unit and the median annual household income. Annual household expenditures are used in the place of income.

House price to living expenses 2.52

Median free-market house price (1) 1988 Drs.4,637,000 or 1993 US\$37,832 Median annual household living expenses (2) 1988 Drs.1,841,880 or 1993 US\$15,027

Sources-Notes:

- (1) The median free-market price of a house was calculated on the basis of data from the household survey conducted by DEPOS in 1988, in the framework of the housing market monitoring system. These data refer to urban centres of 100,000 population or more, and are taken from owners' estimates of the market price of their homes. The estimates concern the whole of owner-occupied housing stock in those towns, and not only houses up for sale. These prices are probably overestimates, given the fact that owners are not in a position to know whether their estimates of the value of their homes correspond to realisable prices on the market. On the other hand, the median price may be underestimated due to the difference between the structure of total housing stock and housing offered for sale. Logically, the latter should include a greater proportion of new houses, whose prices are generally higher. In contrast, housing from the older stock may, on average, be of lower quality. Despite the disadvantages these data present, they are believed to give results closer to reality than the fragmented, imperfect picture given by published ads or information from estate agents.
- (2) ESYE, 1987/88 Household Expenditure Survey

■ Indicator H2: House rent to income ratio

This is defined as the ratio of the median annual rent and the median household income of renters. Here, again, living expenses are used instead of income.

0.11

Rent to income

Median annual rent (1) 1988 Drs.183,000 or 1993 US\$1,493

Median annual living expenses of renter households (2) 1988 Drs.1,650,000 or 1993 US\$13,462

Sources-Notes:

(1),(2) ESYE, 1987/88 Household Expenditure Survey. Rents refer exclusively to the private sector, as there is no public rental housing sector. Control of rent increases refers to all housing (recent partial or total deregulation of certain categories is not reflected in the 1988 data). These measures do not form a special sector of controlled rents, given that their impact shows statistically random dispersion.

■ Indicator H3: Floor area per person

Defined as the median floor area per person in square meters.

Floor area per person 26 square meters

Source-Notes: ESYE, 1987/88 Household Expenditure Survey.

Indicator H4: Permanent structures

In practice, permanent structures comprise 100% of structures. Temporary housing constitutes past of non-regular housing (0.18% of total housing - Indicator D9), which, however, also includes permanent structures unfit for habitation.

■ Indicator H5: Housing in compliance

Defined as the percentage of the total housing stock in the urban area which is in compliance with current city-planning and building terms and regulations (authorised housing).

The term "authorised housing" shows that the indicator refers basically to the phenomenon of unauthorised housing, and not so much to partial deviations from building regulations or limited violations of building permits. Unfortunately there are no official data on unauthorised building, and no systematic assessments. Even though in the past (until the mid-1970s) the role played by unauthorised construction of primary housing in cities was an important one (estimated at 20-25% of construction in the Greater Athens Area during the 1960s), in recent years it has probably been confined to negligible proportion. In contrast, unauthorised construction of second and vacation homes has increased, particularly during the 1980s. It is estimated, for example, that in communities in the eastern (Messogia) and northern parts of Athens' peri-urban area, in the period between 1981 and 1991 at least 50% of the increase in housing stock was unauthorised. On the other hand, significant sections of unauthorised areas have been included in the city plan and partially comply with existing regulations. As a result, it is extremely difficult to estimate the portion of total stock which is unauthorised at any given moment in time.

Indicator H6: Land development multiplier

This indicator is defined as the ratio between the median land price of a developed plot at the urban fringe in a typical subdivision, and the median price of raw, undeveloped land (with planning permit, but not subdivided, and with no infrastructure).

The Greek institutional framework and reality, as it has developed, makes no clear distinction between two distinct situations which present characteristics similar to those called for, whereas the concept of the planning permit does not have an exact equivalent in Greek legislation. The various stages which precede complete inclusion in the city plan of areas outside the plan, e.g. their determination as residential areas in overall city plans, approval of expansion studies, etc. do not constitute a special status quo, nor do they predetermine the time period that will be required for completion of the inclusion procedure. Furthermore, these may often follow subdivision or even elementary unauthorised infrastructure. On the other hand, inclusion in the city plan does not presuppose construction of a complete infrastructure network, in this sense, what in Greek reality clearly differentiates building plot potential and consequently land prices, is inclusion in the city plan, which translates into the ability to build immediately. Areas about to be included may be differentiated as to the estimated time period required for their inclusion in the plan. Impact on land prices depends, on the one hand, on how infrastructure is evaluated on the market, and on the other, on the delay in time, as well as the uncertainty with regard to time needed to complete official procedures. It seems that creation of infrastructure will differentiate land price by approximately 10-12%. With regard to evaluation of time of inclusion, we can allow for a decrease of the order of 5-6% (real interest rate) for each year of delay, so that for a time period of four years the total difference (due to time delay and infrastructure) will be of the order of 30-35%

Indicator H7: Infrastructure expenditure

No data available.

■ Indicator H8: Mortgage to credit ratio

Mortgage to credit ratio

12.07 %

This indicator refers to 1991. The majority of loans in the housing finance sector are granted at a sector credit institutions (National Mortgage Bank of Greece, Consignations and Loans Fund, Postal Sarvas Eank, etc.), which for 1993 covered 91% of the sector's total financing (97.3% in 1986, when there was a week pownward trend in percentage of participation). The remaining part of financing is covered by commercial analysis.

Source: Bank of Greece, Monthly Statistical Bulletin.

■ Indicator H9: Housing production

This indicator is defined as the number of new housing produced annually (net number of new units less demolitions, conversions to other usages, etc.) per 1000 population.

1991 Housing production indicator

7 new units per 1000 population

Sources-Notes:

- The above indicator is based on estimates, given the fact that there are no data that could determine the real annual increase in housing stock in the manner set out in the Habitat II guidelines. Construction data based on building permits do not portray the real increase in stock, because not all permits are realised. Moreover, there are no data to estimate unauthorised construction, demolitions, conversions to other usages or subdivisions of units. The real increase in housing stock may be calculated on the basis of population and housing census data; for the decade 1981-1991 it amounted to 670,932 units. Therefore for that period, the average annual indicator of new units per 1000 population varied between 6.5 and 6.9. The estimation of the indicator's 1991 value should allow for variations in construction activity, by readjusting the above indicator. Because a period of about two years elapses from the time the permit is issued until the building is completed, the estimation of production of new housing for 1991 should be based on permits issued in 1989. The number of new units on the basis of permits for that year shows an increase of approximately 10% in relation to the average for the decade. As a result, the indicator should be increased correspondingly, in which case it will amount to about 7 new units per 1000 population.
- A significant number of these units are intended for use as vacation homes, and as a result the
 indicator for primary housing will be lower. In the Greater Athens Area, the annual indicator of new
 units per 1000 population is of the order of 4.0, based on census data, or 4.6 If it is readjusted on the
 basis of building permits, or 3.9 if underestimation of population in censuses is allowed for

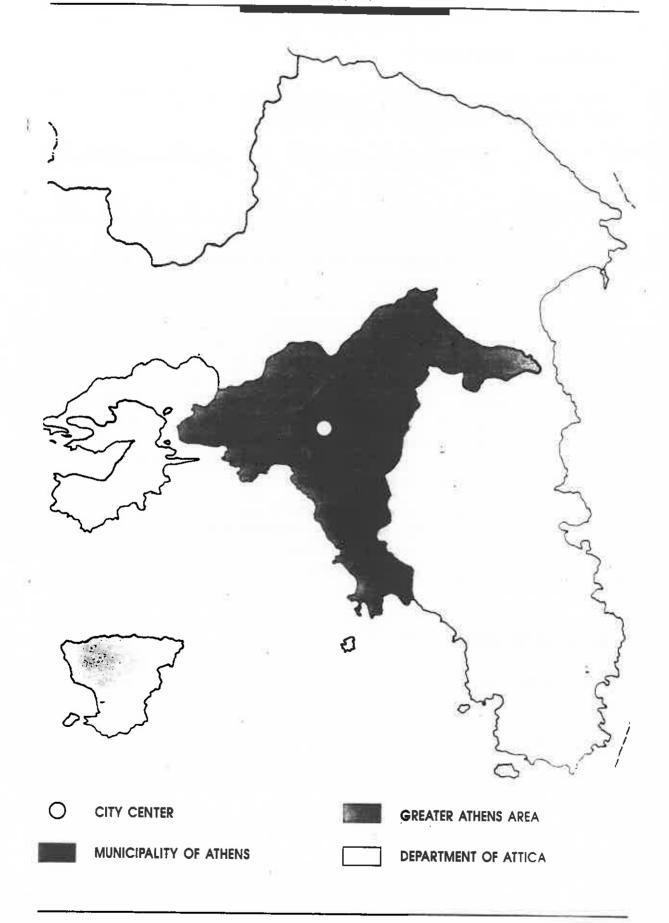
■ Indicator H10: Housing investment

Defined as the total investment in housing as a percentage of gross national product.

1991 Housing investment

4.36 %

Source: National Accounts





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