

HABITAT REPORT THE NETHERLANDS

Ministry of Housing, Spatial Planning and the Environment,
Ministry of Foreign Affairs,
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I. Introduction

The Habitat II conference took place in Istanbul in June 1996, twenty years after the first United Nations conference on human settlements (UNCHS). The two main issues were adequate shelter for all and sustainable human settlements in an urbanizing world. It was emphasized at Habitat II that national governments should create institutional and legal frameworks to enable citizens, the private sector, local authorities and communities to provide housing and improve the living environment. Sustainable development is a leading principle in this. The concluding document resulting from the Habitat II conference included goals, obligations and an action program. The Netherlands supported the Habitat Agenda and is accordingly obligated to cooperate on an international level to implement it. The UN General Assembly (UNGASS) will meet in New York June 2001 to evaluate the Habitat activities of all the countries involved. In preparation for this, every country is expected to submit a national report assessing each country's national and international Habitat activities. Below is the Netherlands national report, which has come about due to the efforts of involved governmental departments and the Dutch Habitat Platform (Dutch: SHP). This foundation was established at the initiative of the Ministry of Housing, Spatial Planning and the Environment and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, and its objective is to set up a wide range of activities both in the Netherlands and abroad to help promote implementation of the Habitat Agenda.

The Habitat Agenda was not an immediate signal for the Netherlands to sound the alarm and start large-scale activities in the area of housing. Housing quality in the Netherlands is very good in comparison to many other countries in the world. However, housing challenges do exist in the Netherlands. The quality and affordability of housing requires constant attention in a changing world, where globalization and free markets are assuming an increasingly prominent position. Consequently, assurance of good and affordable housing, particularly for less affluent and more vulnerable groups in society, will remain a major issue. The quality of life in neighbourhoods and districts will continue to be an item meriting attention, partly due to the changing makeup of the population and the socioeconomic dynamics of neighbourhoods.

A. Adequate shelter for all

A.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the first main goal of the Habitat II conference, i.e. adequate shelter for all. Good housing is a fundamental element of quality of life. Housing quality has a significant determining impact on health. In addition, a house is also the home where family life takes place, where people have privacy and it is an operating base for public participation. It is recognized that housing plays a major role in determining peoples' possibilities for development and freedom: not only the availability of housing and facilities, but also the opportunity which housing provides for the expression of religious, cultural and spiritual beliefs are important. For these reasons, housing is considered one of the primary necessities of life. Due to the interrelationship between the private and public domains, a good housing situation is a major condition for social stability and a smoothly functioning society. Many citizens have an opportunity to acquire good housing and take responsibility for this, but there are also groups of citizens who occupy a weak position on the housing market, due to which they are unable to adequately obtain this necessity of life. For this reason, the government is responsible for creating conditions that will promote adequate, qualitatively good and affordable housing for everyone. This chapter will describe how the Dutch government fleshes out these aspects.

A.2 Sufficient shelter for all

The availability of adequate housing in terms of type, time and location is one of the main goals of Dutch housing policy. There is no longer a housing shortage in the Netherlands. However, there are great differences in the supply and demand ratios between regional housing markets. Some areas in the north of the Netherlands have unoccupied houses in the rental sector. In contrast, there are substantial shortages in the west of the country, particularly in specific segments of the house-buyers' market. But, generally, a quantitative shortage of houses is no longer an issue, and cutting qualitative deficiencies is now a major concern. House buyers are setting higher and higher quality standards and are consequently responsible for a vital housing market. Houses in surroundings that do not meet their standards risk vacancy. Demographic, social and economic developments, such as ageing, individualization and an increase in the overall Dutch income are resulting in qualitative deficiencies. Accordingly, housing for senior citizens and a growing demand for more spacious and qualitatively better houses require additional attention.

To meet these space and quality needs, the quality of newly constructed owner-occupied houses in the Netherlands has increased in recent years. From 1990-1999, the percentage of owner-occupied houses in the total housing stock increased from 45% to almost 53%.

A.3 Affordable housing for everyone

Frame 1: Manifesto for Dutch Tenants

The Dutch Tenants Union (Dutch tenants organisation) has set itself the task of improving the rental sector and the position of tenants. The starting points for this were established in the Manifesto Dutch Tenants, which was presented in 1999. Good housing means a sufficient choice for everyone, and requires a large variety of housing types, forms and living environments. The care and services connected to housing and environment factors, like the quality of public spaces, infrastructure, facilities and environment, are elements that have a significant impact on housing quality. According to the Tenants Union, the housing market still does not come even close to meeting these requirements in terms of quality. The market frequently neglects to sufficiently provide for the needs of people with physical and social limitations. In addition, according to the Tenants Union, certain housing needs, e.g. of immigrant senior citizens, are not taken adequately into account. And large groups of people, the Tenants Union says, have to pay relatively high amounts for a good housing situation, and for many households (approx. 1.1 million) the affordability of housing depends on rent subsidies. The 1998 Housing Need Survey (Dutch: Woningbehoefte Onderzoek - WBO) indicated that the target group for housing policy, as defined according to income, consists of approximately 2.5 million households.

Since World War II, the national government has controlled the development of rental prices in the Netherlands. With this, it tries to achieve a certain balance between the price and quality of rentals. Protecting the position of tenants on a tight housing market is also intended. In the Netherlands, there is no difference between the rental price regulations for the social and private sectors. Since the beginning of the 1990s, rental policy has become more decentralized. Previously, the national government set an annual rent increase, in line with market trends, that was applied to all housing. Currently, there is a rent system where landlords can determine the amount of increase to be applied to the rent. The national government sets a maximum percentage for each house each year. Under this limit, landlords are free to determine the increase in rent for each individual house. To ensure that enough houses remain affordable for the policy target groups (see section A5), the national government tries to achieve moderate rental development by setting a percentage for maximum rental increases. The dwelling point system is a major instrument for this. The quality

of housing is expressed in points, the number of which determines the maximum rental price. Furthermore, the national government encourages the municipalities and housing associations to agree on the (minimum) size of affordable housing stock.

Rents have increased substantially in the last ten years. The national government strives for an average rent increase that corresponds to inflation. In the first half of the 90s, rent increases were considerably higher in comparison to general price developments than in the second half. In the last five years, the average rental increase has been no higher than 1.5% (corrected for inflation), in contrast to nearly 4% in the period up to 1994. This resulted in the rent-income-ratio rising substantially until 1997, from nearly 20% in 1990 to more than 26% in 1997. For lower income groups, however, the rent subsidy regulation was greatly improved to compensate for part of the increase in rent. In the last three years, there has been a decrease in the net rent percentage (the percentage of disposable (family) income that people pay each month for rent, corrected for their rent subsidy), due to a diminished increase in rents and an increase in tenants' average incomes.

To make housing more affordable for people with low incomes, the national government further extended the system of individual rent subsidies in the 1990s. Households are eligible for a rent subsidy when their income is below a certain maximum. The rent subsidy is considered a major instrument of Dutch housing. This subsidy is more efficient than former object subsidies. Improvement of the regulation in 1997 can result in a decrease in net rent, amounting to many guilders a month for people in the lowest income brackets. The average annual individual rent subsidy amounted to nearly NLG 2,400 in 1998. Currently, rent subsidy is by far the biggest item on the annual State housing budget at nearly NLG 3 billion.

Since the beginning of the 90s, the prices of owner-occupied houses have risen explosively, particularly those of houses sold from the housing stock. From 1990-1999, the average sales price of these houses increased from NLG 175,000 to NLG 377,000. In urban areas, increases in the prices of owner-occupied houses, both existing and newly built, have been higher than in rural areas. Average disposable income has also increased in the last five years. Partly as a result of this, low mortgage interest rates and mortgage lenders' changing policies (making it easier to obtain a mortgage, and for increasingly higher amounts, because it has been possible to figure in second incomes since 1995), the number of mortgages and the total mortgage amount have risen astronomically (see the addendum on page 17). This makes it harder and harder, however, for first-time buyers and low income

groups to obtain their own houses. The government encourages people to buy their own homes, not as a goal in itself, but as an instrument to support the various objectives of housing policy, such as the promotion of mobility, improvement of the quality of housing and the living climate in districts and neighbourhoods, and supporting the independence of house buyers. House ownership is increasing, not only due to new housing projects but also to the sale of rental houses from the existing housing stock. To support home ownership in lower income groups, the Home Owners' Guarantee Fund (Dutch: Waarborgfonds Eigen Woningen -WEW) was set up in 1995. WEW is an independent foundation that provides a guarantee for loans of private house buyers (also called the National Mortgage Guarantee). The national government and municipalities fulfill a safety net function in the event that the fund suffers considerable losses. WEW was derived from the instrument in force for this purpose, the municipal guarantee with national government participation. An act for the promotion of owner-occupied housing will go into effect in 2001. It will provide a monthly subsidy, if certain conditions are met in terms of income, sales price and mortgage amount.

A.4 Improving the quality of housing and the living environment

The Netherlands has traditionally paid considerable attention to the quality of the Dutch housing stock. Five cornerstones are listed in the Housing Act, on which the quality requirements of the Building Decree are based, and which the house building sector and housing management has to take into account. These cornerstones are safety, health, usability, energy conservation, and the environment was added to the list in 1998. The Building Decree focuses on the quality aspects the government has to safeguard. The requirements in this decree establish a minimum quality level for construction. This means that a principal is free to provide a higher level than the decree sets, but that the municipalities are not able to compel this. In practice, the market ensures higher (consumer) quality.

The periodically performed Qualitative Housing Registration (Dutch: Kwalitatieve Woningregistraties -KWR) has shown that striving for good qualitative housing has led to good results. The KWR documents the construction quality of a representative number of houses from a random sample. By means of the KWR research is done into the expense of restoring the houses to the level of quality of newly built houses.

Frame 2: The divided city

Certain districts in the Netherlands, particularly those built between 1945 and 1960, risk deterioration because people from medium and high income brackets are moving out. These districts were rapidly built to alleviate the housing shortage during those years, but the small, cheap houses and frequently monotonous living environment no longer meet contemporary standards. Vacancies are usually filled by socially less advantaged groups, including many immigrants and unemployed. Reduced buying power causes many stores and facilities to disappear, which adversely affects the quality of life in these districts. Fortunately, many national and urban initiatives are being taken to halt this process and combat social exclusion. In addition to an economic split, these districts also experience other divisions such as between the young and old, citizens and authorities, housing and working. The social environment is different for young and old. It can be difficult, both for young and old people, to imagine one another's social environment, which can result in a lack of understanding and prejudice. It is essential to positively affect these conceptualizations so that the young and old can work together on creating a livable district. The Dutch Habitat Platform issued the video "De omgekeerde wereld" (the upside down world) with this purpose in mind.

A quantitative shortage of housing in the Netherlands is generally no longer an issue, and attention is increasingly shifting to the quality of houses and their living environments. The standards individual residents set on the quality of the housing and their surrounds are getting higher and more varied. But the resulting leap in quality also has a downside. Not everybody benefits equally from the economic prosperity. To the extent that the desired higher quality is found outside or in certain sections of the cities, there is also a threat of social division between city and country, as there is between urban districts. Housing policy can make a contribution to cities' continuing to meet the needs of all income groups by investing in urban regeneration that concentrates on greater housing diversity.

A.5 Target groups

Dutch housing policy largely focuses on certain target groups, primarily defined on the basis of income limits. On the one hand, a distinction is made between single-person and multi-person households and between households under and over 65 years. Besides these general target groups, there are a few other specific target groups listed: senior citizens, handicapped people, immigrants, roomers, homeless and trailer park residents.

The first target group, senior citizens, has received particular attention. As a result of the ageing projections made several years ago, policy measures with regards to senior citizen housing have been implemented. The necessity for this was enhanced by extramural health care policy, which is geared towards allowing the elderly and others requiring care and supervision to remain at home as long as possible instead of being

Frame 3: Immigrant senior citizens

The immigrant population is ageing. At the start of 1997, there were more than 100,000 immigrant senior citizens in the Netherlands. This population group is expected to triple by 2015. Immigrant senior citizens usually live in disadvantaged neighbourhoods, are particularly uninformed about provisions to which they are entitled and frequently do not have a good command of the Dutch language. To call for attention to the position of immigrant senior citizens in housing policy, the Dutch Habitat Platform selected housing for immigrant senior citizens as one of its two biannual themes in 1999. An evaluative study showed that innovative projects in the area of senior citizens and housing will be carried out. To gain better insight into specific housing needs and their consequences for policy, a seminar was organized in 1999 in Rotterdam on housing of and for immigrant senior citizens. It became clear at this seminar that there is a great need for a differentiated housing market for senior citizens of foreign origin. Religion, ethnicity and cultural background play a role in this. The second generation of women and young people of foreign origin can take on an important function by involving immigrant senior citizens in senior citizen and housing policy. The conclusions of this seminar were sent to the involved ministers and members of parliament.

institutionalized. Of course, the growing need for independent living that resulted set high standards for the accessibility of housing and facilities in the surroundings. Both the national government and local parties are focusing more attention on housing for senior citizens and other specific target groups. The national government provides subsidies for altering existing buildings, several requirements for accessible buildings have been introduced in the Building Decree and measures were included in the individual rent subsidization in 1997 that enable senior citizens and handicapped people to live in more expensive, altered housing. Local parties are also altering the housing stock, which means a greater availability of specific facilities that combine housing and care. Parties from the various sectors of housing, welfare and care are

working more frequently and closer together to meet the need for housing with care. The Ministries of Housing, Spatial Planning and the Environment (Dutch: VROM) and of Health, Welfare and Sports (Dutch: VWS) are preparing the implementation of a regulation to promote home care. This will provide for the possibility of obtaining contributions for innovative collaborative projects in the area of housing and care, where such aspects as the application of new relevant technology can also play a role. Ample distribution of knowledge acquired through these initiatives will give a boost to desired developments.

B. Sustainable human settlements in an urbanizing world

B.1 Introduction

This chapter deals with the second main goal of the Habitat II conference, i.e. to promote sustainable human settlements in an urbanizing world. This goal is interpreted very broadly. It concerns sustainable development in housing and living environments. The Netherlands will have to make great efforts to support the quality of urban and town life, including such things as combating environmental pollution, traffic congestion, unsafety, poverty, segregation and preserving historical monuments and city and townscapes. The integral policy plan for major cities concerning urban regeneration, economic activity and combating poverty will be discussed in more detail below. Spatial planning and sustainable land use, the environment, green spaces, sustainable transportation systems, safety, protection of art and culture and the city-country relationship will also be discussed.

B.2 Major City Policy and Urban Regeneration

In the Habitat World Action Plan, there are many activities on a national level that are geared toward strengthening the economy and social structure and preventing and combating poverty, social exclusion and lack of safety in the cities. In the Netherlands these activities are carried out within the scope of urban regeneration and more recently Major City Policy.

An active urban and village renewal policy has already been carried out for several decades. The legal framework for this is the Urban and Village Renewal Act, which supplies the government with various instruments for achieving this policy. Initially, financial and administrative attention mainly concentrated on improving 19th century districts in the big cities and other neglected centers and old city sections, greatly emphasizing the quality of the houses, which was often poor. This catch-up operation has been largely completed. For some time now, attention has shifted to the housing situation in districts built from 1945-1960. In some cities, stubborn negative social and economic developments continue, such as spatial segregation, pollution of public spaces, unsafety, a decrease in business activities and a decrease in the level of facilities. This

requires a different, broader approach. Since the beginning of the 1990s, there has been a shift from sector policy, chiefly geared to improving housing, to an integral policy that emphasizes the appeal of areas as a place to live, work, set up businesses and visit. The term given to this integral approach is urban regeneration. The Urban and Village Renewal Act has to a large extent been replaced by the Urban Regeneration Act.

Cohesion and coordination of the policies of the various governmental departments concerned with the living environment are essential. The Major City Policy, coordinated by the Ministry of the Interior, supports this integral approach. Economic, social and physical problems in urban areas are tackled simultaneously and integrally.

Major City Policy

In 1995, Major City Policy (Dutch: Grote Steden Beleid - GSB) was introduced to tackle problems in the big cities. The goal of GSB was to create a "complete city", founded on three main principles. The city should in a physical sense meet the increasingly higher standards set for cities by residents, businesses, visitors and vacationers (the physical aspect). The city should be socially suitable, livable, safe and offer real opportunities to people who need opportunities (the social aspect). And the city should be economically vital, offering employment to those seeking it and adequate, high-quality branch locations for businesses (the economic aspect).

Frame 4: Neighbourhood monitoring

Neighbourhood monitoring is one instrument that gives residents more control over developments in their living environments. Monitors, such as the (new) Housing Need Study (Woning Behoeft Onderzoek - WBO), the major city policy monitor, the police monitor, the poverty monitor, measure circumstances on the basis of scientifically established indicators. The question is, however, whether neighbourhood residents are able to adequately identify with the findings. In contrast, the essence of neighbourhood monitoring is to measure the quality of the living environment on the basis of standards applied by the residents themselves, which can differ from district to district. With neighbourhood monitoring, residents can inventory and substantiate their needs, which will make them better able to state their case to official agencies. This means neighbourhood monitoring is an instrument for improving the living environment. In 1998, the Dutch Habitat Platform in conjunction with Delft University of Technology organized a meeting of experts to encourage further development and utilization of neighbourhood monitoring. Then the brochure "How do you like your neighbourhood? What is neighbourhood monitoring" (Dutch: Hoe bevalt je buurt? Buurtmonitoring, wat kun je ermee?) was put together with Aedes, the national umbrella organization for housing associations, to promote the use of neighbourhood monitoring. The brochure, mainly intended for residents, provides examples of how neighbourhood monitoring can be set up in various ways, as well as practical tips for how people can work with it.

At the beginning of the first phase of the Major City Policy (GSB phase 1), an initial series of agreements were established in covenants with the four major cities (the G4)¹. Agreements with 21 more cities ensued (the G21)². The items in the covenants concerned work, education, safety, care and livability. Phase 2 of the Major City Policy was established in the 1998-2002 government program, which is to continue and intensify this policy. In addition to the 25 cities affected by the Major City Policy, there are five partially involved cities³, with which separate covenants were signed specifying a particular neighbourhood or district for which a development program was to be developed.

The selection of policy goals, approach and financial resources to be used were left up to the individual municipal councils as much as possible. To be eligible for national government subsidies, each of the 25 cities covered by the Dutch Major City Policy and the 5 partially covered cities, involving a few specific districts, called the 25+5 cities, developed a multiyear development program (Dutch: MOP) in consultation

with organizations and other relevant parties that are locally active. A city's MOP includes its integral conception of the physical, economic and social infrastructure for the next five years. The municipalities were required to involve private parties and residents in development of this program. After a positive interdepartmental evaluation of the MOPs, the cabinet signed covenants with all 25+5 cities in December 1999. This obligates these cities to implement their development plans and the national government to guarantee part of the resources for this. The city and private parties are responsible for the rest.

Chief instruments for the Major City Policy are monitoring and promotion of an exchange of knowledge between cities. This means that the programs and the process will be intensively monitored in the years ahead

¹⁾ Amsterdam, The Hague, Rotterdam and Utrecht

²⁾ Almelo, Arnhem, Breda, Deventer, Dordrecht, Eindhoven, Enschede, Groningen, Haarlem, Heerlen, Helmond, Hengelo, 's-Hertogenbosch, Leeuwarden, Leiden, Maastricht, Nijmegen, Schiedam, Tilburg, Venlo and Zwolle

³⁾ Amersfoort, Alkmaar, Emmen, Lelystad and Zaanstad

(both by the national government and the cities involved), and exchange of knowledge will occur on various levels through knowledge centers and Information and Communication Technology (ICT) conferences. A national urban regeneration knowledge center was recently established and an international conference organized on ICT and cities.

Physical infrastructure/ Innovation budget for Urban Regeneration

In mid-1997, the Dutch government provided its standpoint on urban problems in its "Urban Regeneration" policy document. It indicated in this document its belief in the necessity for that a cohesive approach to urban areas geared to improving living and working environments, where the authorities at all levels work with all parties involved. As a consequence of this, the government decided later that year to integrate all funding flows in the area of urban regeneration in a single Urban Regeneration Investment Fund (Dutch: ISV), to the extent these were related to physical investments. This integrated various areas in terms of policy and funding (new housing projects and restructuring of housing, the living environment, company premises, soil cleanup, spatial planning and green landscaping). A relationship with mobility and social structure was also increasingly emphasized. The new method chosen was worked out in more detail in 1998 and 1999 and became operational on January 1, 2000. The necessary related statutory changes will be implemented in autumn 2000.

Frame 5: Toolkit for Urban Regeneration

Urban regeneration requires an integral approach, in which municipalities work with housing associations, residents organizations, project developers, care providers and other involved parties. It is, however, a new way of working that requires new methods and instruments. To support this, the Dutch Habitat Platform and the Association of Netherlands Municipalities (Dutch: VNG) had a "Toolkit for Urban Regeneration" formulated, which contains a compilation of great many instruments for and practical examples of urban development. VNG in conjunction with several partners has also organized a series of information meetings for municipalities, concerning the Urban Regeneration Investment Fund (ISV).

The Ministry of Housing, Spatial Planning and the Environment (VROM) will support and facilitate the aforementioned physical aspect. The guiding philosophy the government has developed for the ISV can be summarized by three concepts: integration of policy and money flows, interaction between all players, and promotion of innovation. In addition to the 25+5 Major City Policy cities, over 100 other municipalities are also taking part in the ISV and also have to put together a development program for the physical living environment. Their plans are not evaluated by the national government but by the provinces. The municipalities have to indicate concrete, measurable results in these development

programs, in which the relationships between the physical program and economic and social factors are dealt with in general terms. These other ISV municipalities have to submit their programs to the provinces for approval by the middle of 2000. It has been agreed that the provinces will handle these municipalities as similarly as possible to the way in which the major municipalities are handled by the national government.

Economic infrastructure

To reinforce the economic structure of the major cities, the economic aspect of the Major City Policy will receive added impetus. Reinforcement of the economic structure will be promoted through projects designed to develop the infrastructure, business locations and reorganization of old inner city business premises. Key words for this are integral approach and result orientation. The Ministry of Economic Affairs (Dutch: EZ) and the Ministry of Housing, Spatial Planning and the Environment (VROM) have combined their government program resources in line with the basis of an integral Major City Policy. The urban economy budget created in this way provides for both the physical economy and the nonphysical economy. The physical economy is intended to promote more, higher quality space for commercial activities in the broadest sense of the word: development and reorganization of business premises and multi-tenant business buildings (return and retention of businesses and jobs in old urban districts), a mingling of functions, physical investments in favorable sectors and local accessibility of economic functions. The nonphysical part of the urban economy budgets is geared to entrepreneurship and favorable economic sectors, e.g. tourism and ICT.

A policy spearhead is the reinforcement of economic activities in greatly disadvantaged districts. To promote the growth of jobs and attract companies to the city or district, an attempt is being made to achieve deregulation, establishment of economic action plans at the urban and district levels and introduction of economic development areas. In these areas, an attempt is being made, based on a series of focused, partially experimental approaches, to improve the climate for entrepreneurship, so that the development of the local economy will be advanced mainly by small and medium-sized companies. The government hopes that this will also integrate disadvantaged groups into society and combat spatial division. Public-private co-operation (Dutch: PPS) is also encouraged by the government. A PPS Knowledge Centre was recently set up that is intended as an initiator and promoter of PPS (also see the addendum on page 45).

Social infrastructure

The social aspect of the Major City Policy is geared to cities' social infrastructure. The so-called Welfare Policy Document (Dutch: Welzijnsnota) is also geared towards reinforcing the social infrastructure. Promotion of social integration and participation in vulnerable districts, measures for vulnerable groups and the integral district approach are spearheads of the Ministry of Health, Welfare and Sports (Dutch: VWS) that are supported in this framework and recur in the development programs for the 25+5 municipalities. The general quality of life in districts has to be considered in social spatial designs. This may be related to the proximity of the primary necessities of life. Such things as stores, meeting places for residents and the accessibility of facilities (also for those with restrictions) are indispensable elements in this regard. This also applies to issues such as safety and participation, which play a significant role in integration at the neighbourhood and district levels.

Municipalities have to provide a social infrastructure that offers residents opportunities and encourages a feeling in all citizens of being valuable and accepted members of society. Social cohesion is advanced by providing a social infrastructure with adequate opportunities for citizens for necessary services, meeting others, personal development and recreation. Projects geared to aiding vulnerable districts and focused action programs for young people (e.g. further development of the Broad-based School concept, where schools provide other services such as child care in addition to education) are examples of significant policy initiatives with major consequences.

Frame 6: How rich is your district

Sharing a city does not mean that all differences that make a city so multifaceted and dynamic have to be eliminated. It does mean, however, that differences that result in undesirable situations, such as poverty, unsafety, and social exclusion have to be combated. It is also important to look for ways to better utilize the positive aspects of diversity. For this purpose, the "How rich is your district" campaign was started in collaboration with several regional centers for international cooperation, associated in "COS Nederland". It is based on residents themselves listing the strong and positive sides of their districts with the assistance of video and other media. This aids in increasing self-awareness, while processes are started that help bridge differences in the district and improve the quality of life. In addition, negative ideas and characterizations as a disadvantaged district and a problem district can be eliminated. The campaign also has an important international component, since the project is implemented by both partners in three city twinnings: Eindhoven-de Vaal (South Africa), Amstelveen-Villa El Salvador (Peru) and Almelo-Anadole (Turkey). By sharing videos, the parties involved can see what the others are doing and gain new inspiration. After presentation of the first results at the 1999 World Habitat Day, the "How rich is your district" campaign will be continued in 2000 and more partners will be involved.

Poverty in the Netherlands is relatively common among people who have received social benefits for several years, such as senior citizens, unemployed people with a low level of education and drug addicts. The combination of relatively poor health, less opportunity for work and a low educational level constitutes a danger of social isolation. The majority of those in the needy group are women (for more information, also refer to the addendum on page 30).

A special segment of the needy group is the homeless. In its 1998 annual report, the Salvation Army stated that the number of homeless has risen by 20% in the last four years. There are an estimated 30,000 people in the Netherlands (0.2% of the total population) who do not have a permanent place to live or stay who have serious social problems. Many

care providers are very concerned by the increase in the number of women and children in this group. The homeless are not a homogenous group. In addition to people who have lost their housing due to unemployment and poverty, there are also many with psychological and social problems or addictions. Homelessness is a social problem, which requires a different approach than merely providing housing. The national government's policy aims at reconnecting the homeless to society. In recent years, various ministries have made more funding available to municipalities for the relief of the homeless. The municipalities are responsible for implementing the policy for the homeless. Homeless people who do not have sufficient resources to live are entitled to welfare, in principle from the municipality in which they live. Because homeless people often do not have a fixed municipality in which they live, the Decree based on the National Assistance Act was implemented to apply to people without an address. This decree assigned several municipalities as places where the homeless can apply for assistance. These municipalities also receive specific funding for social services, based on the 1994 Welfare Act. These municipalities (51 of the 538 Dutch municipalities in 1999) serve a regional function in social services for the homeless and will receive a total of 161 million Dutch guilders for this in 2000 from the national government. In this way, municipalities working in conjunction with housing associations and care providers can offer suitable housing to this group, e.g. by instituting an ambulant housing support system. Projects concerning "supervised housing for the homeless" regard non-independent housing that is part of small-scale, long-term projects.

B.3 Balanced development of settlements in the rural areas

If rural areas are defined as a collection of municipalities each having a concentration of addresses that is less than 1,000 per km², this term applies to 79% of the area in the Netherlands. The Netherlands has a total number of inhabitants of 15.5 million of whom 6 million live in the rural areas. This means that approximately 60% of the population lives in 21% of the available area. In comparison with other European countries, the Dutch rural areas are densely populated and not affected by an appreciable exodus.

The rural areas in the Netherlands have three functions. Firstly, people can live, work and recreate. Living and working in the country has always occurred, but the living function is becoming increasingly important. Housing in the country offered by housing associations is dominated by inexpensive rentals. The influx of affluent city dwellers is driving up the prices of owner-occupied houses in the rural areas. City-dwellers to an increasing extent consider the rural areas a place to go for the recreation. Another function of the country is economic agricultural production. Changing EU agricultural policy is changing agriculture, and the sector is orienting itself towards possibilities for broadening economic activities in the rural areas. Thirdly, there are certain strategic stocks in the rural areas (e.g. nature and landscape).

The 1998 Government coalition agreement stated that the quality of life in rural municipalities remains very important: it promotes economic competitive strength, social cohesion, ecological sustainability and cultural identity. To reinforce the position of the rural areas, the level of collective facilities in the sectors of education, public transportation, health care and care for the elderly will be maintained at a proper level. Various national government ministries are involved, each from its own special area of focus, but all with a desire to maintain the quality of life in the rural areas. Policy documents that have already been released (e.g. Dynamics and Renewal Policy Document) and policy documents that will soon be issued (e.g. Fifth Report on Spatial Planning) focus a great deal of attention on the quality of life and rural regeneration. To keep the issues of the quality of life and rural regeneration on the agenda, a decision was made in November 1995 to establish a rural regeneration coordination board. On this board are representatives of five ministries (the Ministries of Economic Affairs, Agriculture, Nature Management and Fisheries, of Internal Affairs, of Health, Welfare and Sports and of Housing, Spatial Planning and the Environment), as well as representatives of the provinces and municipalities. The coordination board was recently added to the Rural Vitalization working group under the New Style Administrative Program (Dutch: Bestuursakkoord Nieuwe Stijl – BANS). Within the BANS trajectory, an attempt is being made to strengthen the economic and social components in the country in 13 sample areas. The three levels of government (national, province and municipal) have made agreements in BANS on vitalizing rural areas, youth and poverty policies.

Current developments in the rural areas require an integral, cohesive approach to housing, employment and welfare. National and county governments jointly sign an administrative agreement, in which operational goals have been agreed. Areas will set to work on the basis of provincial implementation programs. Areas formulate plans with area views and implementation programs, in which the integral approach is expressed (agriculture, nature, water, spatial planning, the environment, housing, care, mobility, etc.). An essential element is the custom-made nature of the approach. In the future, an attempt will be made to combine financial resources, which are now often in separate funds.

B.4 Safety

Lack of safety remains one of the main social problems in the Netherlands (for quantitative information, refer to the addendum on pages 24, 25 and 26). That is why the cabinet has made agreements in the government program (1998-2002) for making the Netherlands safer. The Ministry of Internal Affairs (Dutch: BZK) issued the Integral Safety Program (Dutch: IVP) in June 1999, which concerns both an increase in citizens' feeling of safety (subjective safety) and a decrease in objective unsafety. The safety policy indicated in the IVP is limited to public spaces, focusing on both social and physical aspects of safety. It also concerns safety that directly affects citizens, social organizations and businesses. The core of the safety policy is at the local level. The IVP contains 92 action points, which are achieved in varying combinations of collaborating partners. These collaborating partners are various ministries (of General Affairs, of Justice, of Health, Welfare and Sports, of Transportation, Public Works and Water Management, and of Housing, Spatial Planning and the Environment), the Association of Netherlands Municipalities and the Interprovincial Board. Social organizations and businesses are also involved in putting together the IVP. IVP progress is reported on an annual basis to the Parliament.

Frame 7: Safer cities

Several initiatives have been started since 1998 with the motto "the safe city, a place for young people" to actively involve young people in working on livable neighbourhoods. This topic was prominent on the 1998 World Habitat Day. Youth groups in five Dutch cities were encouraged to develop their own agenda for a safe city, in collaboration with several regional Centers for International Cooperation, associated in COS Nederland. In many cases, the young people used videos to show their agendas. As a result of this, there were manifestations in Arnhem, Nijmegen, Deventer, Zwolle, Den Bosch and Amsterdam. On these occasions, young people talked with representatives of municipalities, the police, social workers and residents, from which several new initiatives ensued. A short video was issued as an instrument to support the young people promoting on a safe neighbourhood, in which the concept of livability was appealingly introduced. It shows the limitations and difficulties young people would encounter achieving their own initiatives. The young people's own attitudes are also addressed. The program gives a number of concrete tips that can help young people to organize and encourage them to work out ideas and a neighbourhood agenda (under guidance). The video is currently used in neighbourhood and youth work, and by the police and municipalities.

As a result of to the integral nature of safety policy, the IVP shows in a logical fashion considerable relationship to other policy areas. The view and ambitions of the cabinet on desired results of the police in increasing safety have been established in the Dutch Police Policy Plan (Dutch: BNP). The BNP also outlines a developmental direction for the police. In addition, the cabinet has indicated that nearly NLG 1 billion is available for reinforcing the police and the Office of the Public Prosecutor. The IVP complements the BNP for those safety problems for which the police can not be held solely responsible. Contingency planning provides for concrete measures for living and working in the event of unsafe situations, such as accidents and disasters involving chemical substances and floods. The Ministry of the Interior (BZK), which issued the 2000-2004 Contingency Plan Policy Document in 1999, is responsible for coordination of contingency plans at the national government level. In this document, a clear relationship is indicated between the (organization of the) contingency plan and safety in the living environment.

B.5 Sustainable land use and spatial planning

Sustainable land use is the basis of Dutch spatial planning policy, in which green environments in and outside the city are assuming an increasingly important position. The main starting point of Dutch spatial planning has been formulated in the Fourth Report on Physical Planning Plus (Dutch: Vierde Nota Extra over de Ruimtelijke Ordening - VINEX). This policy initially focuses on the period from 1995-2015, for which detailed agreements have been made for the period until 2005 with the large regions and counties on spatial use in the Netherlands. In addition, provisional agreements have been made with the same parties for the period from 2005-2010, actualizing VINEX. Both VINEX and the Fifth Policy Document, which is to be issued in 2000, will include sustainable land use as a major issue.

At the start of VINEX in 1995, the number of houses to be achieved was established in covenants. Largely in conjunction with builders and project developers, municipalities have given substance to this by setting up a housing program for the VINEX locations, for which housing differentiation, price class and quality was determined, frequently for the entire period (until 2005 and later extended to 2010). In fact, this set what would be offered in VINEX areas. Although the quality of the houses offered is not bad and is better than that of the previous "generation," the standards of the currently more critical consumers for qualitatively better housing have increased substantially in recent years. The causes of this include an improved economic situation, lower interest rates and increased spending room. The consequence of this, and of the principle of sustainable land use, is that the price of houses, particularly the (few) houses that meet the increased quality requirements, has risen sharply. This stiff rise in prices has put the price/quality ratio of houses under pressure. In the past 10 years, the price of owner-occupied houses has on average doubled. This problem has been recognized and housing policy has been developed to accelerate an sudden increase in quality, i.e. build on a large scale houses that meet current as well as future consumer standards. This should eventually result in a balance between supply and demand, stabilization of prices and improvement of the price/quality ratio. This means that the current agreements in which municipalities have established differentiation, price classes, etc., of houses to be built might be adjusted.

The Ministry of Housing, Spatial Planning and the Environment (VROM) set up the Intensive Spatial Use Incentive Program (Dutch: Stimuleringsprogramma Intensief Ruimtegebruik - STIR) at the end of 1997 as part of a policy to reduce the spatial growth of cities in the Netherlands, which are very densely populated, and improve spatial quality. Although intensive use of space is still a significant element, the program emphasis has

gradually shifted to improvement of spatial quality. The program supports and carries out promising ideas and initiatives. Experiences from sample projects are directly connected to government policy. Necessary adjustment of legislation and organization should result in new preconditions for better spatial design in the Netherlands.

Green spaces

Since the 1990's, the national government has paid increasing attention to green spaces in and around cities. As part of the Major City Policy and the Urban Regeneration Investment Fund, the Ministry of Housing, Spatial Planning and the Environment and the Ministry of Agriculture, Nature Management and Fisheries have together contributed NLG 100 million to the funds that the national government is giving up to 2004 to the G25+5 cities for large-scale development of urban green spaces. In addition, in the years to come, more attention and efforts will be devoted to creating green spaces around cities.

There are various motives for the increasing focus on green environments. A green and varied environment is a more appealing place in which to live, work and recreate. A significant motivation behind policy is improvement of the green quality of cities. Housing prices in a green environment often go up as a result which constitutes an added reason for residents to invest in the green environment.

Frame 8: "Control of green spaces"

Dutch Habitat Platform had the publication "Grip op Groen" (Control of Green Spaces) developed, which is intended to show various involved parties what is happening in the area of green public spaces in society. The fact that the ideas, examples and practical tips provide inspiration for working towards a livable Netherlands is demonstrated by the great interest in this publication. In another initiative of the "Kleine Aarde" (Small Earth) foundation, pilot projects were started in eight Dutch municipalities to develop a new method for calculating the environmental and spatial room used by the average inhabitant. By determining this local ecological factor, the basis for decreasing environmental pressure can be expanded and local priorities established. Kleine Aarde also works on more general promotion of sustainable lifestyles, as well as specific issues such as sustainable building, organic gardening and nutrition. This occurs through the designing of an expo area, giving courses and tours, compiling good examples and issuing books, videos and other publications. The visitor center is a sample building containing many aspects of sustainable construction, such as solar-powered electricity. Various sample gardens have been designed to inspire people to follow this lead in their own gardens in order to optimally promote biodiversity.

The spatial and environmental growth policy areas are coming together more and more. Problems and dilemmas in various subareas and administrative levels require a single cohesive approach: water, natural areas, traffic, rural areas and energy are all part of this. In 1996, the Balance View of Urban Landscapes Policy Document (Dutch: Balans Visie Stadslandschappen - BVSL) was issued. This document signalled a shift in the relationship between cities and rural areas. Since the mid-1990s, urban and rural have not been polar opposites in policy.

Urban Green Spaces as part of the urban-rural approach is currently being implemented in several policy documents: the Policy Document on Natural Wooded Landscape for the 21st Century (urban perspective), the Policy Paper on Housing 2000-2010 and the Fifth Report on Spatial Planning. In

these documents, urban green spaces are connected in a spatial and conceptual sense with the green spaces around cities.

B.6 The environment and sustainable energy use

The main foundation of Dutch environmental policy is the intention to achieve living environment quality in which future generations can live together in a sustainable manner. The National Environmental Policy Plan 2 (Dutch: NMP2) indicates how environmental impacts have to be reduced to attain this goal. NMP3 makes intensification of implementation of this policy a major issue.

Just as in other policy areas, environmental policy focus has in recent years shifted from a sectoral to area orientation, in which integrality and decentralization are major concepts. In view of urban problems throughout this field of policy, experience has shown that it is necessary to consider an area in its totality and to formulate area-specific policy from this perspective. It is essential for environmental aspects to be considered from the very outset. In the City and Environment project, this was tackled with a three-step approach:

- 1) combining an integral approach to the environmental and spatial planning problems with source policy⁴
- 2) customization: seeking solutions in existing legislation, and
- 3) the possibility of deviating from legislation if statutory instruments do not provide the best solution. An experimental law was instituted for the third step that enables deviation from environmental and spatial planning legislation.

⁴) Source policy: policy that focuses on the causes, the source, of a problem (e.g. cars). In contrast to effect policy, this policy attempts to reduce or combat ensuing effects (e.g. sound barriers).

This approach can prevent the environment from being an inhibiting factor in the development of urban areas. Environmental quality also has considerable impact on residents' evaluation of their living environments. This approach is worked out with involved parties in an open planning process. This means that residents, businesses and social players can take part in considering and discussing the design of their district or part of town. To encourage this, a special contact point was established by the Ministry of Housing, Spatial Planning and the Environment (VROM) and, if needed, municipalities receive support in setting up open planning processes. These experiments have now been under way for two years among 25 municipalities and have shown that this approach gives an impetus to quality and stimulates creativity.

Municipalities and provincial governments play a major role in enabling area-specific work: it concerns customization of measures for each area. Consequently, a step is currently being taken to give other authorities more responsibility. This can be observed in all sectoral environmental policy components, including soil, waste and water. These lines of policy can be characterized by the slogan, "Do locally what is locally possible, and beyond the local level do what is required."

Soil

Clean soil is a precondition for a sustainable living environment. Not only because living and being on polluted soil has health implications for residents, but also because polluted soil can eventually harm the ecosystem and constitute a risk to the existence of people and animals, e.g. by affecting drinking water. Consequently, Dutch soil protection policy is primarily geared to prevention, prevention of soil pollution, and secondly toward eliminating negative environmental impacts resulting from polluted soil. Soil pollution is mainly encountered in urban living environments, where severe soil pollution has taken place for a long time due to the industrial activities of printing companies, shipyards, gas plants and harbors, etc. Now that cities are expanding, we are increasingly faced with cleaning up the results from the industrial past within the framework of urban development.

Urban dynamics accordingly offers an opportunity to tackle soil pollution in conjunction with several interested parties, such as municipalities, project developers and culpable owners, etc. Soil cleanup policy has in recent years shifted in the aforementioned direction. The rule now is not only that "he who pollutes, shall pay the price," but an attempt is being made to fit soil cleanup more closely to social processes through market dynamics and to make it less expensive by adapting the level of cleanup to the function planned for any particular location. Because of its close relationship to urban dynamics, it has been decided to have soil cleanup covered by the Urban Regeneration Investment Fund (ISV).

Waste

Since the 1990s, policy as established in the National Environmental Policy Plan 3 (Dutch: NMP 3) is geared to preventing waste and reusing existing waste. Separated collection of household waste has been greatly intensified in recent years. This mainly concerns the separation of paper and cardboard, glass, fabric, vegetable, fruit, garden and minor chemical waste and household appliances. Every type of waste requires its own collection structure, a collection system with which a municipality collects separated waste in different containers (e.g. vegetable, fruit or garden waste) or a system in which residents have to bring separated waste, such as glass and paper, to a special site. All these provisions have in recent years assumed a place in the Dutch street scene.

Partially due to separated collection, the amount of waste to be dumped has drastically dropped in recent years. This reduction is still under way. Dumping capacity has, however, decreased less rapidly. To avoid problems connected with this overcapacity, a number of small dumps have been and will be closed. These closed dump sites, mainly situated near urban development, can not be used as a building site. In most cases, however, green spaces or recreational facilities are situated on the old dump sites, which enables the space to be used for a new social function.

Urban water management

Frame 9: Local level of sustainability

Many activities undertaken at a local level for implementing Agenda 21 also fit the Habitat Agenda. A good example of this is the Local Level of Sustainability, that was developed by the National Commission for Sustainable Development and international collaboration (Dutch: NCDO). Local groups can use these levels, which are on the Internet, to determine how sustainably their municipalities work in terms of each policy issue. This includes issues such as the quality of life in addition to more traditional environmental issues such as water and energy. The results mainly serve as an impetus to local social discussions. Local environmental monitors are also utilized by various municipalities, such as that of the municipality of The Hague. The Association of Netherlands Municipalities have also developed a municipal environmental monitor.

Until recently, urban water management and use were more or less the quickest and most efficient manner of conveying waste and rain water through the sewer system to the purification plant. This approach is beginning, however, to lose its appeal, due to the disadvantages that can result, such as flooding, unpurified discharges of peak flows (overflows), water wastage and drying out of vegetation as a result of a drop in groundwater levels.

More sustainable management and use of water in urban areas is considered desirable and feasible. The policy framework for this is established in various national government policy documents such as the

Fourth Water Management Policy Document, the Second Plan of Approach to Sustainable Building and the Third National Environmental Policy Plan (NMP3). This policy framework is based on three points. Firstly, an attempt is made to more closely attune the different phases in the water chain (purification, drinking water, discharge and reuse). Secondly, the goal is to use the water system and ecology as a basis in planning and designing urban areas. Finally, the intention of this policy framework is to gain more cooperation from all players in the entire water chain, including residents. For quantitative information about sewage connections and drinking water, refer to the report in the addendum on pages 18, 19, 37, 38 and 39.

Sustainable building

In 1997, the government issued the Environment and Economy Policy Document, which indicates that the goal is to eliminate tension between the environment and economy as much as possible. The idea on which this document is based is, briefly, that there are more opportunities for combining the environment and economy than have so far been utilized. For this, government action is necessary, but also a change in society. The government can promote the inception of this change. Bottom-up initiatives will be encouraged and sample projects (standard bearers) started up as sources of inspiration. Within the scope of perspectives from this document, the Ministry of Housing, Spatial Planning and the Environment (VROM) established the Sustainable Building program.

Frame 10: Sustainable living

In recent years, the notion has grown in the Netherlands that, in addition to further technological developments, a change in mentality and practices of all parties involved is necessary to bring about sustainability in the living environment. Consequently, there has been an increase in discussions about sustainable living instead of sustainable building. To give this development more impetus, the Dutch Habitat Platform started the Sustainable Living Campaign in 2000. The purpose of this campaign is to encourage residents to alter their consumption habits in order to limit the use of energy and natural resources. Promoting the use of solar energy and bicycle use for short-distance travel are the spearheads of the campaign. The assumption for this is that human needs, including their predilection for comfort, should be considered a fact. Restriction, moralizing and punishment have an insufficient impact. Instead, residents should be involved in the process of seeking solutions to reduce the ecological impact of consumers. Part of the campaign includes assembling a sustainable living toolkit, in which examples are worked out in a step-by-step plan. This toolkit is supposed to inspire residents to work together with municipalities, housing associations and other involved parties to effect energy savings in the living environment. Included are such measures as stimulating the use of solar water heaters for heating and hot water needs in the Netherlands. The formation of local Eco Teams that encourage residents at the district and neighbourhood levels to exhibit more sustainable behaviour will be promoted.

In the area of housing, spatial planning and the environment, the concept of sustainable building has been accepted. It is founded on three ideas, i.e. energy conservation, management of raw materials chains and quality assurance. Sustainable building concerns an approach to the construction process, in which sustainability is an integral component of design and building. Sustainable building includes high quality and future value, taking optimum account of environmental effects. The foundation of sustainable building is collaboration and a basis in the market, supported by as little legislation as possible. The market itself will seek instruments for maximally integrating innovations, such as the National Standard Packages (Dutch: Nationale Basispakketten).

Monitoring reports show that the two plans of approach to Sustainable Building (1995 and 1997) have had an effect. The goal of both plans was to strengthen and in time give a permanent place to sustainability issues in decision-making on the design and use of the built environment, including housing. Sustainable building got a big boost in the

second half of the 1990s. Many parties were involved in sustainable building, and knowledge on this subject has grown. National Packages will soon be available to all building sectors. They are check lists of measures to promote sustainable building that were voluntarily agreed upon by all involved parties (market parties and the government) at the national level and in which knowledge of sustainable building is compiled. Following the package for the house construction sector, packages were also introduced for commercial and industrial building in 1998 and urban development in 1999. The environment was also added as a fifth cornerstone to the Housing Act, which prompted its inclusion in the Building Decree. In addition to a majority of project developers and 90% of the housing associations, house buyers were also willing to invest in sustainable building. About half of the house buyers are prepared to pay more for sustainable building. This willingness is related to possibilities for earning back investments. The national government has signed a sustainable building covenant with 80% of the municipalities. This is a voluntary agreement with a package of measures that the government and market parties agree will generate a sufficient environmental effect. Due to the fact that the measures will be applied on a larger scale, the additional costs of sustainable building measures connected with energy and water conservation and sound insulation have dropped dramatically.

B.7 Sustainable transportation systems

In the last five years, work on implementing policy goals as established in the Second Traffic and Transportation Structural Plan (Dutch: Tweede Structuurschema Verkeer en Vervoer -SVV II). SVV II represented a break in the trend of traffic and transportation policy. Livability was added to accessibility as a main goal for the first time. An extensive package of environmental measures was agreed upon. They contained an approach to the source, the reduction and guiding of mobility, and offering alternatives to cars and airplanes.

The most significant results of SVV II in the area of the environment were achieved for policy goals for fighting acidification. Despite the growth of mobility, anti-acidification goals were largely attained through source policy⁵ and technology. Reducing the use of cars has proved difficult, however. From 1996-1999, the number of commute kilometers travelled increased and the use of different types of transportation increased, excepting the environment-friendly forms (moped and walking). Apart from the greater growth in mobility than forecast, there are several reasons for this, such as the continued distribution of commute traffic and impediments to price policy such as border effects and fuel prices on the global market, over which the government has no control (also refer to the addendum on page 41).

Preparations for a new National Traffic and Transportation Plan (Dutch: Nationaal Verkeer en VervoersPlan - NVVP) are now in an advanced stage. Quality of life is a major aspect of this plan. The ultimate object is not to decrease the number of kilometers (driven by cars) but to achieve a reduced environmental impact. The strategy the government has chosen for this consists of four elements: norms, the rule that the polluter pays, good infrastructure quality and new technology. Examples of measures that will be taken and that are relative within this scope are agreements with municipalities on cleaner urban distribution vehicles, a limiting of traffic in urban areas, cleaner buses and taxis, a more rigid parking policy, study of alternative solutions (such as asphaltic concrete with an open texture so that water can run off very easily and automobile noise is muffled) both in urban and rural environments and improvement of railroad equipment to reduce noise.

In 1998, the Third Telematics, Traffic and Transportation Policy Document (Dutch: Nota Telematica, Verkeer en Vervoer -TVV III) was issued, which contains the telematica policy from the Ministry of Transport, Public Works and Water management for 1998 – 2003. The theme that runs through this document is “implementation through free market processes.” The government’s intention is a greater connection to market developments. This is made possible by rapid developments in vehicle-specific technologies. And as a result of this, the interests of the government (traffic management, maintenance, safety) and the market (new services) are moving closer together.

B.8 Art and Culture

In 1999, the Belvédère Policy Document was issued by the State Secretary of Culture and three other members of the cabinet. This is a policy document about the relationship between cultural history and spatial structure. This document marks a shift in the attitude towards the preservation of monuments, historic buildings and archaeology. The document considers both sectors as an integral component of cultural history and attempts to

⁵) Source policy: policy that focuses on the causes, the source, of a problem (e.g. cars). In contrast to effect policy, this policy attempts to reduce or combat ensuing effects (e.g. sound barriers).

make a connection between maintenance and development of cultural legacies in relationship to the spatial structure of the Netherlands. Sustainable maintenance should be linked to spatial development. The document turns this into a package of measures, varying from a region-specific approach to culturally and historically valuable areas to promotion of the development of knowledge and expertise. Adequate interpretation of the intentions of the Fifth Report on Spatial Planning that is currently being prepared by the Ministry of Housing, Spatial Planning and the Environment is very important.

The Monument Selection Project (MSP) was started by the National Agency for the Preservation of Monuments and Historic Buildings for the purpose of selecting and describing valuable items and complexes built between 1850 and 1940. This is expected to result in 12,000 new items and 200 new protected city and townscapes (areas). This process will be completed by about 2002. In addition to the new areas, the preservation of constructed monuments and historic buildings is behind in terms of restorations. A plan has been developed to systematically catch up, taking economic effects into account. This Strategic Plan for the Preservation of Monuments and Historic Buildings (Dutch: Strategisch Plan Monumentenzorg) has almost been carried out thanks to several substantial financial contributions from the national government. The only problem that remains now are the very large national monuments.

The Netherlands signed UNESCO's World Heritage Agreement in 1992. Five recommendations from the Netherlands have been placed on the World Heritage list, i.e. the former island of Schokland, the Amsterdam fortification, the Kinderdijk mill complex, the ir. D.F. Wouda pumping station and the Beemster polder. Placement on this list has promoted cultural awareness and offers more opportunities for acquiring sponsors and setting up a creative development program. It also gives the various authorities a special responsibility for ensuring sustainable preservation. The State Secretary of Culture has promised to write a letter explaining his world heritage policy to the representatives.

The archaeological sector has gained momentum in recent years. This is the result of the extension of archaeological tasks related to the preservation of monuments and historical buildings, based on the current Monuments and Historic Buildings Act and increased contributions to spatial procedures and environmental effect reports. The implementation of the Treaty of Malta (1992) also had a profound effect on this development. The basis of this treaty is preservation of archaeological legacies, wherever possible. In the development of spatial policy, archaeological or, even better, cultural and historical interest has to be taken into consideration from the outset of the decision-making process. A statutory system, including an archaeological permit, for soil disturbing activities that may lead to damage of the archaeological soil archive is currently under development. The basis of this is the principle that "the one who disturbs the soil pays."

C. CAPACITY BUILDING AND INSTITUTIONAL DEVELOPMENT

C.1 Introduction

This section describes the institutional framework within which the Netherlands promote the two main goals of the Habitat II conference, i.e. the right to housing for everyone and the realization of a sustainable housing and living environment. This concerns the legal framework as well as the allocation of responsibilities and the approach maintained by the Netherlands. The way in which the Netherlands has lent content to a number of tools and recommendations of the Habitat Agenda is delved into. These tools and recommendations lie in the realm of planning, market forces, local administrative infrastructure, institutional development, integral approach, cooperation and participation of citizens at the local level.

C.2 The Right to Housing

The Dutch government has long recognized the responsibility of fostering a good housing situation. According to the Constitution the advocacy of sufficient housing is an item of concern to the government. The Housing Act, which dates back to 1901, constitutes the legal framework for government intervention in the area of housing, but even prior to that, this government responsibility was attended to. The impetus for the introduction of the Housing Act 100 years ago were the many health problems of the Dutch population, many of which were related to the poor quality of the housing. The government responsibility is evidenced in the wide scale of regulation, policy and provisions that have been brought about in the realm of housing, spatial planning, and the environment. This scale of regulation and policy coincides with the broad impact of the right to housing. This right does not only concern the need of a roof over one's head, but also the realization of a healthy, sustainable,

and safe housing and living environment, and the affordability and accessibility of housing for everyone regardless of sex, origin, race or bodily handicap.

The Netherlands maintains an ample interpretation of the extent of the right to housing. Important components of this fundamental right are anchored in the national legislation, such as the Civil Code (rent control), the Housing Act (quality standards, enforcement system and monetary support base) and the Rent Subsidy Act (affordable housing). The existing legislation in principle allows everyone to obtain and use land. The legal regulation of property rights and the limited rights such as leasing rights in principle guarantee legal protection and the freedom to dispose of one's property. In spatial planning and respectively the environment the Spatial Planning Act and the Municipalities Act on Right of First Refusal and respectively the Environmental Management Act, the Soil Protection Act and the Noise Abatement Act are most important. Conflicting zoning interests and protection of urban, rural and ecological quality require active government involvement with the spatial structure of the country.

C.3 Allocation of responsibility and efficient market forces

The **Habitat Agenda** advocates an evenly balanced housing market, avoiding unnecessary government intervention in the market, in order to promote market forces and efficiency. On the other hand, vulnerable groups are to be protected in the housing market.

After the Second World War, the Netherlands had a centrally controlled housing policy, which was part of the reconstruction policy. An important task was set aside for the non-profit sector: the housing associations. These

Frame 11: Key Policy Living

In order to back the Dutch municipalities in the establishment of a policy program on the topic of housing and living conditions, a guide has been published by the Association of Netherlands Municipalities (Vereniging van Nederlandse Gemeenten - VNG): Key Policy Living. In this publication, the entire policy realm is walked through by means of some 30-policy questions. Municipalities can make use of this when establishing their policy program on living. The publication is particularly intended for the support of small and mid-sized municipalities. The first version of this guide came out around mid 1996 entitled "Key Policy Housing." In 1999, an updated follow-up publication appeared in which the policy realm is widened from housing to living and in which the integral approach to living is done more justice. Moreover, in this way a contribution can also be made to the development program in the framework of the urban regeneration investment budget (ISV). The guide does not only deal with the content of the policy but also contains a concrete step-by-step plan of the creation of it. The guiding role that the municipalities have in the realm of living is also delved into. Meanwhile, 60% of the small and midsize municipalities have laid down the housing policy in a policy document drawn up by the municipal council. Over half of these documents came about in the last three years. Over one-third of the remaining municipalities are working on a policy document on living. Over half of the municipalities (55 %) view Key Policy Living as an aid in the development and elaboration of municipal housing policy.

are organizations with a private law character that carry out public tasks. For that purpose they in the past received extensive loans and subsidies. At the end of the 1980's, a restructuring came into effect paired with the reduction of the guiding role of the state and an expansion of the autonomy of private parties. The role of the government has changed from directing to creating conditions and has now been brought back to its essence: to ensure that the housing market functions properly and to protect groups who cannot obtain their housing independently. The premise is that, aside from the local government, the citizens, the market participants and housing associations are themselves responsible for the realization of housing. If possible, tasks and authority with accompanying risks have been transferred by the state to other levels of government and housing associations. The municipalities are still primarily responsible for the distribution of housing, spatial planning and housing at the local level. The Urban Regeneration Act gave momentum to the decentralization and improvement of the relative position of municipalities with regard to other local parties.

Control is a dynamic process within which all parties are still looking for their position. Therefore, the supervision of the Housing Associations in 1993 shifted from the national government to the municipalities. In 1998, the state reassumed this responsibility.

The strong financial ties of the past between the government and housing associations have slowly dissolved. The associations became increasingly independent financially. Important in this regard is the so-called "bruteringsoperatie" of 1995. Hereby the outstanding loans of the government to the housing associations were bought out in exchange for the right of future subsidies. With that, associations increasingly became risk-bearing institutions. The financial responsibility and the administrative leeway for associations are laid down in the Social Rental Sector Management Decree. Associations are exclusively allowed to operate in the area of housing and must, among other things, make themselves responsible in the area of affordable housing of the target group, the assurance of adequate quality, the involvement of tenants in management and maintenance, and the promotion of livability.

The associations have embraced the changes in an enterprising way, among others by rapid professionalization, mergers, partnerships, and market orientation. In 1999, an extensive market impact study on the associations sector was conducted, investigating, in particular the possible distortion of competition through state mandates with regard to associations. The study's main focus was the fiscal exemptions from transfer duties and corporate income tax and the public sector guarantees with the Social Housing Guarantee Fund. Before moving toward abolishing the possible exemptions or alternatively mitigating the advantages, the state in consultation with those affected shall investigate which influence this has on the to be attained state goals such as restructuring of neighbourhoods and how a possible disadvantage is to be compensated. The government has signed this recommendation on account of the market impact study. Although more and more associations venture into areas where other market participants are also active, the future emphasis will increasingly be placed on the societal mandate for the associations.

C.4 Integral approach

Frame 12: The Neighbourhood Navigator: guideline for integral and interactive neighbourhood planning
The neighbourhood-oriented approach has yet to mature. In many a municipality it is being experimented with but there is great lack of clarity on objectives, processes, and the tools to be used. Precisely on that final aspect, the tools, the Dutch Habitat Platform wishes to deliver a contribution. The Neighbourhood Navigator (Dutch: De Wijkwijzer): a guideline for the integral and interactive formulation of plans, which was published in cooperation with the Association of Netherlands Municipalities, is a good example of a tool that more intimately involves the citizen and other affected parties in policy making. To make sure that there is sufficient support for the policy in the area, it is of great importance that all affected parties are included in policy making early on. The Neighbourhood Navigator (1999) offers a script, for district managers and others involved, for the integral approach to neighbourhood development. The goal of this tool is to make the cooperating partners aware of the factors of success and failure. Herewith it is not a recipe for successful cooperation, but rather a "checklist" with important points. The "checklist" is derived from a model in which three phases of plan development are distinguished: the shared ambition, the concerted strategy and the actual plan development. The tool has been put to the test in three districts, in the municipalities Enschede, Utrecht en Groningen.

Policy aimed at housing and living surroundings almost always affects a variety of departments. So now, more than in the past, cooperation is sought between the "living surroundings-departments." This is reflected in the process of determining locations which have been designated as new construction locations in the Fourth Report on Physical Planning Plus (VINEX) and the agreements which are a result of the Updating of the Fourth Report (Dutch: VINEX Actualisering - VINAC), during the discussions of the economic structure of the Netherlands and the spatial fit of large infrastructure projects. An integral approach is expressly being utilized in the carrying out of urban restructuring and the promotion of livability of urban areas, whereby in the framework of the Major City Policy close cooperation takes place in the realm of job opportunity, economy, public health, welfare, education, culture, environment, green space, zoning and safety. The integral approach at the national as well as the municipal level is vigorously stimulated by means of the Urban Regeneration Investment Budget (ISV)

bundling existing subsidy arrangements in housing construction, restructuring of industrial terrains, residential surroundings, environment and green areas, into one broad dedicated grant. The possibilities or impossibilities of the municipal policy are, however, not only being determined by financial capacity. Complex problems, such as the danger of developing one-sided income neighbourhoods and the beleaguered livability of many neighbourhoods emphasizes the need for an integral approach in which living is brought into connection with policy areas such as job opportunities, education, security and environmental management. However, there is no standard recipe for the integral approach. Therefore, municipalities are searching for new tools and modus operandi, whereby the Habitat Agenda provides a source of inspiration.

C.5 Cooperation, decentralization and participation.

Cooperation between the national government, municipalities, societal organizations, businesses and residents is one of the recommended strategies of the Habitat Agenda. Agreements between the national government and the major cities regarding the number of homes to be built are laid out in covenants. The development of so-called multiple year development programs (Dutch: Meerjaren OntwikkelingsProgramma's - MOP's) which are supposed to be set up by a variety of the major cities is a good example of cooperation with the different parties. The cities are to get private parties and citizens involved and achieve support to receive state subsidy. The municipality has a central directing function with the initiation and further stimulation of dealing with the problems. The state offers the municipalities ways and means to actually be able to carry out this directing function.

The quality of the housing and living surroundings is very immediate to the citizen and his daily life. Moreover, problems are often concentrated in certain districts or neighbourhoods. So it is not coincidental that the

approach that focuses on districts, often in the framework of national policy programs such as urban regeneration or major city policy, has grown in recent years. This is being reinforced by a general trend in society in which citizens are becoming increasingly vocal, have more and better information at their disposal and are no longer willing to passively simply just let "policy" run over them. The district-oriented approach accommodates this and assumes a different type of cooperation between the various parties that are involved in the community. It particularly means a change of the relationship between the citizen and local government. Local policy is becoming increasingly interactive, whereby all involved parties (citizens, businesses, housing associations, municipalities, care providers, etc.) can give input. For the local government above all the role of local director is pertinent in this setting.

The strategy for cooperation suggested by Habitat II in the Netherlands is shaped by means of the Major City Policy (Dutch: Grote Steden Beleid - GSB). An important element in the approach is that the cities and the central government or, alternately, the province sit down at the same table to enable a coordinated integral policy development at the local level. Interactive policy making is increasingly utilized in more complex and large policy trajectories. This is a good instrument to include all stakeholders at the beginning of the policy process. An example of interactive policy making is the Open Plan Process (Dutch: OPP), with which the project City and Environment is experimenting (in Chapter B.6 this project is described more closely). The awareness to arrive at the GSB was reinforced by the experiences in the area of administrative renewal at the local level. In the past, job opportunities were considered an issue for the concerned ministry for which the locally responsible legislator was seen as executor too often. The fact that job opportunities are also closely related with, for example, the social infrastructure in a city and/or district is now much better recognized. New interest groups have increasingly played a role in the area of living, especially the organizations of senior citizens, the disabled, and homeowners. Moreover, the government supports a national housing consumer organization (Dutch Tenants Union). The present position of the resident organizations is still insufficiently developed. This will be changed by legislation concerning the deliberations between tenant organizations and landlords. Through its composition and procedures the Rent Commission (an easy access provision for the settlement of rental differences) now already contributes to a balanced input of tenant and landlord interests in this area. At the national level residents in the framework of the Major City Policy since 1995 participate in the National Residents' Platform for Areas under Attention (Dutch: Landelijk Bewonersplatform Aandachtsgebieden -LBA), that together with the municipal councils, the National Cooperative Association for Areas under Attention and the National Community Development Centre organizes location and theme days in the major cities.

The importance of good representation by women in all types of administrative bodies is by now almost universally recognized. The Netherlands had experienced a wave of emancipation, women more than ever participate in the job market and the difference in level of education between men and women has been

Frame 13: Women's Advisory Committees on Housing

The 260 local Women Advisory Committees (Dutch: VAC's) on Housing and their umbrella organization at the national level, the National Contact, work on promoting user-friendly quality of housing and housing surroundings. The assumption hereby is that every human being regardless of age or physical condition has the right to accessible, safe and suitably laid out housing and housing surroundings. The layout of the housing and housing surroundings must enable independent existence and create conditions for individual growth. At the local level the VAC's advise on the planning and building process of new housing. In this process they allow themselves to be guided by the interests of the future residents. Important facilities in the living surroundings must be good and safely accessible also for pedestrians and cyclists. By assuming the use of the bicycle and public transportation as a point of departure in spatial development, the use of cars and pollution can be reduced. The VAC's also attempt to make housing consumers more conscious of the concept of user-friendly quality and the possibilities to influence the building process. The National Contact supports the local activities through schooling, advice and research, and by the publishing of the VAC -Quality Indicator, a handbook for user-friendly quality. The VAC's have also been involved in the establishment of Housing Choice, a quality seal for the housing construction industry.

significantly reduced, although from a national viewpoint there are still somewhat more boys than girls who enjoy a university education (see the addendum on page 31). Nonetheless women still play a merely modest role in local administration. The Ministry of Internal Affairs' objective of 30% women in the municipal councils has not been realized after the 1998 election. At the end of 1999 the percentage was at 23%. Even the 88 female mayors in the Netherlands at the end of 1999 made up merely 17% of the total (for more data see the addendum on page 33). In the Dutch NGO report for Beijing + 5 a number of causes are pointed out: from the traditional distribution of roles between men and women, stereotyped values and norms about administration and the absence of women with expertise in a variety of areas, to discrimination against women in the selection criteria and the absence of women in selection and advisory committees. Furthermore, insufficient child-care and the failure to fully recognize part-time work creates obstacles. During the celebration in the Netherlands of World Habitat Day 2000 the organizing institutions request attention be paid to the importance of good representation of women in

time work creates obstacles. During the celebration in the Netherlands of World Habitat Day 2000 the organizing institutions request attention be paid to the importance of good representation of women in

administrative functions at all levels in order to arrive at a better housing and living environment. The Women's Advisory Commissions for housing are active at the local level.

In the Netherlands there is growing awareness of the fact that adolescents provide an important contribution to a sustainable housing and living environment. The involvement of adolescents was mentioned before in relation to safety. Youth organizations also make efforts in a wider sense in order to play a bigger role in the structuring and use of the living surroundings. The Association 31 is presently advocating the establishment of a youth network in the Netherlands that will be dedicated to habitat, seeking affiliation with the International Youth for Habitat network, the secretariat of which is based in Turkey. A representative of Association 31 participated in the Youth Forum that was held during the 17th session of the Commission on Human Settlements of the UN.

C.6 Dutch Habitat Platform

The implementation of the Habitat Agenda is not only on a matter of national governments. The importance of the local level is pointed out in the Habitat Agenda. Moreover, there is an appeal to also involve other partners in the process beside the government, such as NGO's, companies, housing associations and last but not least: residents. Therefore the Netherlands have been seeking a broad platform for the implementation of the Habitat Agenda. It was decided to establish a national platform: the Dutch Habitat Platform. This platform is an initiative of the Ministry of Housing, Spatial Planning and the Environment and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and jointly financed by both. The Dutch Habitat Platform addresses its activities in accordance with the Habitat Agenda to the Netherlands as well as to international cooperation. The secretariat of the Dutch Habitat Platform is housed with and often (partly as a result thereof) works together with the Association of Netherlands Municipalities. A Habitat Council has also been established, in which diverse social organizations and municipalities participate, through which Habitat activities gain a broader involvement.

Habitat covers a broad range of related topics through which the members of the Habitat Council and other organizations already carry out numerous activities. The Dutch Habitat Platform promotes improved cooperation with and between these organizations to make the input of available time, manpower and means more effective. A large part of the activities is prepared in so-called task groups consisting of a number of members of the Habitat Council. Here the role of the Dutch Habitat Platform consists of: the unification of a broad scale of organizations around specific themes or activities; bringing to attention the principles, points of departure and recommendations of the Habitat Agenda; the joint development of tools and methods which can be applied by others at the local level; and the exchange of knowledge, expertise, and real-world examples. First and foremost the Dutch Habitat Platform is not the umpteenth party wanting to realize its own program. On the contrary, the platform seeks cooperation with existing programs, such as the Local Agenda 21, and activities of the members of the Habitat Council and other national and international organizations in order to promote more synergy in this fashion. It can be observed that Habitat, partly due to the timeliness of political topics in this area, is garnering increased interest and gaining a more integrating function.

Frame 14: Dutch Habitat Platform spotlighted topics

Because habitat is too broad a topic to repeatedly deal with in its entirety, the Dutch Habitat Platform semi annually requests attention be given to a topic that deserves special attention. Habitat will then be spotlighted from that particular angle. Thereby each topic will still be dealt with integrally. The common thread running through all the topics is the relationship between residents, business, government, and cross-sector consensus. The semiannual topics dovetail as much as possible with international UN topics or with initiatives of the members of the Habitat Council or other national or international organizations. The topics chosen so far include: The safe city, a place for adolescents (World Habitat Day 1998), The elderly and housing, especially minority and marginalized elderly groups (first half of 1999), The shared city, a city for everyone (World Habitat Day 1999), Sustainable housing (first half of 2000), the role of women in good (local) management (World Habitat Day 2000), Five-year Habitat Agenda, Istanbul + 5 (first half of 2001)

C.7 Monitoring

The Dutch Habitat Platform is also involved in international deliberation concerning the progress in the execution of the Habitat Agenda and concerning the international reporting on this matter. The Dutch report from 1998 on behalf of the State of the World's Cities was drafted by the platform on assignment from the government. In 1999 the international discussion was initiated, how best to measure the progress of the implementation of the Habitat Agenda. To this end an international seminar was organized around the topic: "Monitoring the implementation of the Habitat Agenda and the use of indicators". The seminar was held by the Institute for Housing and Urban Development Studies (Dutch: IHS) in Rotterdam and was attended by 41 experts from 13 countries. During the convention, participants from Finland, India and the Netherlands presented the experiences that exist in their countries with the monitoring of topics, which are part of the Habitat

Agenda. Representatives of UNCHS and UNDP emphasized the importance of a good international monitoring system. On behalf of the Habitat International Coalition a number of issues requiring clarification were pointed out. An important point of discussion was the question whether monitoring should mainly be targeted toward promoting the execution of the Habitat Agenda in the individual countries themselves, or whether international reports and comparisons are the primary goal. This was coupled to the question whether both goals could be pursued with a universal set of indicators.

D. INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION

D.1 Introduction.

The Habitat Agenda indicates how international cooperation and coordination can be strengthened in the light of continuing globalization and economic interdependence. Strengthening of international cooperation and coordination can be realized by in the first place creating a context, which is conducive to the realization of Habitat goals on the national and local level. Furthermore, by, in particular, supporting developing countries with additional financial means and economic instruments. Thirdly, the multilateral and bilateral programs with reference to technological support and information-exchange and institutional cooperation play an important role.

The Netherlands gives strong support to the implementation of the Habitat Agenda through its international activities. In this chapter special attention is paid to the Netherlands Habitat activities through international cooperation in the years 1996 - 2000. These activities include the multilateral and bilateral programs by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, which mainly operate at the macro and meso levels, the municipal programs and the programs by non-governmental organizations, which mainly operate at the meso and micro levels.

D.2 Multilateral and bilateral activities

The Netherlands Urban development program was originally involved in actions directly improving the living standards of poor people in urban areas. Since 1996 however, the focus gradually shifted towards activities aimed at tackling the structural causes of the problems. It has always been understood that poverty reduction is a process, which must primarily come from within and from below. The emphasis is on generating jobs and income, on improving the social and physical environment and the relationship between urban and rural areas. The program also addresses key topics from the Habitat Agenda: involvement of local people, constructive cooperation between the public and private sectors and institutional development to promote good governance. Above all, rapid urban growth calls for pro-active development policies and strategies. Policy, which responds post-hoc to negative situations often resembles crises management and is by definition more costly, less effective and above all less sustainable. Good local government, involvement of local people, and good planning and cooperation between all the parties concerned (with capable authorities providing the necessary coordination) should be able to prevent this. Urban areas must become productive, healthy, with a good quality of life and above all a sustainable environment for a growing portion of the world's population. Whether this can be achieved will depend on open communication and cooperation between the various players at the local, national and international level. Since 1998 this is the guiding principle of the current "Urban Development and Economy" program in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs in the Netherlands.

During the reported period the Netherlands development cooperation program made a major shift from project and program support towards sectoral approaches accompanied by strong delegation of responsibilities to the embassies. Moreover, mid 1999 the (17+4) recipient countries in the Dutch bilateral program were asked to prioritize a limited number of sectors in order to enhance the effectiveness of bilateral assistance. That urban development had not been prioritized was not surprising since urban development, like rural development, seldom belongs to one particular sector. However, from a developmental point of view, this outcome does surprise since more than half of today's world population lives in urban areas, which generate between 55 to 85% of GDP and, as a result of these demographic and economic concentrations, have an enormous impact on the global commons.

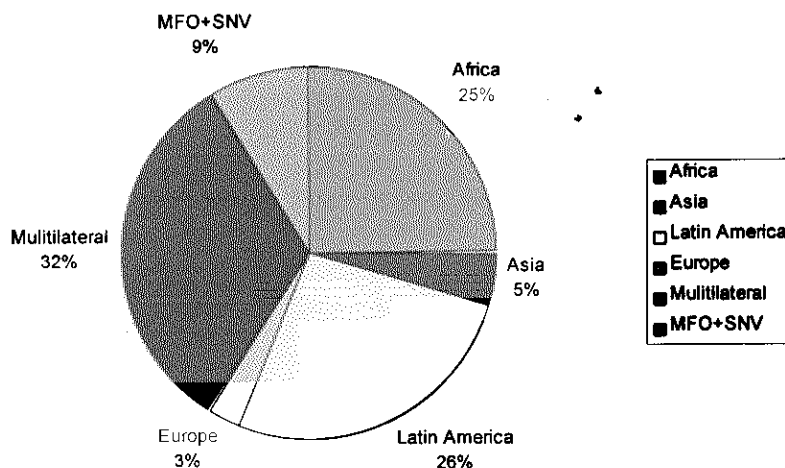
In the Netherlands multilateral program some significant changes took place during the last few years. With some of the major multilateral organizations, such as the World Bank (WB) and the International Labour Organization (ILO), development programs will be implemented through so-called Partnership arrangement. These programs involve regular discussions on mutual priorities, and less donor involvement at the micro level.

Examples of support through partnership programs related with the implementation of the Habitat Agenda are the Netherlands contribution to Cities Alliance and the ILO/ In Focus program on boosting employment through small enterprises.

Also at the national level support is given to the implementation of the Habitat Agenda. Together with the Ministry of Housing, Spatial Planning and the Environment (VROM) the Dutch Habitat Platform was established in 1998 with the objective to raise awareness on habitat at the national and international levels. A total of approx. NFL 96 million (US\$ 40 million) was disbursed for Habitat related activities since 1996. Of that amount approx. NFL 64 million was spent on activities in our bilateral cooperation program. Major countries with Habitat related programs were: South-Africa, Zambia, Bolivia, Peru, Chili, Jamaica and some Central American countries.

For the multilateral activities NFL 32 million was available, mainly in support of large WB programs (for example the Municipal Development program (MDP)), UNDP programs (e.g. the LIFE and Urban Management program (UMP)) and UNCHS programs, such as Sustainable Cities, Crime Prevention and the Community Development program. Besides that there was also strong support for a few International Union of Local Authorities (IULA) programs.

The figure below shows how the urban development budget is divided within the international cooperation at the national level. Netherlands support through the Partnership programs is not included in these figures



D.3 Activities by non-governmental organizations

Frame 15: Habitat for Humanity the Netherlands

Habitat for humanity is an ecumenical aid organization, which is focused on structural aid to people at the bottom of society by means of helping to construct and organize adequate simple housing for families. Interest free mortgages are distributed through Habitat for Humanity and the residents themselves must contribute 500 hours constructing their own house or that of their neighbour. Habitat for Humanity works with so-called affiliates. An affiliate operates as an independent local Habitat community, has a local administration and is responsible for its own organization and realization of projects. By also handling the social accompaniment of housing projects as point of departure the Dutch department takes up a unique position within Habitat for Humanity International. Aside from raising and making funds available, volunteers are recruited to, together with residents, build on a variety of foreign projects, among others in Columbia, Tanzania, Hungary and Northern Ireland. In addition funds were collected for a mobile installation for the production of roof tiles in Sri Lanka.

The Netherlands has a broad spectrum of non-governmental organizations (NGO's), which, with or without support from the national government, strive for cooperation with developing countries, including in the area of Habitat. These are primarily the co-financing organizations (Dutch: medefinancieringsorganisaties -MFO's), the Dutch Volunteers Foundation (Dutch: Stichting Nederlandse Vrijwilligers - SNV) and Habitat for Humanity Netherlands. In addition there are a number of organizations that are oriented toward the Netherlands, which support international activities such as housing associations and trade unions.

Frame 16: Unions: international solidarity

The Dutch trade unions in the construction sector are also involved with the improvement of housing and living conditions in developing countries. The point of departure here is that good labor relations, good working conditions, and professional training of employees are a condition for the improvement of housing and living conditions. Furthermore, the support and promotion of cooperation with local sister organizations is a focal point of the policy. The Federation of Dutch Unions (Dutch: FNV) does this through its international networks such as the International Confederation of Free Trade Unions (Dutch: IVVV) in Brussels and the International Federation of Construction and Woodworkers in Geneva (IFBWW). As such, the latter organization, together with two South African construction associations is financing a housing project in South Africa. The Lumber and Construction Federation National Federation of Christian Trade Unions (Dutch: CNV) through the World Federation of Labor (Dutch: WVA) in Brussels supports Lumber and Construction Federations in developing countries. Concurrently, in the collective bargaining agreements that these federations have entered into with employees, a certain percentage is made available for housing programs in developing countries.

For a number of Dutch non-governmental organizations the accelerated growth of urban populations in the developing countries, through which poverty increasingly becomes an urban issue, is a direct motive to pay extra attention to habitat and urban campaigns against poverty. In this way the priorities of partner organizations in developing countries are being met and policy is being followed that is complementary with regard to the Dutch bilateral policy, in which, according to those organizations, urban anti-poverty campaigns should be given more attention. The Dutch co-financing organizations (MFO's), these are Cordaid, ICCO, Novib, and Hivos and since recently Foster Parents Plan, focus on three general objectives, namely fighting poverty, society building/good management and influencing policy. This happens in particular through the support of NGO's in developing countries. The MFO's themselves don't carry out projects but partly finance activities of partner organizations in

developing countries. To that end they receive a yearly budget from the Ministry of Foreign Affairs that is supplemented by their own fund-raising. The improvement of living conditions (in the broadest sense) of marginalized and poor population groups is the first priority.

The NGO's that are being supported focus primarily on the independization of the target groups. They reinforce the target group in their problem-solving capacity and help them to organize themselves so that they can take local development into their own hands. In this way the urban poor become empowered as equal partners in conversation with governments and other organizations. The entering into and strengthening of partnerships between community-based organizations (CBO's), NGO's, the private sector and the local governments is an important strategy. The partner organizations create an important link between the local government and the target groups. They facilitate, among others things, the access to public goods and services from the government. The majority of these organizations also carry out lobbying activities on the local as well as regional level.

Novib primarily considers habitat a part of the larger problems of poverty, development and (good) management. For Cordaid and ICCO the increasing urban poverty in the South is incentive to specifically give attention to habitat and the problems of poverty in the urban context. Within ICCO, the inter-ecclesiastic organization for development cooperation, an informal group has been formed around urban poverty which follows developments regarding urbanization, exchanges information and invites experts to elucidate specific topics more closely. This group furthermore stimulates continued interest in this topic within the organization. In the upcoming policy statements and the various national policy statements the specific urban problems and desired approach in the concerned countries will be detailed further. Cordaid, within which Bilance, Memisa and People in Need merged, has designated the fight against urban poverty as a priority topic and has hired a coordinator who is dedicated to developing policy and providing information internally.

The attention given to urban problems is also apparent in the supporting project activities. A variety of urban partner organizations are supported by ICCO. In 1997 7% of the total cash was spent on specific urban projects

Frame 17: Habitat International Coalition

On a super-regional level the two co-financing organizations Novib and Cordaid work closely with Habitat International Coalition (HIC), an international NGO which devotes itself to the recognition, defense and implementation of the right to housing, safety and dignity. Also included are problems in the area of urban settlements, water rights, sanitation, land and housing. HIC has approximately 350 member organizations in 80 countries. These are community-based organizations (CBO's), non-governmental organizations (NGO's), academic and research institutes and other societal organizations. HIC represents the demands and ideas of the members at international conventions, but at the local level also supports residents' initiatives and community-based organizations. On a super-regional level the cooperation with HIC is central to Novib's primary objective: fighting poverty in the South. Not only are many partners in the area affiliated with the network but intensive use is also being made of HIC's lobbying tools in carrying out campaigns.

and 36% of the total cash was spent on combined projects, which contained urban as well as rural components. ICCO financed a total of 47 exclusive urban projects in 1997. Particularly in Bolivia, Kirgizistan, Liberia, Mali, Namibia, Pakistan and South Africa a relatively large number of urban projects are being financed. In the organizations, which in 2000 merged with Cordaid, a considerable and growing part of the budget is also being spent on urban development. As such, Bilance spent NFL 43.5 million on programs on behalf of the urban poor. This was 23% of the total budget. In comparison: in 1993, this part was merely 12 percent. Particularly in Latin America many urban programs are being financed (in 1997, 35% of the continental budget), followed by Asia (26% of the continental budget) and Africa (13% of the continental budget).

Subject focus has also shifted over the years. In the early years, the attention of the projects and programs was particularly focused on the solution of problems associated with living in the city, as a reaction to the enormous growth of slums and the abominable living conditions there. In the last few years the housing problem is mainly regarded in relation to access to living space, access to public services and the relation to the local government. Habitat is now also more heavily tied to income generation, education, social care and health care.

D.4 Municipal international co-operation

Three-quarters of all Dutch municipalities are in one way or another involved in municipal international cooperation (see the addendum on page 54). Municipalities contribute to the strengthening of local government in various countries, or they inform their own population about the situation elsewhere in the world. Consciousness raising activities, which are an important part of cooperation, insure that their own citizens feel involved in international developments. Municipalities give shape to international cooperation in different ways. In over one-third of the contracts international cooperation is imbedded in the municipal organization. In the remaining cases the initiative is supported by a foundation or private organization. In many cases technical and financial support is offered by the Association of Netherlands Municipalities.

Many of the municipal contacts involve an interest in habitat aspects, but these are seldom denominated as such. An inventory of the international project unit (IPU) of the VNG has indicated that in about 50 of the municipal contacts with countries in Eastern and Central Europe and the South, habitat makes up a substantial part. This information can be consulted on line at the website of the Dutch Habitat Platform. In order to arrive at sustainable human settlements with suitable housing for everyone, good local government is an absolute precondition. In many countries in Eastern and Central Europe and in Africa, Asia and Latin America a process of decentralization is taking place as a result of which the local governments receive more tasks and responsibilities particularly in the area of housing. At the same time in many cases there is a lack of adequate financial means while institutional and administrative capacity also requires reinforcement. Moreover, certainly in terms of habitat, local governments are entering into new forms of cooperation with the private sector, NGO's and CBO's, and international donors.

Support is offered in different ways by the Dutch municipalities in the strengthening of local administration. Besides financing from their own means municipalities make use of programs for municipal cooperation with developing countries and the applicant countries in Central and Eastern Europe. Dutch municipalities offer internships to officials or administrators from developing countries. Consulting missions by their own officials or administrators are also exported to the involved countries. Aside from that, the VNG also regularly organizes municipal management training programs for groups of practical trainees. In cooperation with Novib and the Dutch Habitat Platform the IPU is working on the development of the Toolkit Good Governance and Participation. The toolkit shall contain good examples of good management and participation collected from all parts of the world by contact persons of Novib and IULA. The Canadian Federation of municipalities also participates.

D.5 Dutch Habitat Platform international activities

The Dutch Habitat Platform strives for cooperation with a limited amount of cities in the South and Eastern Europe according to the citywide approach. According to this approach organizations in the Netherlands work together with counterparts in the involved city in the carrying out of a number of related activities in the realm of habitat. As much as possible these activities are sector-overlapping, which means not limited to, for example, only shelter or only education. Moreover, they are based on the demand from the cities involved and are carried out in close cooperation with residents, government institutions and NGO's. The whole of the activities must enable a coherent approach in which all concerned parties have their own role. It is the intent to further develop the method of the citywide approach by international cooperation in the coming years. The citywide approach

as a method for international cooperation is being further elaborated conceptually by researchers at the Institute for Social Studies and the University of Utrecht. A checklist is being developed which can be implemented in the initiation of citywide cooperation.

The citywide approach is presently being successfully developed in the cooperation with East London, South Africa. The cooperation with East London was started in 1995 with what was then Habitat Forum. There are ties to the city of Leiden and a variety of Dutch organizations are co-operating with organizations in East London on habitat issues. In February 1999, a market conference was organized by the municipality of East London on the occasion of its 150 - year existence. The Dutch Habitat Platform played a central role in structuring the conference and in the search of organizations, willing to work together with organizations in East London. Some 30 representatives of Dutch organizations were present at the conference. South African organizations were given full opportunity to indicate their needs. Dutch parties can take it from there. In October 1999, an agreement was signed between the Municipalities of Leiden, the municipality of East London and the Dutch Habitat Platform. The coordination of this cooperation shall in the coming years be taken over in different phases from Dutch Habitat Platform by the municipality of Leiden.

D.6 Habitat Platform South Africa

An increasing number of Dutch organizations are cooperating with South Africa on the broad terrain of habitat. Approximately 25 Dutch municipalities work together with their South African sister municipalities, while an

Frame 18 High rendement housing project

An example of the so-called city wide cooperation is the "high-rendement housing project" that is being carried out by the Van der Leij Habitat Foundation in cooperation with the Amsterdam housing association Eigen Haard (Dutch: Own Hearth) and the co-financing organization Cordaid. The project shows how the integral approach propagated by the Habitat Agenda can be put into practice. The foremost goal is to give people in underprivileged neighbourhoods a better social economic position through training and creating sustainable employment opportunities. In the project, vocational training is being provided for building with earth and credit facilities are being made available for setting up small-scale businesses, including those for the production of building blocks and roof tiles. In connection with the training program good and affordable houses for lower income groups are also being built and, attention is also paid to availability of basic infrastructure, credit facilities and equal access for men and women.

equally large number of housing associations are involved in setting up housing associations there. The Association of Netherlands Municipalities (VNG) and Aedes, the umbrella organization for housing associations, support their respective organizations in South Africa, SALGA and Social Housing Foundation (SHF). The Ministry of Housing, Spatial Planning and the Environment (VROM) signed a memorandum of understanding with the Ministry of Housing in South Africa. In 1999 the Habitat Platform for South Africa was established in order to promote the exchange of knowledge and information between all these Dutch organizations that are active in the area of habitat in South Africa. This is a shared Platform of the Ministry of Housing, Spatial Planning and the Environment (VROM), the international project unit of the VNG, Aedes federation of housing associations and the Dutch

Habitat Platform. Although the platform is established particularly to better correlate the activities of the Dutch organizations toward South Africa, South African organizations are welcome to participate. The executing secretariat is conducted by the Dutch Habitat Platform.

E. FOLLOW-UP HABITAT AGENDA IMPLEMENTATION

E.1 Introduction

The last chapter of the Habitat Agenda indicates how the implementation should take place on the national and international level. The responsibility for the execution primarily lies with the central government. The central government is to support the local governments in their efforts at the local level. To promote the implementation of the Habitat Agenda the central government established the Dutch Habitat Platform and its accompanying Habitat Council in 1998. The goal is to strive for cooperation as well as exchange of knowledge regarding the improvement of housing and living surroundings. The emphasis lies on the implementation at the local level. On the international plane it is all member states combined, the United Nations General Assembly (UNGA), the Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) and especially the United Nations Commission for Human Settlements (UNCHS) that have a role to play in the execution of the Habitat Agenda.

E.2 National follow-up

In the upcoming Policy Paper on Housing 2000-2010, the **Fourth National Environmental Policy Plan** (Dutch: NMP4) and the **Fifth Report on Spatial Planning** (Dutch: VijNo), policy in the realm of housing, the environment, urban development and spatial planning in the Netherlands will be in the spotlight for the coming decades. The aim is to arrive at a forceful transition in housing policy: from housing policy to a wider and integral vision of living in the years up to 2010. General trends such as individualization, emancipation, ageing plus dejuvenation, shifting care demand, immigration, diversity in the development of life patterns of citizens, the increasing prosperity and leisure time and the need for better housing and living quality require a different policy. The vocal citizen increasingly places higher demands on his physical surroundings. The premises here are the attention to quality of the living and housing surroundings and the social well being of the citizens, with specific concern for the vulnerable groups.

Studies and prognoses have shown that the existing quantitative housing shortage **has disappeared with the** exception of a few submarkets. Now the approach for the qualitative housing shortage becomes increasingly important. The National Environmental Surveys 1997-2020 showed that the satisfaction in quality of life is lowest in the urban areas. People in urban areas are more often bothered by noise and stench, more often feel unhealthy and are more often unhappy with their living situation than in non-urban areas. At the moment there is a great shortage of high-quality living environments in city centers and suburbs (urban green) in the Netherlands. The urban quality is at the forefront with regard to the neighbourhood oriented approach. The neighbourhood oriented approach places the citizen front and center, but also a neighbourhood oriented approach must not be seen as separate from the relationship between city and region. The importance of the integral neighbourhood oriented approach will only become more important in the future.

In the future, more than ever, control and shared responsibility by the resident citizen over housing and the maintenance and layout of the housing and living surroundings will be at the focal point. Aside from enabling more input from citizens a government engaged with concern for societal values alongside controlled market forces will be paramount. Key topics in this framework are, among others, to create chances for people in vulnerable positions, customized housing for people who need care and the increase in living quality in the city. The spatial policy and the policy for living must contribute to the prevention of segregation, the offering of freedom of choice to all population groups, the promotion of participation and the realization and maintenance of the standard of services.

A greater freedom of choice shall lead to a greater personal responsibility. This can lead on the one hand to a demand for higher quality of housing and housing surroundings and the willingness to pay a higher price for it. On the other hand a larger degree of self-determination can also lead to new groups on the housing market that opt for a combination of plenty of leisure time and modest housing quality.

According to the current estimates the group with low incomes and limited housing opportunities will diminish in the future. The specific hallmarks of this group simultaneously become more pronounced, for example elderly with a history of unemployment and unemployability and people with limited education, which can cause stigmatization. The problem of the affordability of housing for these groups remains an issue for government care. In relation to that, the just distribution of living space will remain central in the government policy. In the future it will be more and more a matter of a guarantee of freedom of choice for everyone, or rather the possibility for every individual without exception as to the person, to structure his or her housing and housing surroundings. The housing associations play an important role in this. Through their becoming independent the housing associations have become more and more professionalized and they will request more and more freedom of movement. But in the future it will be expected of the housing associations that they accentuate more and more their societal mission in the physical sense (ensure a differentiated housing supply) as well as in the social sense (deliver a good housing and living environment). This will lead to a new definition of the societal mission for associations and shall be documented in laws and legislation.

The spatial policy, as established in the Fifth Report on Spatial Planning, is in effect until 2020 with a vista through to 2030 and is based on perspectives. The most important tasks for the Netherlands in the future consist of accentuating the differences between city and country, the protection of the water, allowing for the growth of the economy and simultaneously offering diversity of choice in the options for housing, work and mobility for residents with a low income. The Netherlands has a limited amount of space at its disposal, whereby the stimulation of the creative handling of development and an intensive use of space signify important mandates for the coming years.

Furthermore, it is to be expected that the need to take more initiatives with regard to safety, the environment and health shall increase particularly in the cities. The question shall become more and more important how a sustainable quality of the living environment can be realized coincident with an equivalent availability of choice for all individuals. The spatial quality desired by everyone individually will lead to the decrease in availability in this quality for others. The necessary weighing of priorities between those of individuals and general concerns such as safety, the environment and health –i.e. sustainable quality- will require more and more customization by the government and its partners. Sustainability must guarantee the freedom of choice of future generations.

E.3 International follow-up

Most of the international activities organized by the Netherlands regarding Habitat as described in the previous chapter “International co-operation” are continuous and have been dealt with sufficiently in this report.



Addendum to the Habitat Report on the Netherlands: Quantitative Analysis of UNCHS Indicators

This report was drafted by Research voor Beleid (Research for Policy)
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SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

It should come as no surprise that the Netherlands strives to achieve and succeeds in achieving many of the Habitat objectives. The Netherlands has had democratic rule since the 19th century, meaning that the social problems the UNCHS has observed around the world are part of the political agenda and are addressed in a systematic manner.

Below, a summary of the data collected in this study is provided and conclusions are drawn according to the system used by UNCHS. To the extent available, the requested information was collected both nationally and locally (municipalities of Amsterdam, Eindhoven and Meppel); when the information was not available, qualitative passages of text, and aggregated data (regional or national) were used. Most of the data were obtained from various literature studies, internet sites and telephone contacts.

Housing

Viewed in the context of the Habitat agenda, the Netherlands scores good marks when it comes to achieving housing objectives. Over the course of the nineties, government agencies have incorporated the objectives into policy and created frameworks for achieving those objectives. A few conclusions can be drawn:

- The total homeless population of the Netherlands is estimated at 20,000 to 30,000; homelessness is primarily a problem in major cities.
- In the period 1993-1998, we have seen a slight increase nationally and in Amsterdam in the number of individually owned homes; the number of renters is decreasing by a few percentage points. No figures are available for rural municipalities.
- In the period 1993-1998, average disposable income increased nationally; the rural municipalities have a higher average disposable income than does Amsterdam.
- The average ratio of income spent on individually owned housing is higher in Amsterdam than in the rural municipalities; the ratio of income spent on rented housing is more or less the same.
- Dutch citizens borrowed increasingly in the period 1993-1998; this applies to both various types of mortgages and credit.
- All households in the Netherlands have access to utilities.

Social Development and Eradication of Poverty

In the period 1993-1998, the government presented several formative policy outlooks that are in keeping with the objectives of the Habitat Agenda. Examples include the Major City Policy, the Integrated Safety Policy and the Social Renewal Policy. At the regional and local level, corresponding activities were conducted. Although not all the data requested was available (particularly at the local level), the following conclusions can be drawn in respect of social development and eradication of poverty.

- The child mortality rate in the Netherlands is very low and is expected to drop even farther in the future. No noteworthy differences between the national and local rates have been observed.
- The crime rate did not change significantly in the period 1993-1998, except for a slight improvement in the four major cities (including Amsterdam). The effects of the Major City Policy only began to present themselves after the period 1993-1998.

- Men are more often the victim of abuse, threats and vehicle-related crimes (car theft and the like) than women. Women, on the other hand, are more often the victim of sexual offences, mugging and malicious telephone calls. The information requested is only available at the national level.
- Based on the social minimum, 665,000 households (10.5%) nationally were at the social minimum in 1997, one third of which were below the social minimum.
- On the national scale, a large portion of those at the social minimum were single people (about half) and married or unmarried couples (about a quarter).
- In the Netherlands, almost three quarters of the households earning a minimum income rent their home, which generally means a lower level of living comfort than owning a home.
- The percentage of households at or under the poverty level (nationally) appears to be higher in proportion to how urban the character of the municipality is. Amsterdam – very urban – has a higher percentage of poor households than Meppel, which is only moderately urban.
- Both single, older women and single mothers are at a greater risk of poverty than the average female head of household in the Netherlands. Since the eighties, particularly, there has been a trend towards feminization of poverty.
- As a result of a good system of primary education, there is hardly any illiteracy at all among the Dutch-born population. As a result in part of increased immigration of refugees and asylum-seekers – in addition to the immigration wave of the sixties – some illiteracy is imported into the Netherlands.
- The life-expectancy of the Dutch population continues to increase. Women grow older on average than men. National and local figures are more or less equivalent.

Spatial planning

As in the Habitat Agenda, sustainability has become a keyword in Dutch spatial planning. The Netherlands is one of the most densely populated countries in the world and its population will continue to increase in the years to come. At the start of the 21st century, more so than in the period 1993-1998, there appear to be several shifts in thinking about such issues as spatial planning, (drinking) water and environmental management, traffic and transport issues, etc. A few conclusions:

- Settlements are evenly distributed throughout the Netherlands.
- The period 1993-1998 saw a reversal of the trend towards increased drinking water consumption. This is mainly thanks to publicity and public information campaigns conducted by the government and drinking water companies, and more sustainable construction of houses (thus conserving more water).
- Although Amsterdam drinking water rates have risen more or less in step with inflation, the drinking water rate is higher than it is in Eindhoven or Meppel. The increase in drinking water rates in those two municipalities almost doubled in the period 1993-1998.
- Air pollution levels in the municipalities under study are generally below the applicable national and international norms. A clear trend cannot be observed from the figures; but it is evident that Amsterdam and Eindhoven exceeded international nitrogen dioxide standards in the test years 1993 and 1997.
- In those places where industrial wastewater discharge has decreased nationally, domestic wastewater discharge increased in the period 1993-1998. To an increasing extent, the wastewater discharged is treated in sewage treatment plants. In view of the increasing scarcity of clean water, it is obvious that the discharges should be reduced further.
- Household and bulk waste is reused or incinerated for the most part; the remaining portion is dumped in landfills. Dumping seems to occur less in urban municipalities. In addition, percentage-

wise, households are separating their waste less, which is not necessarily problematic given the increased separation capabilities of waste processors.

- Every municipality in the Netherlands has developed an emergency plan and conducts emergency exercises at local and regional level – some in co-operation with municipal and (semi) governmental agencies.
- The total number of transport kilometers travelled by the Dutch population was still increasing in the period 1993-1998. Most of the kilometers were travelled by car; this is also the mode of transportation increasing the most. Although the other more environment-friendly modes of transport also increased somewhat, this increase was less than that of the increase in automobile use.
- Municipal policy is being prepared, drafted and executed in a less isolated manner. Integration and interactivity were catchwords in the period 1993-1998. "Integration" means, for example, that traffic and transport policy are coordinated more closely with other realms of policy, such as public order and safety, environmental and spatial planning; more "interactive" means that citizens and interests groups are increasingly involved in the policy process at the local level – in part with a view to acquiring the required basis of support.

Economic Development

With respect to the reinforcement of the economic position of municipalities, various projects have been initiated, with a neighbourhood-oriented approach taking precedence in the framework of the Major City Policy and the Integrated Safety Policy. Investments in disadvantaged neighbourhoods yield the best prospects for fighting physical segregation and poverty, and promoting safety.

A few conclusions:

- Unequal treatment of women and men in the labor market is on the decline. However, there are still occupational groups in which women or men are over-represented (e.g. the health care sector and local politics, respectively).
- Various initiatives have been taken to promote small and medium-size businesses in disadvantaged neighbourhoods. Here, no distinction is made based on gender.
- Unemployment decreased in the Netherlands in the period 1993-1998. The highest unemployment rate during the period 1993-1998 was measured in 1995. On the national level, more women than men are unemployed; in Eindhoven the reverse is true.
- On a national scale, the domestic product per employment year and the national per capita income increased by 2 or 3% a year.

Governance

Within some legal and financial perimeters, municipalities have freedom to act. Although quantitative data is lacking at the level of the individual municipalities, a few conclusions can be drawn in respect of local government:

- In comparison with other countries, it would seem to be there is a large degree of decentralized responsibilities and authority, rendering it possible to pursue local policy. More than was the case in the past, municipalities play a driving, directing role when it comes to tackling local problems, for example in the framework of the Major City Policy.
- Municipal governments can impose local levies on its citizens and also receive preset contributions from national budgets, such as the municipal fund.
- Members of municipal councils are elected directly and cannot be removed from office by higher-level government agencies. This does not apply to mayors (and Queen's Commissioners); the

administrative and political discussion on the direct election of these administrators was (again) a hot topic at the start of the 21st century.

- In many cities, social renewal has led to the emergence of neighbourhood committees.
- Thanks in part to the Local Agenda 21 initiatives, more citizens and interest associations have been involved in local decision-making processes. Co-participation, complaints and objections procedures are formally included in both the Municipality Act and the General Act on Administrative Law.
- Municipal administrations must report annually to the democratically elected citizen representatives (members of the council).
- Municipalities cannot go bankrupt, but they may be placed under receivership of the national or provincial government – for example in the event of financial mismanagement.

International Cooperation

In the international context, the Netherlands (and particularly the areas designated by European policy as disadvantaged) receives funds for the further development of disadvantaged neighbourhoods primarily. In addition, the Netherlands annually spends 0.8% of its gross national product on development cooperation.

Municipalities, as well as other agencies such as schools, have often entered into partnerships with international (semi) government agencies. These partnerships may be geared towards expanding mutual understanding, but are often used to grant (financial and material) assistance. There are a total of 862 city partnerships throughout the world.

1 HABITAT

1.1 Habitat

At the 1976 United Nations Conference on Human Settlements, an appeal was made for the first time to pay attention to "habitat." The emphasis was on providing housing. What is known as the Habitat Agenda was adopted at the Habitat II Conference (1996). This Agenda has two targets. The first target is to provide appropriate housing for everyone. The second target is to promote a sustainable climate in which to work and live. In order to achieve these targets, many recommendations have been included that pertain to housing, urban safety, water availability, pollution, transport systems, economic development, administration and international cooperation.

Like all other participating countries, the UNCHS regularly asks the Netherlands to report on the progress made in implementing the Habitat Agenda. Information on the Dutch situation must be provided over the course of the year 2000. The purpose of this information is the evaluation of the Habitat Agenda (Istanbul+5). In order to provide the report, it is necessary to have a set of basic data to describe the Dutch Habitat situation.

1.2 Sources and Guide to this Report

Various sources were consulted to obtain the requested information. The most important sources are listed in the bibliography; the municipal departments of Amsterdam, Eindhoven and Meppel also provided additional information. These municipalities were included in the study because of the differences in size and geographic location between them. The UNCHS requested this kind of distribution. Another argument to include these municipalities was more practical; a relatively large amount of information was available for these municipalities.

When possible, data from the years 1993 and 1998 and the aggregated levels (national and/or local) were used. This was not always possible, however. There are various reasons for this: in some cases, the data had not been recorded (e.g. travel times of commuter traffic, and discrimination/different treatment of women, a problem that is much larger in the international context) or only estimates were obtained from the study (e.g. number of homeless). The information was also often unavailable at the desired aggregation level – often local – or the municipalities used various systems and definitions, rendering a comparison of the data from 1993 and 1998 impossible. As a result, we were often forced to use results from different years, for example in the case of data on income: the Regional Income Study (RIO) has a two-year cycle, which is why in that case data from 1994 instead of 1993 has been used.

In other cases, when data from the local level was requested but unavailable, national data has been presented, in so far as considered relevant to the indicators. Where no quantitative data could be found (e.g. because it was not recorded in databases), more qualitative passages of text were included. An overview of the indicators and the degree to which they have been presented quantitatively is given at the beginning of each chapter.

Guide to this Report

The chapter and section structure follows the structure given in the "Abridged Guidelines for Collecting and Analyzing Urban Indicators Data". Each chapter discusses one or more indicators and/or qualitative data. The table of contents says which indicator is discussed in each section.

2 HOUSING

This chapter discusses the following indicators and qualitative data (Q). Also indicated is the extent to which it was possible to collect the requested quantitative and qualitative data (R= requested / O = obtained).

		Local		National	
		Quantitative	Qualitative	Quantitative	Qualitative
1. Ownership and rental of homes	R	Yes	No	Yes	No
	O	Partially	No	Partially	No
2. Evictions	R	Yes	No	Yes	No
	O	No	No	Partially	No
Q1. Right to housing	R	No	No	No	Yes
	O	No	No	Yes	Yes
3. Ratio between average price of housing and average income	R	Yes	No	No	No
	O	Yes	No	No	No
4. Ratio between land price and income	R	Yes	No	No	No
	O	Partially	No	No	No
5. Mortgage lending	R	Yes	No	No	No
	O	Partially	No	Yes	No
6. Availability of water	R	Yes	No	Yes	No
	O	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
7. Utilities	R	Yes	No	Yes	No
	O	Partially	No	Partially	No

2.1 Housing: Introduction

Providing appropriate housing to everyone is the first main objective formulated at the Habitat II conference. The Netherlands has long recognized the obligation to promote a good housing situation. This is expressed specifically in the inclusion of housing as a basic social right in the Constitution after the amendment in 1993. In the decades before that, this government obligation was given shape through a broad range of legislation, policy and provisions in the realm of housing, spatial planning and the environment.

That right encompasses not only the need for a roof over one's head, but also a healthy, sustainable, safe living environment and affordability and accessibility of housing for everyone, regardless of sex, origin, race or physical ability.

2.2 Providing for (the Safety of) Housing (indicators 1 and 2 and qualitative data 1)

Ownership and Rent of Homes (indicator 1)

There is much that can be said about ownership and rent of homes in the Netherlands. The Housing Demand Survey (*Woningbehoefte Onderzoek*) in particular has provided extensive relevant information (since the seventies) about construction, living situation, financing, and the like. Various databases do not include absolute (non-mortgaged) ownership, rendering it impossible to draw a distinction between absolute and mortgaged ownership. Nor is a distinction made between male and female primary earners and subletting.

Table 2.1 Ratio between ownership and rental, nationally and locally

	Owned		Rented	
	WBO 1994	WBO 1998	WBO 1994	WBO 1998
Meppel	-	-	-	-
Eindhoven	-	36.4%	-	63.6%
Amsterdam	11.4%	13.9%	88.6%	86.1%
National	47.6%	50.8%	52.4%	49.2%

Source: *Woningbehoefte Onderzoek* 1998

Homelessness (indicator 1 and qualitative data 1)

The National Foundation for Care and Housing of the Homeless (*Landelijke Stichting Thuislozenzorg en Onderdak -LSTO*) defines homelessness as a combination of individual problems. Homeless people are people who find themselves in a serious condition of vulnerability in terms of social, personal and relationship aspects and, as such, comprise a very heterogeneous group. Where the total situation is discussed, the most recent figures date from 1987: about 20,000 homeless people on a "daily basis." The Health Council has concluded on the basis of trends in the housing market, employment market, social security and psychological and psychiatric care that an increase in the number of homeless can be expected in the next few years. In 1997, the number of homeless was estimated at about 30,000, or about 0.2% of the population.

The question is whether homelessness has grown over the past few years in comparison with the years before that. The study data does not provide any clear answer. Experts appear to agree that the composition of the group is changing as a result of several social factors. For example, the percentage of

female homeless was estimated at 8-10% in 1970 and 10-15% in 1997. Most of the homeless population is Netherlands-born; a study conducted in Amsterdam in 1992 revealed that 70% of the homeless have Dutch nationality. A 1997 study in Amsterdam found that percentage to be 60%. Of those sleeping outside who come from other ethnic backgrounds, two thirds did not have residence permit papers. Until the nineties, minorities received scant attention and asylum-seekers, refugees and illegal aliens none at all; however, these groups seem to be comprising a greater portion of the homeless population.

Based on data about the four major cities plus Eindhoven and Groningen, the Social and Cultural Planning Agency estimated the number of homeless in those six cities at about 8,000 in the mid-nineties. In view of the estimated number of 20,000-30,000 homeless people throughout all of the Netherlands, there seem to be adequate indications to assume that homelessness is primarily a major-city problem.

The homeless are characterized by a combination of problems: serious addiction, mental problems or serious physical problems. Most of them do not find their way to shelters or do not want to find their way. The threshold for services is often too high. This makes homelessness a problem of public order, as well.¹

Evictions (indicator 2)

The vast majority of evictions are the result of legal proceedings. The table below shows an increase in the number of evictions from 1985 to 1997.

Table 2.2 Evictions in the Netherlands

	1985	1990	1995	1996	1997
District court: court-ordered evictions	29,200	30,800	33,600	32,500	34,000

Source: CBS, Statistical Year Book 1999, p. 416

In 1995, the Dutch Tenants Union (*Nederlandse Woonbond*) estimated the number of evictions due to unpaid rent at 6,000 a year, in the rent sector alone. In larger municipalities, the eviction percentage is proportionally higher than in the smaller municipalities.

Reason for eviction:

- Unpaid rent (91%),
- Serious noise complaints, etc. (6%),
- Subletting (2%) and
- Inappropriate use (1%).

Evictions for unpaid rent occur at these income levels:

- Under assistance level (7%),
- At assistance level (54%),
- At minimum level (15%) and
- Between minimum and average level (24%).

¹ Social and Cultural Planning Agency [*Sociaal en Cultureel Planbureau*], Social and Cultural Outlooks 1998.

Evictions for unpaid rent occur in the following types of households:

- Single women (14%),
- Single men (57%),
- Women with children (6%),
- Men with children (1%),
- Partners living together without children (11%),
- Partners living together with children (9%) and
- Others (2%).

2.3 Promoting (the Right to) Appropriate Housing (indicator 3)

Average Disposable Income (indicator 3)

The average disposable income, defined by the Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS) as gross income minus expenses, was just under NLG 50,000 in 1999. As comparative figures for the municipalities were lacking for the test year 1998, the average disposable income for 1998 was calculated in the following table on the basis of the average increase (between 1994 and 1996). The table below assumes the same rate of growth in average disposable income in the period 1996-1998 as in the period 1994-1996.

Table 2.3 Average disposable income (locally), 1994, 1996 and 1998

	RIO 1994	RIO 1996	1994-1996 (%)	1998
Meppel	43,300.00	46,213.00	+6.7%	49,309.00
Eindhoven	43,200.00	46,357.00	+7.3%	49,741.00
Amsterdam	37,350.00	40,343.00	+8%	43,570.00

Source: RIO 1994 and 1996 and extrapolation

Conclusion: in Meppel and Eindhoven, the average disposable income is about 6,000 guilders a year higher than in Amsterdam.

Owned and Rented Homes (indicator 3)

In order to generate figures with which to be able to compare purchase and rent prices with the local average disposable income, the provincial increases in purchase and rent price were adapted to the local averages of 1994. The following table is the result of this calculation. It should be noted that these figures could deviate significantly from the actual situation.

Table 2.4 Total overview for indicator 3: average purchase and rent price, average disposable income, housing quotient and rent quotient; Meppel, Eindhoven and Amsterdam

	Meppel		Eindhoven		Amsterdam	
	1994	1998	1994	1998	1994	1998
a. average purchase price	180,132	223,000	234,698	281,000	290,360	338,000
b. average basic rent	579	655	586	686	541	637
(month/year)	6,948	7,860	7,032	8,232	6,492	7,644
c. average disposable income	43,300	49,309	43,200	49,741	37,350	43,570
d. housing quotient (a:c)	4.16	4.52	5.43	5.65	7.77	7.76
e. rent quotient (b:c)	0.16	0.16	0.16	0.16	0.17	0.17

Source: Statline, CBS data on website of Dutch Ministry of Housing, Spatial Planning and The Environment (VROM) and extrapolation.

Based on this table, the conclusion could be drawn that the costs of housing, both for purchased and rented housing, have barely risen. However, the table takes no account of subsidies (individual rent subsidy) and fixed costs (costs of utilities and levies for public services). These have been taken into account in the core publication of the Housing Needs Survey for 1998. The table below delves more specifically into total housing expenses (for purchased and rented homes), in other words including individual rent subsidy and fixed costs. The conclusion above should be modified on the basis of this: on average, an increasingly large portion of income is spent on total housing costs.

Table 2.5 Trends in housing costs (rent and purchase sector) over time, nationally

Rent Sector	WBO 1990	WBO 1994	WBO 1998
Basic rent	461	567	698
Net rent (= basic rent-individual rent subsidy)	420	524	630
Additional housing expenses (= expenses of utilities + levies for public services)	183	220	237
Total housing expenses	603	744	867
Average income	30,000	35,320	37,385
Net rent quotient	19.7%	21.1%	24.1%
Total housing quotient	28.3%	30.1%	33.2%
Purchase Sector	WBO 1990	WBO 1994	WBO 1998
Gross housing expenses	555	783	939
Net housing expenses (= gross +/- fiscal effect)	434	624	772
Additional housing expenses (= expenses of utilities + levies for public services)	246	288	312
Total housing quotient	680	912	1.084
Average income	45,000	53,901	60,625
Net purchase quotient	12.9%	15.1%	16.9%
Total housing quotient	20.5%	22.9%	24.6%

Source: *Woningbehoefte Onderzoek 1998*, Core publication

2.4 Providing Equal Accessibility to Land (for Purchase) (Indicator 4)

In the framework of Habitat, the issue is the living and housing situation which is influenced by various factors such as land price. However, the prices for square meter of housing and the lot prices are important indicators here. The last two factors were presented in tables in the Netherlands Housing Statistics (Dutch: Volkshuisvesting in cijfers) policy paper for single-family dwellings in inexpensive, medium-priced and expensive categories (at the national level), both for the outlying areas and areas in urban centers.

Table 2.6 Prices per square meter in 1993-1998 in new development areas and urban centers

Guilders per m ²	Single-family Dwellings		
	Inexpensive	Medium-priced	Expensive
New Development areas			
1993	122	160	167
1994	124	173	181
1998	171	232	260
In urban centers			
1993	96	-	171
1994	126	162	194
1998	151	183	251

Source: Tauw.

Table 2.7 Lot prices in 1993-1998 in New Development Areas and Urban Centers

Guilders per lot	Single-family Dwellings		
	Inexpensive	Medium-priced	Expensive
New Development Areas			
1993	19,700	31,400	57,400
1994	20,100	32,000	58,600
1998	25,100	41,500	84,800
In Urban Centers			
1993	17,500	-	63,100
1994	18,300	29,600	60,600
1998	25,300	29,600	73,800

Source: Tauw.

Land Prices (Indicator 4)

The prices of property skyrocketed in the period 1993-1998. The increase is even higher in cities than rural areas. The increased migration to the countryside, an increase in commuter traffic and more (chance of) traffic congestion explain this in part. In respect of municipal land prices, data was only received for Meppel (1998) and Eindhoven (1993 and 1998).

Table 2.8 Land prices (not including Value Added Tax) per square meter (Eindhoven and Meppel)

	Meppel		Eindhoven	
	1993	1998	1993	1998
Price per m ³	-	175/190*	180	254

* Price depends on semi-detached houses or freestanding

Source: Eindhoven and Meppel municipalities

2.5 Promoting Equal Accessibility of Financing (indicator 5)

Mortgage and Credit

The total mortgage amount and number of mortgages have seen explosive growth in recent years. This trend emerged particularly in the nineties, as a result in part of low mortgage rates and changing policy on the part of mortgage lenders, making it easier to take out a mortgage and to take one out for ever higher amounts (different types of mortgages than the linear or annuity mortgages customary until then). There were also programs by the government and housing corporations to encourage renters to buy rented homes

Table 2.9 Local: Numbers of newly registered mortgages in respect of private homes and the average amount, 1993, 1994 and 1998; National: absolute number of housing mortgages and the total mortgage amount for 1993, 1994 and 1998

		Number of newly registered mortgages	Average mortgage amount
Amsterdam	1993	5,218	199,000
	1994	6,856	222,000
	1998	11,282	336,000
Eindhoven	1993	3,788	156,000
	1994	4,806	157,000
	1998	6,930	232,000
Meppel	1993	430	132,000
	1994	676	146,000
	1998	1,323	202,000
		Absolute number of housing mortgages	Total mortgage amount
National	1993	303,297	46,000,000,000
	1994	384,236	60,055,000,000
	1998	577,241	132,289,000,000

Source: CBS Statweb

Credit in the Netherlands

The amount of credit granted private individuals has also increased enormously in recent years. Once again, low interest rates account for part of this. The increase in credit possibilities and the fact that it is easier to have a negative balance in current accounts have also contributed to this trend.

Table 2.10 Consumptive credit granted according to type of credit in the Netherlands (1995-1999)

	1995	1996	1997	1998
(million guilders)				
<i>Municipal credit banks</i>				
Expiring credit	422	411	388	344
Revolving credit	93	115	123	144
Total	514	526	511	487
<i>Banks and credit card companies</i>				
Expiring credit	997	1174	1263	1241
Revolving credit	6101	7317	8980	6721
Savings/lending credit	-	-	-	350
Credit with credit cards	-	-	-	2527
Total	7098	8491	10243	10839
<i>Mail order companies</i>	717	747	820	853
<i>All institutions</i>				
Expiring credit	3585	3762	3777	3649
Revolving credit	10508	12161	14318	12490
Savings/lending credit	-	-	-	1492
Credit with credit cards	-	-	-	2527
Total	14093	15923	18095	20158

Source: CBS, Saving and borrowing in the Netherlands 2000

2.6 Promoting Equal Access to Utilities (indicators 6 and 7)

All households in the Netherlands have access to utilities. In a previous survey of Habitat indicators commissioned by the Ministry of Housing, Spatial Planning and the Environment (VROM), the number of connected households was said to be 100% (both for 1986 and 1996); all connections are within the actual buildings.

In recent years, many utility companies have merged, creating large, generally public companies that provide for the production and distribution of water, electricity and sewer systems in a business-efficient manner. The telephony market, on the other hand, is highly privatized; KPN, though extensively privatized, is still largely in public hands, but the competition is intensifying, with major consequences for consumers' choices and price levels.

Drinking Water (Indicator 6)

Everywhere in the Netherlands, drinking water is available within 200 meters from the dwelling. There are no or hardly any informal settlements; the figure (100%) for the availability of drinking water is hardly influenced by estimates concerning informal settlements (i.e.: homeless, transients, etc.). Pipes are laid all the way to inside dwellings; particularly in the larger cities, there are still apartment complexes where a municipal water meter has been installed (shared use and expense), but in the vast majority of homes, drinking water is distributed individually (for each connected household).

Drinking water is currently relatively inexpensive and thus accessible to all income groups; it is expected that increasingly expensive methods will have to be used to guarantee the desired drinking water quality. As a result, separated water systems are increasingly popularly particularly in new construction projects, to prevent high-quality drinking water from being used for such purposes as flushing toilets and watering lawns.

The drinking water in the Netherlands is purified and clean enough that the risk of illness as a result of contaminated drinking water is almost non-existent. It is necessary, however, to periodically continue to check pipes in public facilities for the presence of bacteriological contaminants, such as the outbreak of Legionnaire's Disease in early 1999 (Westfrieze Flora) recently made clear.

In the past few years, total drinking water consumption has declined, due in part to government measures targeting energy and water conservation. This trend has been lauded in the European context; in World Water Vision, a study into the future of water, there is talk of "water stress" in countries like Belgium and the Netherlands.

"Belgium and the Netherlands are having very high water stress. This does not mean that these countries face severe water shortages for their projected human uses. Instead it means that a very large share of their water resources are used – that is, have been developed. In such cases natural ecosystems suffer high water stress because such large share of the resource is diverted for human use."

Sewer Connections (indicator 7)

Virtually all homes are connected to sewers. There where no sewer connection has or can be made, water is discharged into the surface water by special permit (in the context of the Act on pollution of surface water - Wvo). Wastewater is discharged directly into surface water without a permit in only a few cases - sometimes prepurified using a septic tank or biochemical prepurification (e.g. homes along the dikes of major rivers); these are grandfathered as "historic discharge" for which no permit is required.

Telephone (Connections) (indicator 7)

In the past decade, the number of mobile telephone users has increased sharply, in particular. There has also been a substantial increase in the number of permanent telephone lines, partly as a result of the increased (domestic) use of the Internet and the introduction of ISDN connections.

Table 2.11 Numbers of telephone connections in 1995, 1996 and 1998

	1995	1996	1998
Permanent line, including ISDN	8,124,000	8,431,000	9,337,000
Mobile (GSM, NMT)	513,000	804,000	2,162,000
Beeper	514,000	644,000	-

Source: CBS.

Conclusion: the number of telephone "connections" has increased tremendously. Still it remains unclear which percent of the population does not have a telephone due to prohibitively high costs. After all, a telephone connection is still often regarded as a luxury item not considered necessary in every residential situation. Particularly households at the bottom of society will save the money for such a luxury item, particularly if they can thus reduce their fixed expenses.

Electricity (indicator 7)

As is the case for the availability of drinking water, electricity is available to virtually 100%. The electricity system coverage was already so extensive decades ago that every home has electricity. However there has been a trend in recent years towards mergers, privatization and internationalization of power companies. At present, there are four Dutch production companies for electricity. At the

plenary discussion of the amendment of the 1998 Electricity Act¹ the Minister of Economic Affairs said that these four companies are probably not capable of surviving on their own in the liberalized European market and so the obvious choice is for them to seek partners in order to consolidate their strategic position on the European electricity market. What all this holds for the future in terms of availability and price is unclear.

¹ Plenary discussion of 1998 Electricity Act, 30 June 1998, TK I, 1997/1998, 25621, no. 36.

3 SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT AND ERADICATION OF POVERTY

This chapter discusses the following indicators and qualitative data (Q). Also indicated is the extent to which it was possible to collect the requested quantitative and qualitative data (R= requested/O = obtained).

		Local		National	
		Quantitative	Qualitative	Quantitative	Qualitative
8. Mortality rate < 5 years	R	Yes	No	Yes	No
	O	Partially	No	Yes	No
9. Crime rate	R	Yes	No	No	No
	O	Partially	No	Yes	No
Q2. Violent crimes (urban)	R	No	Yes	No	Yes
	O	No	Yes	No	Yes
10. Poverty	R	Yes	No	No	No
	O	No	No	Yes	Yes
11. Equal treatment of men and women	R	Yes	No	Yes	No
	O	Partially	No	Partially	Yes

3.1 Poverty: Introduction (indicator 8, 9 and 10 and qualitative data 2)

Poverty Paper (indicator 10)

Dutch policy on poverty focuses first on vulnerable groups, such as described in the Poverty Paper (1995)¹. This is in keeping with the definition used by the European Union. The poor are individuals, families or groups of people for whom resources (material, cultural and social) are so limited that they are excluded from the minimum acceptable living patterns. Poverty policy is aimed towards promoting participation, income support, restriction of fixed expenses and reduction of non-use of provisions.

Municipal Situation (indicator 10)

The municipalities are responsible for policy on homeless shelter and care. To this end, they subsidize shelters. The housing sector also plays a part in this area. This sector can contribute in various ways towards (preventing) the problem of homelessness. This varies from preventing eviction, making buildings available for organizations that arrange assisted living, working with and purchasing or renovating buildings that are made suitable for boarders and renting out rooms in dwellings where there is a need. Housing corporations and directors of social-sector rented homes play an important role in this. Housing people who are not independently capable of doing so is, after all, one of their core responsibilities.

Major City Policy (indicators 9 and 10, qualitative data 2)

Various departments have developed and implemented policy intended to prevent and combat poverty and social exclusion and to promote safety in the cities. It is essential that policy be cohesive and coordinated. Examples of coordinated policy include: the Social Renewal Policy, the Integrated Safety Policy and the Major City Policy.

The Major City Policy approaches the issues primarily from the angle of the potentials of the cities and neighbourhoods, in order to draw people and areas out of their disadvantaged position. In the policy, concerted efforts are geared towards achieving visible results in the area of care, welfare, safety, quality of living, education, economy and employment opportunities. The national government makes budgets available for extra jobs to promote the quality of life and safety in cities. Concrete examples are city guards, building complex superintendents and neighbourhood maintenance teams. As part of policy on making up for disadvantages in education, extra teaching staff is deployed in schools in old neighbourhoods. Extra staff is also deployed in the health and welfare sector.

Health and Quality of Life (indicator 8)

In the Netherlands, the government has long been active in the prevention of illness and health problems. Prevention is geared not only towards identifying and preventing illness, but also towards the conditions that cause illness. Environmental factors that harm health are therefore included in the policy, such as environmental pollution, traffic safety and poor working conditions.

Policy priorities include protection of the drinking water supply and forests and issues related to energy and waste. In housing construction and maintenance, health aspects are taken into account, including by imposing requirements on construction materials, soil quality and noise and odor control.

¹ "Prevention and control of silent poverty and social exclusion", Parliament, 1995-1996, 24 515 (2).

3.2 Providing Equal Opportunities to Safety and Health (indicator 8 and 9)

Child Mortality (indicator 8)

Thanks in part to major strides that have been made in healthcare, the possibilities of treating illnesses that occur are increasing in general. That also applies to illnesses in new-borns and toddlers. In the years to come, the mortality rate for new-borns and toddlers (already low from an international perspective) will decline further.¹

Internationally, child mortality is often caused by serious air, water and soil pollution; this is not the case in the Netherlands.

Data on child mortality is available both at the national level and for Amsterdam.

Table 3.1 Mortality among new-borns and toddlers in the Netherlands in 1996, 1997, 2000 and 2010 forecast (%)

%		Male	Female	Total
1996	0 years	0.00645	0.00516	0.00581
	1 to 4 years	0.00258	0.00258	0.00258
	<i>0 to 4 years</i>	<i>0.00903</i>	<i>0.00774</i>	<i>0.00839</i>
1997	0 years	0.00645	0.00516	0.00581
	1 to 4 years	0.00258	0.00129	0.00193
	<i>0 to 4 years</i>	<i>0.00903</i>	<i>0.00645</i>	<i>0.00774</i>
2000	0 years	0.00633	0.00506	0.00569
	1 to 4 years	0.00253	0.00127	0.00190
	<i>0 to 4 years</i>	<i>0.00886</i>	<i>0.00633</i>	<i>0.00759</i>
2010	0 years	0.00485	0.00364	0.00424
	1 to 4 years	0.00242	0.00121	0.00182
	<i>0 to 4 years</i>	<i>0.00727</i>	<i>0.00485</i>	<i>0.00606</i>

Source: CBS Monthly population statistics; Population and household forecasts.

Table 3.2 Mortality among new-borns and toddlers in Amsterdam in 1993 and 1998 (%)

%		Male	Female	Total
1993	0 years	0.0039	0.0022	0.0061
	1 to 4 years	0.0003	0.0004	0.0007
	<i>0 to 4 years</i>	<i>0.0042</i>	<i>0.0026</i>	<i>0.0068</i>
1998	0 years	0.0043	0.0031	0.0074
	1 to 4 years	0.0015	0.0006	0.0021
	<i>0 to 4 years</i>	<i>0.0058</i>	<i>0.0037</i>	<i>0.0095</i>

Source: Municipality of Amsterdam, Amsterdam in figures, 1993 and 1998.

¹ CBS Table on Mortality and Life Expectancy.

Crime (indicator 9)

In the Netherlands, crime is a hot topic, particularly notable crimes that have received national attention through various studies into the perception of safety among the Dutch population.

The tables below present the crime figures in various ways. Series of years have been documented for the Netherlands, as well as all of Amsterdam and Eindhoven. A table of data from 1998 is available for Meppel.

Table 3.3 Percent of population that has been the victim of crime categorized according to type of offense, in the Netherlands, Amsterdam and Eindhoven (1995 and 1997)

	Netherlands		Amsterdam		Eindhoven	
(%)	1995	1997	1995	1997	1995	1997
Car-related crimes	24.2	22.6	25.0	24.5	27.4	24.5
Bicycle theft	13.4	12.5	24.0	20.4	17.8	15.5
(Attempted) burglary	8.8	7.7	13.6	12.9	11.0	8.0
Violent crimes	5.2	5.5	10.4	9.2	4.5	6.3
Vandalism	29.3	28.4	31.2	32.3	32.6	32.6

Source: Police monitor of population 1995, 1997; Intomart.

Table 3.4 Amsterdam: offences reported to the police (1991-1998)

	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Mugging	4385	4790	4033	4194	3968	3925	3594	3598
Robberies	470	527	513	522	515	543	494	419
Other (violent)	3366	3812	3876	4376	4866	5959	5828	6002
Burglary	11500	13045	12775	11770	12677	10545	9703	6795
Business/school break-in	5025	5691	5794	5805	5146	4883	3769	3370
Care theft	7581	7529	8000	7867	7039	5564	5955	5452
Theft from car	31130	37122	25755	27741	25398	22675	21385	23225
Pick-pocketing	12435	14588	13360	13657	13772	12699	12176	13330
Theft of other vehicles	7456	6807	6144	9948	8526	8611	10969	11570
Other theft	23983	25050	25081	30861	28243	27410	29810	26484
Other money-related crimes	1730	1430	1555	2210	2179	2440	2273	2387
Other crime	5884	5937	6055	7010	6943	8236	8290	7560
Total	114945	126328	112941	125961	119272	113490	114246	110192

Source: Amsterdam Municipality, Amsterdam in figures, 1994 and 1999.

Table 3.5 Meppel: number of most common crimes (1991-1998)

	Acts of indecenty	Simple theft	Burglary	Vandalis m	Violent crimes	Other crimes	Total
1991	9	806	315	268	21	248	1667
1992	26	790	547	505	79	370	2317
1993	26	727	442	569	138	555	2457
1994	29	592	423	500	151	748	2443
1995	25	648	448	655	128	586	2490
1996	29	630	427	481	132	380	2079
1997*	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1998	74	849	448	655	105	415	2546

* no data available.

NB. It is difficult to compare 1998 with previous years as a result of revised definitions and guidelines.

Source: 1999 Statistics Guide, Meppel municipality.

The Quarterly Report on Legal Protection and Safety published by the Central Bureau of Statistics divides all the victims of crimes in the Netherlands in 1997 into the categories of female and male. This demonstrates that men are more often the victim of abuse, threats and vehicle-related crimes than women, whereas women are more likely to be the victim of sexual offences, pick-pocketing and malicious telephone calls.

Table 3.6 Crimes suffered per 1000 residents 15 years or older in the Netherlands in 1997

Crimes suffered per 1000 citizens	Men	Women
<i>Violent crimes</i>		
Sexual offences	5	27
Abuse	21	10
Threat	49	26
Total	75	64
<i>Theft</i>		
Burglary	-	-
Bicycle theft	58	62
Car theft	3	1
Theft from car	27	13
Pick-pocketing	7	26
Other theft	41	32
Total	136¹	134¹
<i>Vandalism</i>		
Damage/theft of car	89	54
Other vandalism	67	58
Total	155	111
<i>Leaving the scene of an accident</i>	19	9
<i>Malicious telephone calls</i>	51	93
Total²	386¹	318¹
<i>Sample number (abs.)</i>	4269	4569

1 Not including burglary

2 Not including malicious telephone calls.

Source: CBS publication: Quarterly Report on Legal Protection and Safety

Table 3.7 Total number of crimes in Amsterdam, Eindhoven and Meppel, 1990-1997

	Amsterdam	Eindhoven	Meppel
1990	115,669	22,111	1075
1991	119,299	23,986	1318
1992	127,877	23,984	1842
1993	115,514	27,435	1901
1994	122,032	27,099	1661
1995	113,830	25,955	1687
1996	108,034	22,526	1767
1997	114,981	23,895	1719

Source: CBS Statistics File on Dutch Municipalities 1999.2

In the Netherlands, there are no areas that can be considered dangerous or inaccessible to the police. However, the police is more on guard at or around special "events" such as competitive professional soccer matches.

There is hardly any violence at schools to speak of, although there are the usual problems among growing juveniles. Quantitative information is not available. One excess that can be mentioned is the shooting incident at a school in Veghel, where a minor injured five people with a firearm.

Policy measures geared towards domestic violence are primarily of an informative nature. Repressive measures are possible for e.g. ex-spouses (restraining order).

The Major City Policy (since 1995) aims to improve the living situation in the major cities of the Netherlands – particularly disadvantaged neighbourhoods. Random surveys have also been conducted to this end (Police Monitor on Population 1995 and 1997 and Intomart) on perception of safety among the population. In 1995, 38.5% of the population felt unsafe occasionally, compared to 35.8% in 1997. For Eindhoven, these figures are 30.5% and 31.9%, respectively. In general, there is virtually no difference in the percent of the population that occasionally feels unsafe. Only in the major cities (including Amsterdam) is this percentage declining slightly.¹

In order to combat crime further, several measures have been taken over the past few years, including improving intercommunication between police forces and with other agencies engaged in investigation and prosecution of crimes (also internationally). Extra legal measures have also been implemented in the field of prosecution and criminals' rights (e.g. the "Take It" legislation geared towards seizing financial benefits obtained from criminal activity from persecutors). In recent years, the call for more officers on the street has been partially answered.

Weapons can only be obtained in very restrictive conditions in the Netherlands (gun-permitting system). However, the Netherlands is being confronted increasingly with internationally operating criminals, as a result of which more unauthorized individuals are gaining access to weapons, including firearms.

Through a public information campaign in 1999, a portion of the illegal weapon supply of knives in particular were turned over to police forces.

¹ From: Year Book on Metropolitan Policy, part 1, situation and development in cities, ISEO, 1999, page 162.

In the Netherlands, there are various agencies (mostly government-funded) engaged in the care of victims of crime (victim assistance agencies) that see to it that victims of violent and sexual offences, in particular, receive help in coping with these negative experiences.

3.3 Stimulating social integration and support of disadvantaged groups

3.3.1 Social minima (indicator 10)

In the "Armoedemonitor 1999" (poverty monitor 1999) two income thresholds were used in order to define the category of poor households, namely the policy (also: social) minimum and the low-income threshold. The threshold of the social minimum is generally used in research, and we shall adhere to this in the following text.

Social minimum

Households with a minimum income are defined as households with a disposable annual income situated below the threshold of 105% of the social minimum that is applicable to the type of household in question. An income between 95% and 105% of the minimum is considered as being around the social minimum. A minimum income is in many cases derived from an allowance or old age pension, but can also originate from a (part-time) position or a combination of sources of income.

The social minimum is guaranteed by social legislation, more precisely the "Algemene bijstandswet" (ABW) (general assistance legislation) and the "Algemene Ouderdomswet" (AOW) (old age pension legislation).

Income can therefore be located below the social minimum. This can occur:

- in the case of independent professionals; in extreme cases the income can even be negative
- if a person has no entitlement to full assistance, for instance because of assets, or in connection with sanctions;
- if a person does not make use of the entitlement to assistance;
- if a person does not receive a full pension because the entitlement structure is incomplete;
- if a person has to pay an elevated amount of rent

National poverty figures

The number of households receiving a minimum income has risen during the period from 1990 to 1997 from 606.000 to 665.000, an increase of almost 10%. During the same period the total number of households in the Netherlands also increased by almost 10%. In 1997 the percentage of households receiving a minimum income was therefore generally at the same level as in 1990. During each of the years from 1990 to 1997 this percentage was situated between 10.3 and 10.8 per cent. The percentage of persons belonging to a household with a minimum income was during this period situated at approximately 8.5%.

Over one-third of these (244.000 households) were situated below the minimum. Most minimum incomes are those of the recipients of allowances or old age pensions; the group in addition contained almost 70.000 independent persons.

Many single persons involved

More than half of the group of households with a minimum income in 1997 consisted of single persons; (married) couples formed approximately one quarter of this group, while the rest were primarily single parent households. Half of all single parent households with minor children had a minimum income; however only 5% of the (married) couples did. This relatively low figure applies to (married) couples over 65 years of age as well as to younger (married) couples. 18% of the single persons received a minimum income. There is hardly any difference between single persons above and below 65 years of age.

In 1997, 1.27 million persons belonged to a household with a minimum income, which represents 8.6% of the population. This percentage is therefore clearly lower than the percentage of households with a minimum income (10.5%). The explanation for this fact is that many households which receive a minimum income consist of single persons and single parent families. On the average, these households are smaller than the households receiving an income which is situated above the social minimum.

Minors and women over 65 years of age

Minors (children less than 18 years of age) and women of 65 years of age and older, are more often exposed to a minimum income than the rest of the population. In 1997, 364.000 children up to 18 years of age belonged to a household receiving a minimum income. This equals one out of nine children. Almost three quarters of these children belonged to a single parent household or to a household receiving an allowance as the main source of income. In 1997 over 12% of the 1.1 million women 65 years of age or older received a minimum income.

Altered composition of minimum income households

The composition of this group of households receiving a minimum income has over the years changed somewhat. In 1997 more single persons up to 65 years of age, and more single parent households, belonged to this group than in 1990. The number of single persons up to 65 years of age receiving a minimum income in 1997 was 42.000 (22%) larger than in 1990.

The group of households receiving a long-time minimum income during the years from 1992 up to and including 1997 hardly changed in size at all: consistently 245.000 households fell under this category. There was a slight decrease in percentage terms (from 4.0% to 3.9%). The largest part of the long-term minimum income recipients (approximately 200.000 households) was in receipt of an allowance payment or an old age pension.

3.3.2 Additional dimensions of poverty (indicator 10)

A definition of poverty on the basis of the policy (social) minimum gives an incomplete picture of the level of affluence of households. In order to accurately chart poverty, the income position must therefore be particularised by the use of additional dimensions, such as the asset position, the number of fixed burdens in the total expenditures and the evaluation by the participants of the income situation.

Property situation

Households receiving a low income have not profited from the growth in wealth which has occurred in the last few years. In 1997 half of the people receiving a low income possessed assets of less than 3.000 guilders. This was true already in 1993. Among the households receiving a low income, the section receiving a negative income was located at approximately 25% between 1993 and 1997. The debts of these households are larger than their possessions. Some households which are situated above the low-

income threshold have debts exceeding their assets. In 1997 this was true for 12% of the households. That percentage has not changed since 1993.

Fixed costs of living

In households receiving low incomes, the proportion of fixed burdens in the total expenditures increased by 7% to 47% in the period from 1990 to 1996. Fixed burdens are understood to consist of rental or mortgage burdens, the cost of social provisions, (municipal) taxes, the pollution levy and the tax on real estate. The increase springs partly from the growth in the number of single persons, who experience relatively high levels of fixed burdens. The main reasons however is the strong increase in rent for housing. Although rental subsidies reduce the share of the expenditures spent on rent, the proportion of housing expenses has nevertheless increased more in low income households than in higher income households.

The experience of poverty

Households which receive a low income often experience financial problems and in many cases feel that it is difficult to make ends meet. This is an indication that, at least as far as the feelings of the participants are concerned, a person is living in a situation of poverty. This subjective poverty is connected with (among other things) the income position of the household, but can not be fully equated with that position. Since 1991 subjective poverty among households receiving a low income has increased, in connection, among other things, with the rising level of the share of fixed burdens.

Poverty and living conditions

People with low incomes are mostly confined to rental accommodation. Almost three quarters of the people in households with a minimum income rent a dwelling, while only half of the 6.2 million dwellings in the Netherlands on 1 January 1997 was rented out (CBS 1997). Although the choice of whether to buy or to rent a house is to a large extent determined by the disposable financial income, other aspects such as age, composition of the household and urbanisation of the municipality play an important role as well. Rental accommodation on the whole offers a lower level of living comfort than owner-occupied houses. Persons in households on or under the social minimum are subject to less comfortable housing. In addition they are generally obliged to share the room available with more persons than in households with higher incomes.

The following table includes poverty data for the Netherlands as a whole; the municipalities included in the research do not possess poverty statistics. By contrast with the above, these figures are based on the data on low incomes. The CBS does not provide similar data with regard to the social minimum.

Table 3.8 Income position and personal characteristics of the Dutch population, 1997 (in percentages)

	Low income threshold	
	below	above
Sex		
Men	46.0	52.1
Women	54.0	47.9
Household composition		
(married) couple without children	18.2	28.9
(married) couple with children	40.1	53.4
Single parent family	17.4	3.6
Single person	22.6	13.1
Other	1.7	0.9
Urbanisation		
Very strong	27.0	16.6
Strong	23.2	24.5
Medium	18.0	21.0
Little	16.4	21.7
None	15.3	16.2

Source: CBS (POLS '97)

Feminisation of poverty

A conclusion was drawn in the "Armoedemonitor" (poverty monitor) of 1999 that there is such a thing as the feminisation of poverty. The feminisation process, however, took place largely during the eighties. Since the beginning of the nineties, the proportion of households with a female provider within the population of poor people has increased by only a few percentage points. The increased proportion of single females in particular is due to the feminisation of poverty; the increasing participation by women in the work force has been able to counter this only to a very limited extent.

In addition, the proportion of low incomes within the population of households with a woman provider has also increased over time. This increase also took place almost entirely during the eighties. It is also evident that female breadwinners since the end of the eighties run three times as great a risk of being poor than households with a male at the head. Groups which are particularly at risk are especially the (non studying) young people up to 25 years of age, older people as from 75 years of age onwards, and recipients of allowances.

Older single women as well as single mothers run a higher risk of poverty than the average female head of a household in the Netherlands. Within these groups differences have been found which are related to specific background characteristics. With regard to the older single women, it is in particular the history of the development of the situation of being single which determines the risk of poverty, while for the single mothers it is the position of the employment market that is of importance.

3.4 Balanced treatment of men and women (indicator 11)**Education in the Netherlands** (indicator 11)

The picture is the same in the municipalities investigated as it is across the country. More boys than girls attend primary education (the difference across the country is just over 3%). (Continued) special education is attended by twice as many boys as girls. Some more girls than boys visit continuing

education, while more boys than girls attend preparatory vocational education. Secondary and tertiary vocational education underwent a process of change between 1995 and 1997: previously more boys than girls attended this education, while subsequently the opposite was the case, with the exception of Eindhoven as far as higher vocational education is concerned.

Country-wide more boys than girls are studying at university. In Eindhoven this difference is in fact quite large (which is a result of the influence of the Technical University, which still attracts more boys than girls). Amsterdam forms an exception because there more girls than boys receive scientific training.

Table 3.9 The Netherlands: students attending full-time education, 1992-1999

		'92-'93	'93-'94	'94-'95	'95-'96	'96-'97	'97-'98	'98-'99
Primary Education	M	714,486	720,817	733,537	747,828	760,896	770,291	778,610
	V	700,179	705,716	717,517	729,224	740,705	749,905	755,318
(Continued) Special Education	M	74,924	76,932	78,895	80,580	80,948	82,289	83,707
	V	35,638	36,704	37,567	38,572	38,654	39,025	39,597
Continuing Education	M	318,811	319,081	318,840	317,094	316,255	314,511	317,173
	V	349,283	349,345	347,178	343,603	339,595	337,287	340,828
Preparatory Vocational Education	M	130,471	127,763	124,691	121,351	117,050	115,561	113,450
	V	86,754	86,511	85,654	85,446	84,742	84,792	84,384
Secondary Vocational Education	M	149,669	150,026	151,186	149,263	145,381	143,260	137,013
	V	132,896	135,218	138,592	139,431	139,706	142,134	138,010
Higher Vocational Education	M	112,041	115,522	116,928	117,817	117,131	117,770	118,694
	V	101,452	106,445	110,698	112,597	116,197	119,603	123,389
Scientific Education	M	97,784	97,270	95,256	91,310	83,850	80,472	79,347
	V	76,739	78,052	78,372	75,959	70,226	68,014	68,524

Source: "CBS Statistisch Bestand Nederlandse Gemeenten" 1999.2
(CBS Report on Statistics of Dutch Municipalities)

Table 3.10 Amsterdam: students in full-time education, 1992-1999

		'92-'93	'93-'94	'94-'95	'95-'96	'96-'97	'97-'98	'98-'99
Primary Education	M	25,546	26,462	26,882	27,598	28,136	-	28,473
	V	25,290	26,118	26,573	27,189	27,821	-	28,332
(Continued) Special Education	M	3638	3768	3813	3959	3973	-	4077
	V	1770	1844	1954	1959	1947	-	1939
Continuing Education	M	11,055	11,181	11,082	10,870	11,011	-	10,995
	V	12,319	12,524	12,386	12,284	12,184	-	12,022
Preparatory Vocational Education	M	4937	4791	4937	4973	4894	-	4912
	V	3760	3505	3797	3853	3709	-	3769
Secondary Vocational Education	M	6575	6701	6829	6674	6530	-	6134
	V	6285	6692	6745	6909	7054	-	7380
Higher Vocational Education	M	10,389	10,776	10,707	11,040	10,968	10,811	10,601
	V	11,012	11,247	11,697	11,860	12,340	12,601	12,433
Scientific Education	M	18,414	18,491	18,278	17,456	16,202	15,327	14,942
	V	19,457	19,650	19,701	18,535	17,262	16,595	16,392

Source: "CBS Statistisch Bestand Nederlandse Gemeenten" 1999.2
(CBS Report on Statistics of Dutch Municipalities)

Table 3.11 Eindhoven: students in full-time education, 1992-1999

		'92-'93	'93-'94	'94-'95	'95-'96	'96-'97	'97-'98	'98-'99
Primary Education	M	7514	7571	7637	7844	8013	-	8157
	V	7411	7466	7525	7724	7876	-	8007
(Continued) Special Education	M	1618	1650	1689	1739	1800	-	1759
	V	769	776	789	812	824	-	808
Continuing Education	M	6041	5827	5661	5549	5487	-	5413
	V	6086	5913	5733	5647	5462	-	5445
Preparatory Vocational Education	M	1815	1719	1748	1694	1618	-	1642
	V	965	966	999	971	986	-	1088
Secondary Vocational Education	M	5678	5616	5525	5428	5509	-	5473
	V	5504	5436	5378	5198	5556	-	5536
Higher Vocational Education	M	7591	7939	8207	8166	7968	7881	7870
	V	5012	5368	5599	5847	6111	6313	6521
Scientific Education	M	6228	5903	5421	4984	4496	4208	4192
	V	930	982	970	919	889	871	858

Source: "CBS Statistisch Bestand Nederlandse Gemeenten" 1999.2
(CBS Report on Statistics of Dutch Municipalities)

Table 3.12 Meppel: students in full-time education, 1992-1999

		'92-'93	'93-'94	'94-'95	'95-'96	'96-'97
Primary Education	M	1231	1288	1304	1309	1297
	V	1253	1216	1252	1299	1290
(Continued) Special Education	M	189	190	197	197	197
	V	97	99	107	111	102
Continuing Education	M	1148	1115	1135	1117	1121
	V	1273	1292	1290	1269	1304
Preparatory Vocational Education	M	704	691	685	670	615
	V	429	477	465	463	471

Source: "CBS Statistisch Bestand Nederlandse Gemeenten" 1999.2
(CBS Report on Statistics of Dutch Municipalities)
(no figures for secondary vocational education, higher vocational education and scientific education)

Illiteracy (indicator 11)

The Netherlands enforces school attendance until the age of 16. As a result, illiteracy does not, or hardly, exist among the indigenous population although there are estimates concerning so-called technical illiteracy, which would be applicable to approximately 10% of the population. Illiteracy is however imported through the immigration of groups of people from other parts of the world. For instance, a large part of the group of Moroccan and Turkish men who came to the Netherlands in the sixties are illiterate; the new wave of immigration by refugees and asylum seekers is again leading to the importation of illiteracy. (Language) education for foreigners is therefore a source of concern and requires policy decisions.

80% of the older Turks and Moroccans have not received any form of education. They have never learned to read or write. Hardly any of the members of these groups have obtained a diploma of a school for continuing education. Children of these groups living in the Netherlands have received much more education. Very few Turkish and Moroccan immigrants, despite long-term residence in the

Netherlands, have succeeded in learning the Dutch language. Approximately 80% of the older Turkish and 70% of the older Moroccan migrants have great difficulty with the Dutch language. More than half of the older people coming from Surinam and the Netherlands Antilles have acquired a diploma from continuing education.

Life expectancy (indicator 11)

Life expectancy in the Netherlands has increased considerably over the last few years and has even doubled during the past century. Women currently, on the average, live longer than men.

Table 3.13 Life expectancy in years by birth

	Men	Women
1985-1989	73,4	79,9
1990-1994	74,2	80,2
1995	74,6	80,4

Source: CBS publication "Maandstatistiek van de bevolking"
(Monthly population statistics)

Members of municipal councils (including aldermen) and mayors

Nationally there are 2338 women councillors (compared with 7880 men), 307 female aldermen (compared with 1383 men) and 92 women are mayors (compared with 437 men) (Source: VNG)

The CBS keeps statistics of the number of female and male councillors per municipality.

Table 3.14 Members of municipal councils. Amsterdam, Eindhoven and Meppel by gender, for 1994 and 1998

		Men	Women
Amsterdam	1994	32	13
	1998	27	18
Eindhoven	1994	28	11
	1998	26	13
Meppel	1994	16	3
	1998	18	3

Source: CBS Statistisch Bestand Nederlandse Gemeenten 1999.1
(CBS Report on Statistics of Dutch Municipalities)

4 SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

This chapter will deal with the indicators and qualitative data (Q) indicated below. It also indicates the extent to which quantitative and qualitative data requested have been gathered (G = requested / R = realised).

		Locally		Nationally	
		Quantitative	Qualitative	Quantitative	Qualitative
12. Population growth	G	Yes	No	Yes	No
	R	Yes	No	Yes	No
13. Conservation of Drinking Water	G	Yes	No	No	No
	R	No	No	Partly	No
14. Price of Drinking Water	G	Yes	No	No	No
	R	Yes	No	No	No
15. Air Pollution	G	Yes	No	No	No
	R	Yes	No	No	No
16. Treatment of Waste Water	G	Yes	No	No	No
	R	No	No	Yes	No
17. Waste treatment	G	Yes	No	No	No
	R	Partly	No	No	No
Q3 Disaster Prevention and Reconstruction	G	No	Yes	No	Yes
	R	No	Yes	No	Yes
18. Travel Times from Home to Work	G	Yes	No	No	No
	R	No	No	No	No
19. Means of Transport from Home to Work	G	Yes	No	No	No
	R	No	No	Yes	No
Q4 Municipal Town- and Environmental Planning	G	No	Yes	No	Yes
	R	No	Yes	No	Yes

4.1 Sustainable development: introduction

The promotion of lasting human settlements in an urbanised world is the second main aim of the Habitat II conference. This aim has received a very broad interpretation. It is concerned with the entire environment for residence and living experience. The accent is laid in particular on policy areas in city planning, environment, transport, means of communication, employment opportunity, urban economy, health, welfare, safety and culture. The Netherlands is facing great challenges in the area of liveability in the cities and villages, such as in the areas of environmental pollution, traffic congestion, lack of safety, poverty, combating segregation, and the maintenance of historical monuments, as well as in the appearance of cities and villages.

4.2 Balanced distribution of settlements (indicator 12)

The Netherlands is a very densely populated country and in comparison with other countries, has very few problems with regard to empty rural areas in the grip of massive depopulation. In addition, settlement in the Netherlands is very evenly spread. There are many middle-sized cities and regional centres, hardly any sparsely populated areas and no very large cities. There are problems however with liveability in the rural areas. Especially the small regional centres are subject to depopulation, a greying population and a loss of economic functions and facilities. National city planning policy is oriented towards keeping facilities in these regional centres in place as far as possible.

The size of the Dutch population is still growing. During the intervening years (1994-1996) the larger cities, including Amsterdam, have had a slight decline in population. This is partly a result of the relatively high unemployment and the relatively strong growth in the price of real estate in Amsterdam in the middle of the nineties, which has resulted in a flight to nearby regional centres as well as to the countryside itself.

Table 4.1 The Netherlands: population numbers and growth per 1000 inhabitants

	Total	+ or – per 1000	Men	+ or – per 1000	Women	+ or – per 1000
1990	14,892,600	-	7,358,500	-	7,534,100	-
1995	15,424,100	4.5	7,627,500	4.5	7,796,600	4.5
1996	15,493,900	4.7	7,662,300	4.5	7,831,600	4.9
1997	15,567,100	5.6	7,696,800	5.6	7,870,300	5.6
1998	15,654,200	-	7,740,100	-	7,914,100	-

Source: CBS "Statistisch Jaarboek" (Statistical Yearbook) 1999.

Table 4.2 Amsterdam: population numbers and growth per 1000 inhabitants

	Total	+ or – per 1000	Men	+ or – per 1000	Women	+ or – per 1000
1993	719,856	5.9	353,861	6.4	365,995	5.4
1994	724,096	-2.6	356,127	-4.6	367,969	-0.6
1995	722,230	-5.7	354,494	-5.4	367,736	-6.0
1996	718,119	-4.3	352,590	-6.2	365,529	-2.1
1997	715,148	4.2	350,402	5.1	364,746	3.3
1998	718,151	12.4	352,189	13.9	365,962	10.9
1999	727,053	-	357,105	-	369,948	-

Source: CBS "Statistisch Bestand Nederlandse Gemeenten"

(Report on Statistics of Dutch Municipalities) 1999.1

Table 4.3 Eindhoven: population numbers and growth per 1000 inhabitants

	Total	+ or – per 1000	Men	+ or – per 1000	Women	+ or – per 1000
	195,267	3.7	97,828	3.0	97,439	5.8
1994	196,130	4.2	98,123	3.5	98,007	4.9
1995	196,963	2.1	98,470	1.4	98,493	2.8
1996	197,374	2.0	98,607	1.2	98,767	2.8
1997	197,766	2.9	98,722	2.0	99,044	3.7
1998	198,339	7.7	98,926	7.1	99,413	8.3
1999	199,877	-	99,635	-	100,242	-

Source: CBS "Statistisch Bestand Nederlandse Gemeenten"

(Report on Statistics of Dutch Municipalities) 1999.1

Table 4.4 Meppel: population numbers and growth per 1000 inhabitants

	Totaal	+ or – per 1000	Men	+ or – per 1000	Women	+ or – per 1000
1993	24,217	8.7	11,634	10.6	12,583	6.8
1994	24,427	19.4	11,758	22.1	12,669	16.9
1995	24,901	7.2	12,018	8.3	12,883	6.1
1996	25,080	11.9	12,118	13.6	12,962	11.0
1997	25,388	147.7	12,283	156.6	13,105	139.4
1998	29,139	9.7	14,207	10.7	14,932	8.8
1999	29,423	-	14,359	-	15,064	-

1 In 1998 the municipality of Nijeveen was added to Meppel.

Source: CBS "Statistisch Bestand Nederlandse Gemeenten"

(Report on Statistics of Dutch Municipalities) 1999.1

Loss of young people and ageing population

The loss of young people and ageing of the population is increasing in the Netherlands. This tendency at least is true for Eindhoven and Meppel. Amsterdam on the other hand is experiencing the reverse of this trend. During the period from 1993 to 1998 Amsterdam increased the total number of people (men and women) in the categories distinguished by the CBS of 5 to 14 years of age and of 30 to 59 years of age, and experienced a decrease in the categories of 0 to 4 years of age, and of 15 to 29 years of age, as well as of 60 years and older.

Eindhoven, during the period from 1993 to 1998 has experienced an increase in the total number of people in the categories of 0 to 9 years of age, of 25 to 39 years of age, of 45 to 54 years of age, as well as of 70 years and older, and a decrease in the categories of 10 to 24 years of age, of 40 to 44 years of age, and of 55 to 69 years of age. Meppel shows more or less the same profile as Eindhoven.

4.3 Effective management of (drinking) water supplies (indicator 13 and 14)

Consumption of drinking water (indicator 13)

In 1998, the average national annual consumption per person of drinking water in 1998 was 47 m³ (VEWIN, "Tarievenoverzicht leidingwater per 1 januari 1999") (Overview of mains water tariffs as at 1 January 1999). This represents almost 129 litres per person per day.

Total consumption (and the accompanying production) of mains water has decreased to some extent since the middle of the nineties, as a result of information provided by the government and public utilities in connection with measures to save water and energy consumption, as well as by adhering to principles of sustainable use in renovation and in the building of new infrastructure.

Table 4.5 Production of (mains) water in the Netherlands

	1985	1990	1995	1996	1997
Water produced (in millions of m ³)	1119	1296	1296	1281	1271

Source: CBS "Statistisch Jaarboek" (Statistical Yearbook) 1999.

Prices of drinking water (indicator 14)

The price of drinking water in Amsterdam has risen more or less in tandem with inflation; in Meppel and Eindhoven however prices have almost doubled, or more than doubled, during the period from 1993 to 1998.

Table 4.6 Prices of drinking water in Amsterdam, Eindhoven and Meppel,
1993 and 1998

Guilders / m ³	Amsterdam	Eindhoven	Meppel
1993	2.44	0.95	0.97
1998	2.87	1.98	1.76

Source: VEWIN "Tarievenoverzicht leidingwater"
(Overview of mains water tariffs)

4.4 Reduction of urban pollution (indicators 15, 16 and 17)

Air pollution (indicator 16)

Measurement data of the RIVM for 1993 and 1997 have been used for the values indicated in the table below. The data of measurement station Witteveen have been chosen, the station located most closely to Meppel. The table does not indicate a clear trend.

Table 4.7 Average annual concentration of substances in the air, 1993 and 1997

		SO ₂ (µg / m ³)	NO ₂ (µg / m ³)	O ₃ (µg / m ³)	CO (mg / m ³)	Pb (ng / m ³)
Witteveen	1993	6	18	36	0.35	18-53
	1997	5	17	37	-	14-48
Eindhoven	1993	-	48	21	1.28	18-53
	1997	9	49	24	1.2	14-48
Amsterdam	1993	12	49	30	0.64	18-53
	1997	10	43	32	0.64	14-48

Source: RIVM "luchtkwaliteit, jaaroverzichten 1993 en 1997"

(Air quality, annual overviews 1993 and 1997)

The WHO standards for the concentration of substances in the air are as follows:

- * Sulphur dioxide : 125 mg / m³ per 24 hours
- * Nitrogen dioxide : 40 mg / m³ per year
200 mg / m³ per hour
- * Ozone : 120 mg / m³ per 8 hours
- * Carbon monoxide : 10.000 mg / m³ per 8 hours
- * Lead : 0.5 mg / m³ per year

These standards have not been exceeded, with some exceptions:

- Eindhoven exceeded the standard for carbon monoxide in 1993; it is not known for how many days.
- Amsterdam and Eindhoven exceeded the annual standard for nitrogen dioxide in 1993 and in 1997.

Waste water treatment (indicator 16)

National data in connection with the discharge of waste matter have been measured in inhabitant equivalents (regarding substances which bind oxygen). The level of oxygen binding potential gives a good indication of the level of pollution of waste water.

Between 1990 and 1996 we see the following trends were observed:

- The households group discharge approximately 200.000 inhabitant equivalents more each year;
- Industrial discharge is decreasing;
- Waste water is increasingly treated by means of sewage treatment plants.

Table 4.8 Discharge of oxygen binding substances in waste water

	1990	1991	1993	1995	1996
(in millions of inhabitant equivalents)					
Households	14.9	15.1	15.3	15.5	15.5
Agriculture and market gardening	0.0	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1
Industry	5.6	4.2	3.8	3.2	3.2
Public utilities, the building industry, repair of consumer appliances and the hotel and restaurant trade	1.7	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.6
Service industry and other enterprises	2.3	2.4	2.4	2.5	2.5
Total gross discharge	24.5	23.3	23.4	22.8	23.0
Processed by public sewage treatment plants	20.8	21.1	21.5	21.7	21.8

Source: CBS publication "Waterkwaliteitsbeheer deel A: lozing van afvalwater"

(Water quality policy part A: discharge of waste water)

Waste processing (indicator 17)

Waste in the Netherlands is processed by means of recycling or useful application, burning, and landfill. Since the nineties the policy ("Nationale Milieubeleidsplan 3") (National Environmental Work Plan 3) has been aimed at preventing the creation of waste and at recycling the waste that is produced. The following data are available at the national level.

Table 4.9 Waste collected by municipalities, arranged by processing method

	1996	1997	Household waste and gross domestic waste (1997)		
			Total	Treatment methods	
				Recycling/useful application	Burning Landfill
	(1000 tons)			(weight %)	
Total waste processed	9159	9701	7873	51	37 12
Non-urban	1646	1709	1432	60	26 15
Little urban	1998	2098	1733	59	29 11
Some urban	1930	2030	1679	56	32 12
Strongly urban	1991	2270	1825	47	37 16
Very strongly urban	1595	1593	1203	30	69 1

Source: CBS publication "Van gemeentewege ingezameld afval"

(Waste collected by municipalities)

The conclusion can be drawn that the more waste originates from a very strongly urbanised area, the larger the portion of that waste that is burned and the smaller the portion that is used in landfill. There is also a strong general trend for household waste to increase.

4.5 Disaster prevention and the construction of settlements

(qualitative data 3)

Factors which influence safety are taken into account at government level in the formation of policy, for instance when making decisions concerning large-scale infrastructure projects. Concrete measures are in existence in the area of disaster prevention to counter any threats to housing, and to working and living in a safe environment, such as for instance (potential) accidents and disasters involving chemical

substances, as well as inundations. The co-ordination of disaster prevention at government level is in the hands of the Ministry of Internal Affairs. Measures in the area of public order and safety have links with policy areas such as the maintenance of law and order, town and country planning and traffic, and transport and water management. The Department of Internal Affairs also plays an important role at governmental level in disaster prevention as a result of its responsibility for public warning and information systems. The main thrust of safety policy however is aimed at the local level. Every municipality, including the municipalities involved in this research project, has for this purpose drawn up a municipal disaster plan, and disaster management exercises are held periodically at local level.

4.6 Stimulation of an effective and environmentally friendly transport system (indicators 18 and 19)

The shaping of spatial planning in conjunction with traffic and transport policy finds expression in two national policy documents, namely the "Vierde Nota Ruimtelijke Ordening Extra (VINEX)" (Fourth Report on Physical Planning Plus) and the second "Structuurschema Verkeer en Vervoer (SVV II)" (Traffic and Transport Structural Plan) in which the points of departure and priorities for a lasting infrastructure policy have been laid down. The SVV is further developed in the policy notes "Samen Werken Aan Bereikbaarheid (SWAB)" (Working Together on Accessibility) and "Transport in Balans (TIB)" (Transport in Balance). These are aimed at an integral traffic and transport policy in which the environment, spatial planning and the economy are all taken into account.

Currently the policy is aimed at limiting the growth in motor vehicle dependence, although in the meantime other voices have been raised with a different message. Measures in this area consist of, among other things, an increase in the excise on fuels used for transport and a stricter parking policy. A trial will also be held in the near future in a number of large cities with pay-as-you-drive or road pricing; it is expected that as a result, the problem of queues during peak hour will to a large extent be resolved. The development of new systems and technologies for transport and logistics can also contribute to a lessening of dependence on the automobile.

Another important aim of traffic and transport policy is to effect a change in the modal split, for instance by improving the competitive position of relatively clean methods of transport (such as rail and inland waterways) within goods transport, by improving alternatives to the motor car (high quality public transport), and by stimulating the bicycle as a mode of transport.

It is essential for traffic and transport policy to ensure that city centres can be reached without too much difficulty. This is attempted by an optimal utilisation of the existing infrastructure via, among other choices, dynamic traffic management, the provision of traffic information and a selective extension of the infrastructure itself. Better utilisation of the highway net also will produce an improvement in the quality of life in city areas.

The following table indicates the distances and modes of transport from home to work at the national level.

Table 4.10 Average distance from home to work in relation to main method of transport (national)

	1996	1997	1998
As the driver of a car	21.0	21.4	21.7
As the passenger in a car	22.8	22.4	23.8
Per trein By train	44.0	45.4	45.4
By bus, tram, underground railway	15.9	15.3	15.4
By engine-assisted bicycle	8.7	8.6	8.1
By bicycle	4.3	4.1	4.1
On foot	1.3	1.2	1.1
Other	18.5	18.3	18.3
Total	16.5	16.5	17.0

Source: "Volkshuisvesting in cijfers 1999, Ministerie van VROM, DGVH, Directie Bestuursdienst, december 1999"

(Netherlands Housing Statistics 1999, Department of VROM, DGVH, Management of Policy Service, December 1999)

The trend in the period from 1996 to 1998 is a continuing increase of the distance of travel between home and work. This was true for all modes of transport, except for the relatively environmentally friendly methods of transport such as engine-assisted bicycles, bicycles themselves and walking. If we look at the total transport performance we can see an increase in the number of kilometres travelled over the entire range, except for the category of engine-assisted bicycles.

Table 4.11 Total travel performance of the Dutch population

	1985	1990	1995	1996	1997
<i>billions of kilometers traveled</i>					
Driver of a ca	65.9	78.2	86.5	86.3	89.7
Passenger in a car	44.3	48.4	51.6	51.1	53.0
Public transport	16.9	21.5	24.6	24.8	26.4
Engine-assisted bicycle	1.7	1.5	1.2	1.2	1.2
Bicycle	11.8	13.0	13.2	12.5	13.5
Walking	5.1	5.0	5.6	5.5	5.6
Other	2.5	2.0	2.9	2.9	3.1
Total	148.2	169.6	185.6	184.3	192.5

Source: CBS publication "Mobiliteit van de Nederlandse bevolking"

(Mobility of the Dutch population)

4.7 Stimulation of mechanisms for the preparation and implementation of local town and country planning and local agenda 21 initiatives (qualitative data 4)

All municipalities in the Netherlands bear a responsibility with regard to municipal town planning and the (living) environment. An attempt is made together with other (government) authorities and enterprises to distribute and utilise the available space in the best possible way, and to involve the interested parties in the process. Municipal councils for this purpose develop town plans on the basis of national legislation and regulations, such as plans for utilisation, local traffic and transport plans and municipal environmental policy plans. Priority is given to ensuring that development takes future

requirements into account.

Sustainable development is the result of a wide range of co-operation. The government, social service organizations and industry can co-ordinate vision and action. In order to achieve this goal municipal councils invest in processes which are set up over a broad front, aimed at development which will stand the test of time. What these processes look like differs from one municipality to the other. In many municipalities this takes place under the title of "Local Agenda 21". Other municipalities may choose a different name.

Local groups which want to start or advance the process of Local Agenda 21 can for this purpose make an application for subsidy to the "Nationale Commissie voor Internationale Samenwerking en Duurzame Ontwikkeling" (National Commission for International Co-operation and Sustainable Development) (NCDO). A "Fonds Lokale Agenda 21" (Fund for Local Agenda 21) has been created for this purpose.

Zuider-Amstel is the first sub-municipality in Amsterdam where Local Agenda 21 has received a permanent place. Local Agenda 21 was chosen in 1999 under the program agreement 1998-2002 as the point of departure for integrated environmental policy.

In Meppel, the idea of starting a Local Agenda 21 had been present for a few years in the general planning pool of the Mondiaal Centrum. Starting up the Local Agenda 21 Fund of the NCDO was the stimulus for seeking contact with a number of other organizations in Meppel in order to gauge their level of interest. An approach was made to the "Vrouwenraad" (Women's Council), an organization which is involved in the reception of asylum seekers, and to the local branch of the "Wereldnatuurfonds" (World Wild-life Fund). The organizations decided to work together and approached approximately one hundred enterprises, associations and organizations in Meppel in writing with the question: "what are your ideas for a sustainable community and what activities could according to you potentially fall under the umbrella of a Local Agenda 21?" There was a high level of response and with the money from the Fund a meeting was organised which formed the commencement of dialogue between the social service organizations in Meppel.

5 ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

This chapter will deal with the indicators and qualitative data (Q) indicated below. The extent to which quantitative and qualitative data requested have been gathered is also indicated (G = requested / R = realized).

		Locally		Nationally	
		Quantitative	Qualitative	Quantitative	Qualitative
20. Informal employment possibilities	G	Yes	No	Yes	No
	R	No	No	No	Yes
Q5 Public-private co-operation	G	No	Yes	No	Yes
	R	No	Yes	No	Yes
21. Municipal services	G	Yes	No	No	No
	R	No	No	Yes	No
22. Unemployment	G	Yes	No	Yes	No
	R	Partly	No	Partly	No

5.1 Economic development: introduction

Strengthening of the economic structure in cities is promoted via projects for the development of infrastructure, siting of industry and restructuring of old inner-city industrial areas. One of the central points of this policy consists of the strengthening of economic activity in suburbs which have lagged severely behind. The suburb is an important area unit in the formation of policy. At this relatively limited scale a coherent approach is more effective. At that level therefore, a large number of urban regulations are brought into concert (a suburb-oriented approach). By means of deregulation, the instigation of economic action plans at city and suburban level, and the creation of areas for stimulation, an attempt is made to promote the growth of employment and to tempt enterprises to return to the city or the suburb. In the stimulation areas, over a period of five years, an attempt is made via a series of goal-directed, partly experimental approaches, to improve the climate for the settlement of business enterprises. This is a vehicle for the promotion of the development of the local economy, in particular by means of middle-sized and small enterprises.

Investment in those suburbs which have little to offer in the way of opportunity, is in the view of the cabinet, a good way to integrate into society those groups which have lagged behind, and to combat physical segregation, poverty and lack of safety.

5.2 Reinforcement of the middle-sized and small enterprise (set up by women) (indicator 20)

Women

Apart from the granting of priority in application procedures to women who are deemed to possess equal qualifications, there is no particular policy for the stimulation of middle-sized and small enterprises set up by women. Various initiatives have been deployed for the stimulation of middle-sized and small enterprises, among which the (tax) deduction for small independents over the first three years of an enterprise.

Women have a higher representation than men in some particular professional groups, such as in the care sector. It is not surprising that women from these professional groups more often become unfit for work than men in that professional group. Calls to institute measures to reduce the pressure of work in for instance the care sector are increasing at the beginning of the 21st century, and various measures have been taken in order to improve employment circumstances.

Moonlighting

Attempts are being made to reduce the number of people working illegally in professional areas, for instance by levying lower VAT tariffs on products and services which may easily be accessible for illegal employment (among which are hairdressers and bicycle mechanics). One estimate of illegal employment in the Netherlands mentions 13.5% of gross domestic product¹. There are no other figures available.

¹ Article in "Damiat", 1 September 1999

5.3 Stimulation of public and private enterprises and possibilities for productive employment (indicator 22 and qualitative data 5)

Public and private co-operation (qualitative data 5)

The possibilities for co-operation between the public and private sector (PPS) are recognized in the Netherlands as well. The Department of Finance has for this purpose created a "Kenniscentrum PPS" (PPS Knowledge Centre), intended to be an initiator and stimulator of PPS projects. In the progress report of December 1999 a distinction is made between the commencement phase (scouting, plan phase and policy making) and the realization phase (granting of the PPS contract up to and including actual completion of the project). Most of the PPS projects mentioned by the Knowledge Centre are still in the commencement phase, while a single project has reached the beginning of the realization phase.

The PPS projects which are marked down for priority treatment are located in the areas of transport infrastructure (including the "A4 Midden Delfland", "Metroshuttle Kop van Zuid", "Randstadrail" and "HSL-Zuid infraprovider" projects), urban development ("Utrecht Centrum Project", "Zuidas Amsterdam", "Rotterdam CS" and "Hoog Hage"), green infrastructure ("Zandgebieden Zuid en Oost"), and knowledge infrastructure ("Technocentra") and others (among which "Project Mainportontwikkeling Rotterdam"). In addition, a number of projects which show promise have been indicated.

The Knowledge Centrum PPS the experience gained, which flows from the support, in the projects themselves, and in the (further) development of the range of instruments required for PPS; the main aim in this respect is the development of models for process architecture, the development of standard models, and a checklist for PPS contracts, application of the European tender guidelines and the further development of models for the financial structuring of PPS transaction.

Because developments in this area are still in a commencement phase, it is not possible to make relevant pronouncements about their advantages and disadvantages.

Unemployment (indicator 22)

Since the mid nineties, the unemployment number has decreased considerably, partly as a result of the successful and internationally prized "polder" model. In parallel with the figures on poverty, women on the average run more of a risk of becoming unemployed.

No unemployment figures are available for Meppel. Unemployment number for Eindhoven and Amsterdam (1993-1998) are listed in the table below.

Table 5.1 Unemployment in the Netherlands, 1990, 1995 and 1998

	As a % of the professional population					
	Unemployed professional population			Registered unemployment		
	1990	1995	1998	1990	1995	1998
Total	6.9	8.1	5.0	5.9	7.0	4.1
Men	4.6	6.2	3.6	5.4	6.4	3.7
Women	10.9	11.1	7.2	6.8	8.1	4.8

Source: CBS, "Enquete Beroepsbevolking" (Survey of Professional Population)

Table 5.2 Amsterdam, unemployment, 1993-1998 (%)

	Unemployed professional population	Registered unemployment
1993	13	12
1994	13.6	13
1995	12.9	12
1996	11.8	12
1997	-	12
1998	-	10

Source: "CBS Statistisch Bestand Nederlandse Gemeenten" 1999.1
(CBS Report on Statistics of Dutch Municipalities)
and "Gemeente Amsterdam, Amsterdam in Cijfers 1999"
(Municipality of Amsterdam, Amsterdam in Figures 1999)

Table 5.3 Eindhoven, unemployment, 1993-1998 (%)

	Unemployed professional population	Registered unemployment
1993	11.2	9
1994	11.6	10
1995	9.6	11
1996	7.8	7
1997	-	6
1998	-	5

Source: "CBS Statistisch Bestand Nederlandse Gemeenten" 1999.1
(CBS Report on Statistics of Dutch Municipalities)
and "RBA-Eindhoven"

5.4 Urban productivity (indicator 21)

Municipalities in the Netherlands offer citizens and business enterprises a range of services, mostly on the basis of a legal provision. The municipal councils have not provided any figures which would serve to fill in this indicator. The CBS has provided the following figures with regard to the gross national product:

Table 5.4 Internal product and national income per employment year and per inhabitant.

	1985	1990	1995	1996	1997
<i>guilders</i>					
Internal product per employment year					
Gross, factor costs	82,270	90,060	105,920	108,190	111,730
National income per inhabitant					
Net, market prices	26,020	30,500	36,670	38,500	40,800
Net, factor costs	23,510	27,290	32,160	33,620	35,670

Source: CBS publication "Nationale Rekeningen" (National Accounts)

Table 5.5 Gross regional product against market prices per province

billions of guilders	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Groningen	27.5	26.9	27.5	30.4	30.7
Friesland	18.7	19.5	20.1	20.8	22.0
Drenthe	14.3	15.0	15.4	15.9	16.8
Overijssel	34.6	36.2	37.6	39.3	41.4
Flevoland	6.7	7.7	7.9	8.2	9.1
Gelderland	61.9	65.0	67.5	70.8	74.7
Utrecht	42.3	45.2	47.0	49.4	52.2
North-Holland	98.0	103.2	107.1	111.3	119.3
South-Holland	136.3	143.2	149.0	154.6	164.2
Zeeland	13.5	15.1	15.7	15.9	16.9
North-Brabant	84.0	89.0	94.2	99.6	105.0
Limburg	37.2	40.2	42.2	43.7	46.1

Source: CBS publication "Nationale Rekeningen" (National Accounts)

6 GOVERNANCE

This chapter will deal with the indicators and qualitative data (Q) indicated below. The extent to which quantitative and qualitative data requested have been gathered is also indicated (G = requested / R = realised).

		Locally		Nationally	
		Quantitative	Qualitative	Quantitative	Qualitative
Q6. Level of decentralization	G	No	Yes	No	Yes
	R	No	Yes	No	Yes
Q7. Citizen involvement	G	No	Yes	No	No
	R	No	Yes	No	Yes
Q8. Transparent and responsible authority	G	No	Yes	No	No
	R	No	Yes	No	No
23. Municipal costs and benefits	G	Yes	No	Yes	No
	R	No	No	Partly	No

6.1 Governance: introduction

The existence of a strong local governance is of vital importance for the solution of urban problems. As the administrative level which is the closest to the citizen, the municipal council is the first to have contact with unemployment and financial problems, lack of safety and environmental problems in the suburb, and is the most exposed to them. The municipal council also possesses the specific knowledge and expertise to combat these local problems. At the same time however, it is clear that the local authorities can not solve these problems by themselves. The national government must create conditions in this process and indicate the political and regional cadres within which local authorities can delineate their policies. The government plays a stimulating role in this regard by promoting the co-operation of parties at the local level, the development of a vision, and the making of policy agreements.

Co-operation between the government, municipal councils, social organizations, industry and inhabitants is one of the strategies recommended by the Habitat Agenda. The government and large cities have formalised their agreements in the form of covenants. The municipal council has a central role to play in directing the initiation and further stimulation of the manner in which the problems are to be tackled. The government offers the municipal councils the means and the possibility to fulfill this function in practice. The support of non-governmental organizations, industry and the inhabitants of the problem suburbs themselves is absolutely essential. New organized interest groups have increasingly been playing a role in the area of housing, in particular the organizations of older people, the handicapped and people owning their own homes.

6.2 Stimulation of decentralisation and strengthening of local authorities (qualitative data 6)

The implementation of habitat recommendations with regard to decentralisation is already far advanced in the Netherlands. In order to get a grip on urban problems various steps have been taken in the area of integrated policy making and co-operation between departments, municipalities, non-governmental authorities, industry and the citizens themselves.

The municipalities have, within the framework of the "Grote Stedenbeleid" (Major City Policy) been given a large measure of responsibility. The local administrators in their role as directors can themselves put into place the means and the people where they consider this to be necessary. From this point of view it is important for local managers to have the opportunity of exchanging their experience and knowledge with others. By being aware of the manner in which others work, they may acquire inspiration for the handling of problems with which they are confronted every day. In this manner managers can also assist each other at the local level¹.

It is important in this connection that members of parliament are elected democratically and are not vulnerable to being relieved of their office by higher government authorities. This is not so for the managers who are appointed (the mayor, or the "Commissaris van de Koningin" ("Royal Commissioner" or Representative of the Queen)) who can be called to account by higher government authorities and if necessary, can be dismissed.

¹ Yearbook 1998 "Grote Stedenbeleid" (Major City Policy) part 1, situation and development in the cities.

Municipal councils can determine local rate levels themselves to a **certain extent**. This is also true for municipal services fees, although there is some tendency towards national parity in this regard. In the "Monitor Lokale Lasten" (Local Fees Monitor) 1998¹ the following conclusions are drawn:

- The revenue of the five most important levies imposed by municipalities and district water boards (the real estate tax, the cleaning levy, the sewage fees, the water board district assessments, and the pollution levy) have - including the effects of local **taxation relief** - decreased in 1998 by 1.8%.
- The amount of local levies imposed on individual tax payers has in 1998 **decreased** for all income groups investigated.
- The number of municipalities and district water boards which have a policy of debt cancellation has increased further. The average standard percentage which is involved has also risen. This means that more tax payers are becoming eligible for tax relief and that on the average a larger portion of their tax assessment is eligible for cancellation. As a result most tax payers on the lowest incomes do not pay any local taxes at all.
- The revenue of the smaller levies, from the macro-economic point of view, such as the tax on parking places and construction duties, have risen relatively sharply (an average increase of 6.8% in 1997, and an average increase of 14.7% in 1998). This development can be explained as the result of both an increase in the level of the tariffs as well as of an increase of the taxable base (primarily as the result of having more parking places fall under the parking tax and a larger number of construction projects for which permission has been granted).

Municipalities can borrow and lend money, as long as they take due care in managing money which belongs to the community. At this moment this question is quite acute, in view of the fact that continually more (semi) government institutions appear to have invested public funds which are not required for the moment, in shares and options which may or may not be risky investments.

Municipalities, where their own management tasks and their own jurisdiction are concerned, independently engage project subcontractors for such as for instance road building.

What budgets are available to individual municipalities is known before the year commences. On the one hand, contributions are received from the municipal funds, on the other hand there are goal-directed payments to be made, such as for instance within the framework of employment provision projects.

6.3 Stimulation and support of social involvement and participation (qualitative data 7)

Tackling the housing problem requires more co-operation, management aimed at specific areas and an approach which is aimed at the person. This means that interactive policy formation at the local and regional level and coalitions between public and private actors are required. Social renewal has in many municipalities led to the rise of local administration. The house building corporations have been given an explicit task in this area, which they often implement in co-operation with welfare organizations.

In addition to this it is important that the inhabitants participate in the decision making process. Local government legislation has been obliged since 1994 to provide the opportunity for participation in

¹ The "Monitor Lokale Lasten" (Local Fees Monitor) has been in operation since 1997 and goes back to 1995. Data are therefore not available for purposes of comparison.

matters of municipal policy. Several laws, in particular in the area of the environment, contain provisions which prescribe participation in formulating draft decisions and regulations. In addition, the general legislation on administrative law lays down the rights of citizens with regard to complaints and appeals procedures.

The involvement of inhabitants and social organizations is embedded in practical terms in the "Grote Stedenbeleid" (Major City Policy) and the social renewal policy. Citizens, in many municipalities in dialogue with the municipal government, involve themselves in activities so that they may be able to successfully attack disadvantage in their own environment. This practical manner of involvement contributes to extending the expertise and insight of inhabitants with regard to local democracy. In this way new forms of management and administration are created - which are made to order for the local situation - such as suburban and district management with its own suburban budgets and suburban councilmen. This also contributes to the advancement and strengthening of social cohesion in suburbs and districts of the large cities.

6.4 Ensuring a transparent and accountable government

(indicator 23 and qualitative data 8)

The municipal expenditures and incomes in the Netherlands are very transparent. For instance, municipal accounts are created every calendar year and must be presented for approval to an accountant. Contracts and tenders are published or are made public in some other manner (for instance by means of making them available for perusal).

Public office bearers and officials may also become subject to sanctions if they act wrongly and there are policy regulations in connection with acting in an honourable manner and with the intertwining of political interests.

Municipal councils which threaten to go "bankrupt" and can not keep their expenses and incomes in balance, can be placed under the guardianship of the national Government (the so-called "article 12" municipalities. This means in practice that national government (and also the province) will play a large role in the financial management of the municipality and is in the position of a guarantor for any possible shortfalls in the municipal budget. However transparent all this may be, the municipal councils themselves could not provide the data with regard to 1993 and 1998 when asked to do so. The CBS does keep a cumulative table listing incomes and expenditure of the municipalities in the Netherlands.

Table 6.1 Municipal expenditure and incomes, nationally, 1997-1998

	Current expenses		Current income		Balances	
	1997	1998	1997	1998	1997	1998
<i>millions of guilders</i>						
General administration	3542	3679	612	666	-2930	-3013
Public order and safety	1144	1245	108	129	-1036	-1116
Traffic, transport and water board	7206	7459	3588	3720	-3617	-3739
Economic matters	1226	1274	1366	1342	141	68
Education	7739	8183	5864	5403	-1875	-2779
Culture and recreation	6144	6415	1108	1136	-5037	-5280
Social provision and the provision of welfare services	23,277	22,439	16,021	14,838	-7255	-7602
Public health and environment	6639	6589	5039	4828	-1601	-1760
Town planning and public housing	11,922	12,743	10,490	11,472	-1432	-1271
Financing and general financial remedies	3527	3455	28,168	29,942	24,641	26,487
Total	72,365	73,482	72,365	73,476	0	-5

Source: CBS publication "Statistiek der gemeentebegrotingen"
(Statistics of municipal budgets)

7 INTERNATIONAL CO-OPERATION

This chapter will deal with the indicators and qualitative data (Q) indicated below. The extent to which quantitative and qualitative data requested have been gathered is also indicated (G = requested / R = realised).

		Locally		Nationally	
		Quantitative	Qualitative	Quantitative	Qualitative
Q9. Involvement in projects which cross the border	G	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	R	No	Yes	Partly	Yes

7.1 International co-operation: introduction

Approximately 50 million people living in Europe can be considered poor. More specifically, in the larger European cities, a large portion of this group has been unemployed (for more than a year) and there is a large problem of social and economic exclusion. Three quarters of the inhabitants of Europe live in cities. International co-operation is primarily aimed at improvement of the housing and living conditions of the poorest classes in the large cities.

7.2 Stimulation of international co-operation (qualitative data 9)

A good housing and living climate promotes political and social stability and the economic functioning of cities. The European Union (EU) attaches great value to economic efficiency and invests in economic, social and cultural development of the cities. Over the last few years attention has increasingly been paid within the European Structure Funds to the social and economic effects of urban segregation. In 1994 the European Commission launched the URBAN community initiative within the framework of these Structure Funds, which was meant to contribute to further co-operation and deepen insight into the revitalisation of cities, and more in particular of the poor suburbs. In the Netherlands the four large cities participate in this program. 600 million ECU were spent in approximately 80 large cities in Europe for the period from 1995 up to and including 1999.

The Netherlands has for years been spending a considerable part of the gross national product (0.8 %, which in 1998 was 6.4 billion guilders) on co-operation with development concerning projects in approximately 47 countries worldwide.

The Netherlands receive several EU subsidies for economic sectors (agriculture and market gardening, fisheries and so on) and for areas which are economically backward, and which have been nominated by the European Union.

Municipalities also co-operate with municipalities from other countries, for instance within the framework of city links. Other institutions such as schools and enterprises also have links of this kind with primarily villages and schools in countries of the third world. There are also some special projects being pursued, such as the reconstruction of villages and cities in an area which has suffered from warfare or from a natural disaster. Amsterdam during the last few years for instance, contributed to the reconstruction taking place after Hurricane Mitch.

Eindhoven has a city link with Chinandega in Nicaragua. Amsterdam has two city links, with Managua in Nicaragua and with Beira in Mozambique. Meppel has no city link. The municipalities of the Netherlands have in total some 860 city links, which are distributed as follows¹:

- Africa	69
- Asia	65
- Western Europe	403
- Middle and Eastern Europe	279
- North America	10
- Middle and South America	32

¹ Exact numbers are not known.

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