



WILCO

Welfare innovations
at the local level
in favour of cohesion

CITY REPORT: PAMPLONA

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This report is part of Work Package 3 of the research project entitled "Welfare innovations at the local level in favour of cohesion" (WILCO). WILCO aims to examine, through cross-national comparative research, how local welfare systems affect social inequalities and how they favour social cohesion, with a special focus on the missing link between innovations at the local level and their successful transfer to and implementation in other settings. The WILCO consortium covers ten European countries and is funded by the European Commission (FP7, Socio-economic Sciences & Humanities).



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TABLE OF CONTENTS

1. Transformations in the labour market.....	3
1.1. Socioeconomic trends.....	3
1.2. Public regulation	9
2. Demographic changes and family	11
2.1. Socioeconomic trends.....	11
2.2. Public regulation	18
3. Migration.....	22
3.1. Socioeconomic trends.....	22
3.2. Public regulation	25
4. Trends in the housing field.....	25
4.1. Socioeconomic trends.....	25
4.2. Public regulation	27
References.....	29
Tables	30

Pamplona is the capital of Navarre, one of Spain's 17 autonomous regions. Navarre is a comparatively small region (637,000 inhabitants in 2010), on the border with France at the Western end of the Pyrenees.

It has a strong tradition of self government. It's one of the four territories (together with the three neighbouring Basque provinces) that have the power to collect all general taxes and transfer a fixed amount to the central government to pay for "common services". Until 1841 it was formally an independent kingdom with the same king as Spain, and since then it has been able to keep comparatively strong institutions of self government. It kept its autonomy (unlike other regions in Spain) even under Franco's dictatorship, something that had a significant impact on its industrial development in the sixties. It's one of the better off regions in Spain in many economic and social welfare indicators.

The city of Pamplona has a great weight in the region. Although the municipality of Pamplona itself has about 197,000 inhabitants, the metropolitan area¹ makes up for more than half of the population of the region (345,000).

Table 1 - Evolution of the population of Navarre and Pamplona 1991-2010

	1991	2001	2010
Navarre	519,277	555,829	636,924
Pamplona metropolitan area	259,265	290,723	345,049
Pamplona municipality	180,372	183,964	197,488

Source: Instituto de Estadística de Navarra

1. TRANSFORMATIONS IN THE LABOUR MARKET

1.1. Socioeconomic trends

Navarre was a little developed agricultural region until the mid sixties. Neighbouring Gipuzkoa and, specially, Bizkaia knew a strong industrial development since the nineteenth century, which actually drained a significant part of the population of rural Navarre. The overall development of Spain during the sixties and seventies plus a strong local public policy of incentives to industrial development turned the region in a few years into a modern industrial area, with a strong importance of the automobile industry and its suppliers.

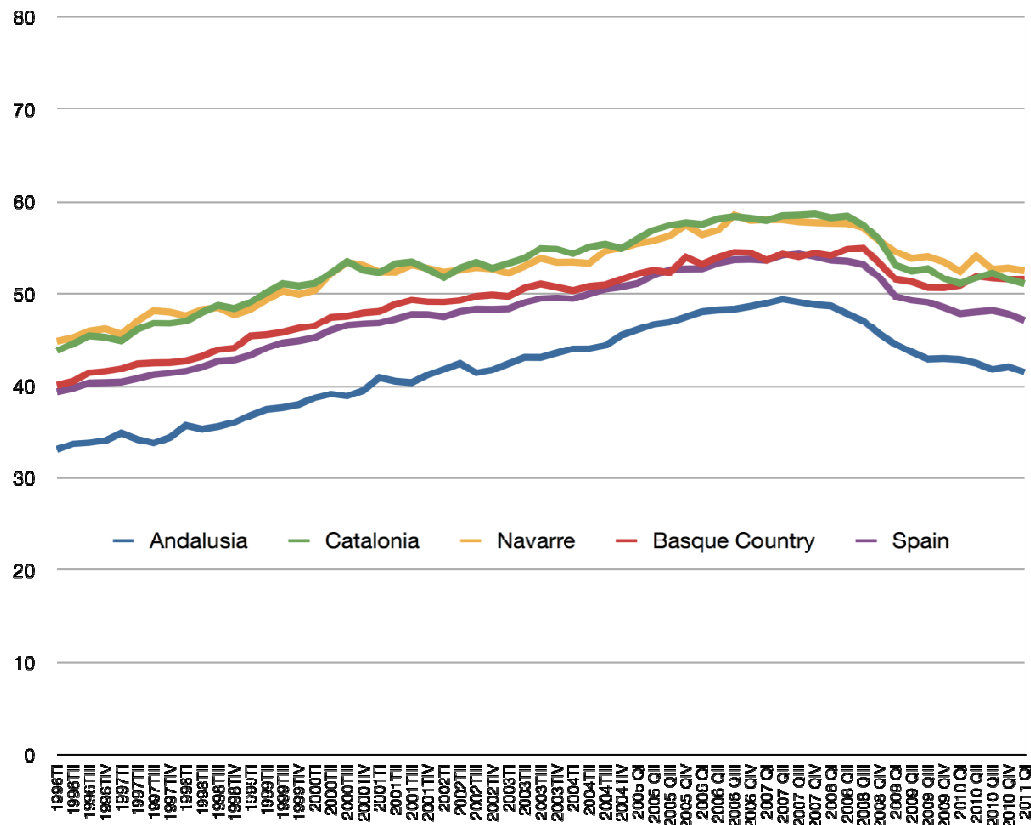
Navarre thus jumped directly from a preindustrial agricultural economy to an advanced industrial and service economy during the last third of the twentieth century. This accounts for the fact of becoming the third region in Spain in GDP (measured in PPS) per inhabitant (after the Basque Country and Madrid) and the 33rd in the EU-27, close to Düsseldorf or Karlsruhe in Germany, slightly below Lombardia but above Emilia-Romagna or Veneto in Italy. In 2008 it was at 1.31 of the EU-27 average.

The automobile industrial cluster has been and still is key to Navarre's economy. A large Volkswagen factory and a whole lot of part manufacturers tightly integrated into a JIT cycle form this cluster. During the last ten years, the development of a local industry linked to renewable energy sources (mainly wind and sun) has begun to design a new future development path for Navarre's industry. Educational and health services (both public and private) are another strong element in the regional economy.

¹ The "metropolitan area" has no formal status. The Instituto de Estadística de Navarra offers data for a set of areas that were defined for a regional development plan in the 1990s (called *zonas Navarra 2000*). Data on the second row of Table 1 refer to this division.

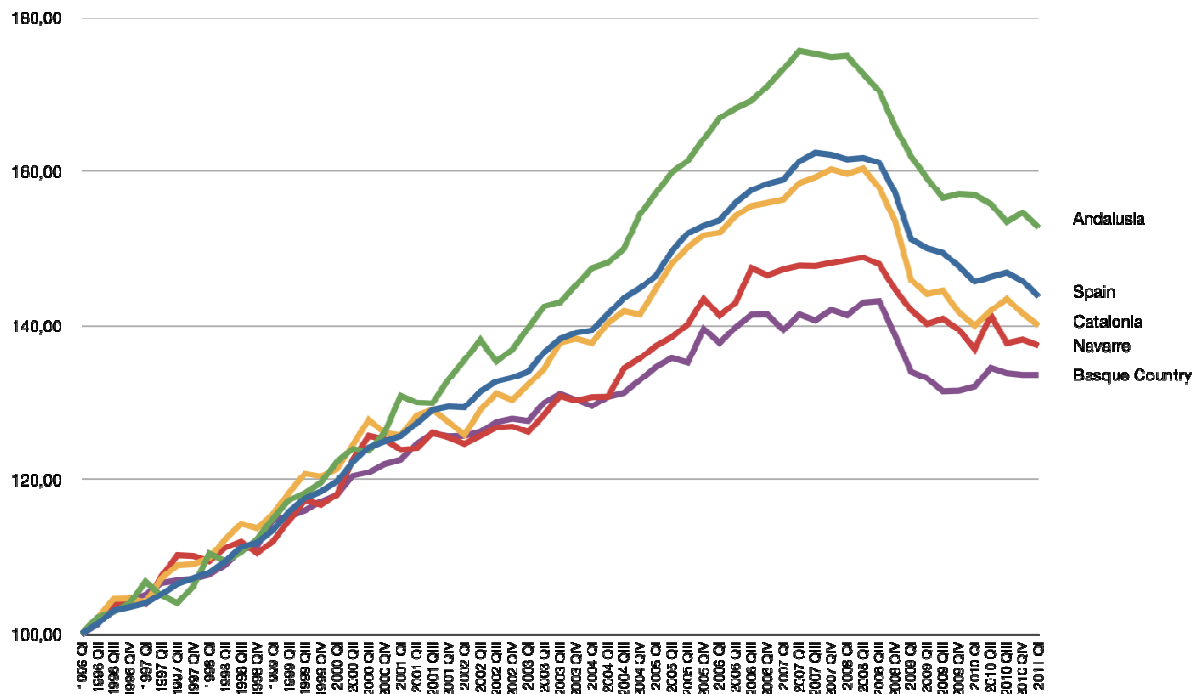
Navarra has had for many years an employment rate above the Spanish average (see Figure 1 on page 4). In 2005 it reached the 70% target set by the Lisbon Strategy (for population 16-64). Employment rates have been similar to those in Catalonia, but clearly higher than the one for regions like Andalusia.

Figure 1 - Employment rates (16+) for selected regions in Spain (1996-2011)



Employment skyrocketed all over Spain since the mid 1990s, but growth was slower in regions like Navarra (and the Basque Country). Most other regions in Spain have shown an even faster growth in jobs, due to the construction and service bubble.

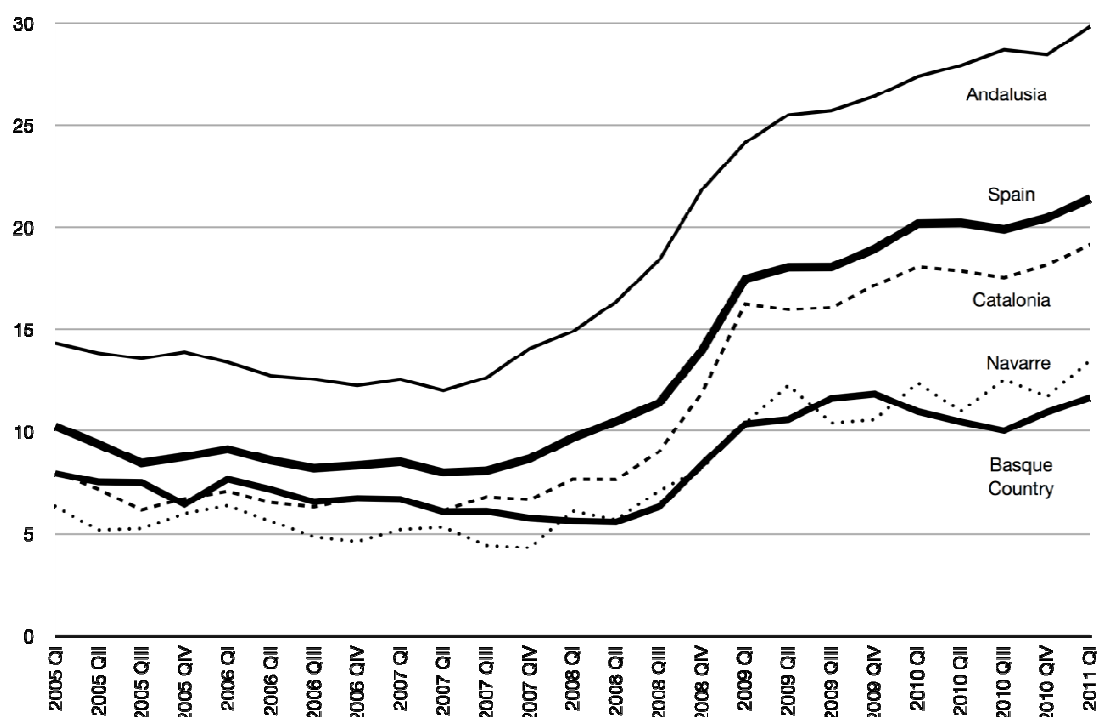
Figure 2 - Employment in selected Spanish regions (1996-2011) (1996=100)



Impact of crisis on employment

The crisis has had an extraordinary impact in terms of employment on the Spanish economy. Unemployment rates have jumped from a historical low of less than 8 percent in 2007 to over 20 percent since early 2010. Navarra has consistently had much lower unemployment rates than the Spanish average for years, and the impact has been somewhat less dramatic. By the end of 2007 Navarra had an unemployment rate of 4.27, and since 2009 it has been moving between yearly highs of 12.3 and lows of 10.4. So while the crisis has more than doubled the unemployment rate in the region, it still remains some 8 to 10 percentage points below the Spanish average.

Figure 3 - Quarterly unemployment rates (16 to 64) 2005-2011 for selected regions in Spain



Source: INE, EPA

Data in figure 3 gives an idea of the different impact of the crisis in terms of unemployment in regions in Spain. The dramatic increase in unemployment is clearly visible since mid 2008. Catalonia has followed the national path quite closely, albeit at a slightly lower level. Andalusia has had for years the highest unemployment rate in Spain, and has kept the distance along the crisis. On the other end of the regional map, both Navarre and the neighbouring Basque Country have performed much better. Figures 2 and 3 show us the evolution of employment during the same period. Andalusia and, to some extent, Catalonia seem to have had a larger "employment bubble" and, thus, have been hit harder by the crisis. In any case, employment rates (shown in Figure 1 for population over 16) are consistently higher in regions like Navarre or Catalonia.

This smaller impact in unemployment has to do with several reasons. A stronger advanced industrial sector, the greater weight of higher value-added activities, and, consequently, a more qualified and stable workforce and a smaller importance of the building sector may be the key reasons (Gabinete de Estudios de CC OO Navarra 2010).

Adjustment to the crisis has been done in Spain chiefly destroying jobs, and first of all by eliminating temporary employees from the payrolls. The paradoxical consequence is that the share of temporary jobs has been reduced from 34.6 per cent of all employees (in 2006 Q3) to 24.8 in 2011 (Q1). In Navarre it has gone down from 31.5 per cent to 23.7 per cent.

Temporary employment has affected both genders and all age groups, although in different degrees. With data for 2005 in Navarre (when both employment and temporary employment were at higher levels than now), temporary jobs were almost one third of all employees (31.9%). It affected women more than men, but differences were not very large (34% of women and 30.4% of men). Age differences were more significant: 53.1% of

employees under 30 were on temporary contracts, and only 15% of those over 50.

It is quite difficult to assess precisely the impact on irregular employment, although there are many indications that it has grown with the crisis. Estimates on black or grey employment are always a bit tricky. There are no official data on the matter, and we can only rely on some estimates and local surveys.

Two surveys were carried out in Navarra in 2000 and 2008 (Gabinete de Estudios de CC OO Navarra 2009). The estimates for 2008 are that about one-tenth (10.2%) of the workforce was working in "non standard" situations, that include working with neither a contract nor social security, working as a "dependent self-employed" person, or working as interns, family helpers and similar situations. About 5% of the workforce was working without a contract nor social security affiliation (i.e., "illegally"); 1.1% were working without a contract but affiliated to social security in sectors where this is legal (domestic services, agriculture), and another 4.1% were working in other non standard ways (which are legal). There is also a number of people working in "partially irregular" ways, i.e., working under a contract but working more hours or getting more pay than declared.

Working without a contract is widespread in domestic services, and happens marginally in agriculture (during crop seasons) and in shops, bars and restaurants (for short periods of time). In some cases it has to do with people who are receiving unemployment benefits, retirement pensions or studying, as well as with foreign residents without a work permit.

According to both surveys, in Navarre the vast majority of people working without a contract were women (83%), one-third were young people aged 16 to 29 (who are one-fifth of the workforce), mostly with low qualifications and in unqualified jobs. Half of them work in domestic services, another fifth caring for elderly people at home, and a much smaller proportion in other services. Almost half of them hadn't had any other kind of job during the last 5 years.

The population groups who seem to have more difficulties to find and keep jobs have been the same for many years. Women with children (because of difficulties in facing both family and work demands), unemployed people over 45, people with disabilities or with health and mental health problems, part of the Spanish *roma* population and, more recently, immigrants seem to be the most frequently mentioned groups (Rodríguez *et al.* 2009).

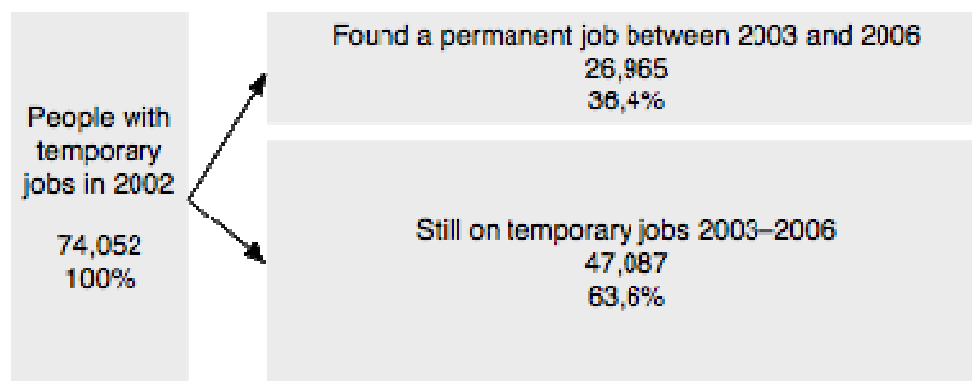
Table 2 - Percentage of jobseekers and of people who found a job in Navarre 2006

	% of registered jobseekers	% of people that have found a job
Women	60	44
Migrants	13	26
People over 45	35	14

Source: Rodríguez *et al.* (2009) with data from the Servicio Navarro de Empleo.

Even during the years of the employment boom, there were indicators that suggested that a significant part of people with temporary jobs were "trapped" in that kind of jobs and had low chances of finding permanent jobs. In the aforementioned report (Rodríguez *et al.* 2009) there is an estimate based on official data that show almost two thirds of the people with temporary jobs in 2002 still with temporary jobs during the period 2003-2006.

Table 3 - Temporary workers in 2002 and their transitions to permanent jobs 2003-2006



Source: Rodríguez *et al.* (2009), with data from the SNE.

National statistics on wages give us only a general idea of income inequalities. Average gross yearly wages are shown in Table 4.

Table 4 - Average gross yearly wages

	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Spain	18,310	18,677	19,681	20,390	21,883	22,511
Catalonia	19,750	20,067	21,210	21,998	23,376	23,851
Navarre	20,455	20,830	21,661	22,219	23,343	23,658

Source: INE, EncuestaAnual de Estructura Salarial.

Data available for Navarre show significant differences between population groups. Men earn 37% more than women do, permanent workers 36% more than temporary workers, and Spaniards 36% more than foreigners, although the sample for foreigners in Navarre is quite small.

Table 5 - Average yearly wages (Navarre 2009)

Average	23,658
Gender	
Men	26,756
Women	19,488
Type of contract	
Permanent	25,001
Temporary	18,393
Nationality	
Spanish	24,033
Foreign	17,640*
Occupational level	
High	31,243
Medium	21,083
Low	20,666

*Sample very small

Source: INE, EncuestaAnual de Estructura Salarial

With published data we cannot give precise indications on the size and characteristics of our target group (unemployed independent young people) from published statistical data.

1.2. Public regulation

Responsibility for labour market policy in Spain is split between three levels of government.

Overall regulation of labour relations and unemployment benefits are in the hands of the central government. "Active" labour market policy (helping to find jobs, training, etc.) are in the hands of regions. Municipalities "may" (and in fact do) carry out supplementary active policies.

This system of mixed governance of labour market policies has developed since the 1980s, and has acquired its present configuration in the last ten years. Both "passive" and "active" policies used to be in the hands of the central government, closely linked to the social security system in the INEM (Instituto Nacional de Empleo, the national institute for employment). But since the employment crisis in the late 1970s and 1980s, both regional and local governments developed many initiatives to cope with local unemployment situations.

Finally, the emerging model was based on the idea that "passive" policies should stay in the hands of the central government (since they are part of the central social security system), except for "social assistance" benefits that is in the hands of regions (basically the minimum income for social integration benefits, but not means-tested unemployment assistance)². The former INEM was transformed into the Servicio Público de Empleo Estatal (SPEE, "state" public employment service) who runs both passive policies and the coordination of regional active policies.

"Active" policies have become a responsibility of regions, each of them with its own public employment service. Municipalities do not have a statutory duty to carry out policies in this field, but they may do so as a supplement to regional policies. The degree of development of such local services is very different from one municipality to another, but it may be quite important in some cases.

In Navarre, the regional public employment service (Servicio Navarro de Empleo) was established in 1998, so the overall distribution of responsibilities has not changed a lot since the late 1990s.

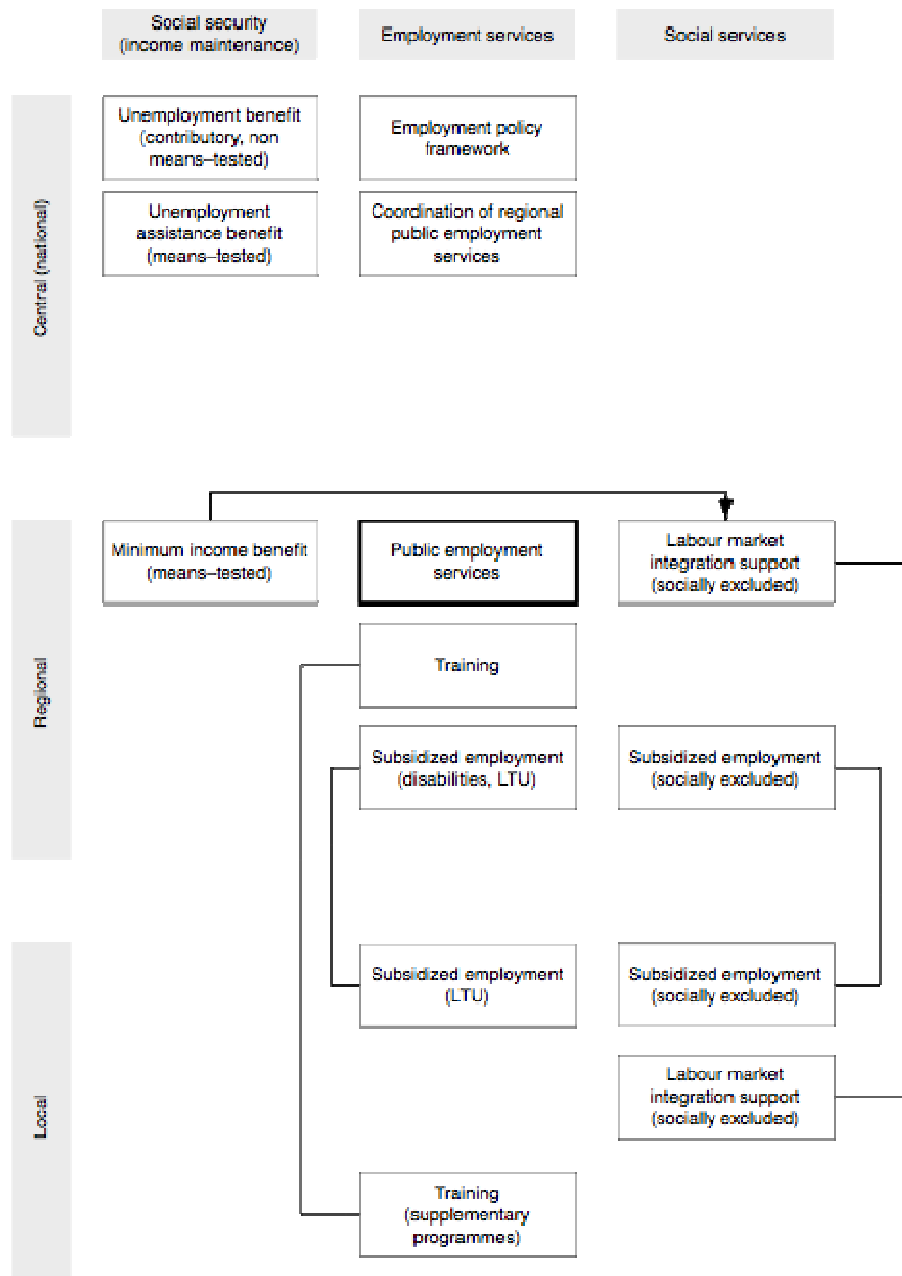
Active policies targeted at some disadvantaged groups are run by the regional and local social services. The divide between responsible agencies is not always consistent. Social services tend to concentrate on people receiving the Renta Básica (the regional minimum income benefit) which tend to be people with some special difficulties, although that is not always the case and less so since many newly unemployed are losing ordinary unemployment benefits and claiming the Renta Básica. Services include social work

² Unemployment benefits fall into two large categories: contributory unemployment benefit (prestación por desempleo de nivel contributivo) and means-tested unemployment assistance benefits (subsidio por desempleo de nivel asistencial). The former is a contributory benefit that requires a minimum of one year of contribution during the previous six years, lasts for 4 months per year of contribution (up to 24 months) and whose amount is initially 70% and then 60% of the last salary. It is not means-tested. Unemployment assistance benefits are in fact more than ten different benefits targeted at specific situations of unemployed people who are not entitled to contributory unemployment benefits. Most of them (but not all) are for people who have received and finished contributory unemployment protection. All these assistance unemployment benefits are means-tested and are usually set at 75% of the minimum legal wage. Specific requirements may include age (being over 45 or over 52, having dependent children or relatives, or being in specific socially difficult situations). This category also includes the unemployment benefit for agricultural labourers and the Renta Activa de Inserción. Unemployment assistance benefits should not be confused with regional minimum income for social integration programmes.

support, but also labour market integration support, protected employment opportunities in local authorities, and subsidies to contracts in social integration enterprises. Similar services for people with disabilities (on which the mentioned measures were inspired) are, however, run by employment services.

Third sector organisations and trade unions are quite active in the field. Third sector organisations have developed most of the labour market integration initiatives for "socially excluded" people, except the local authority temporary jobs. Trade unions are very active in training and in labour market integration support for migrants.

Figure 4: Distribution of key responsibilities in employment policy in Navarre

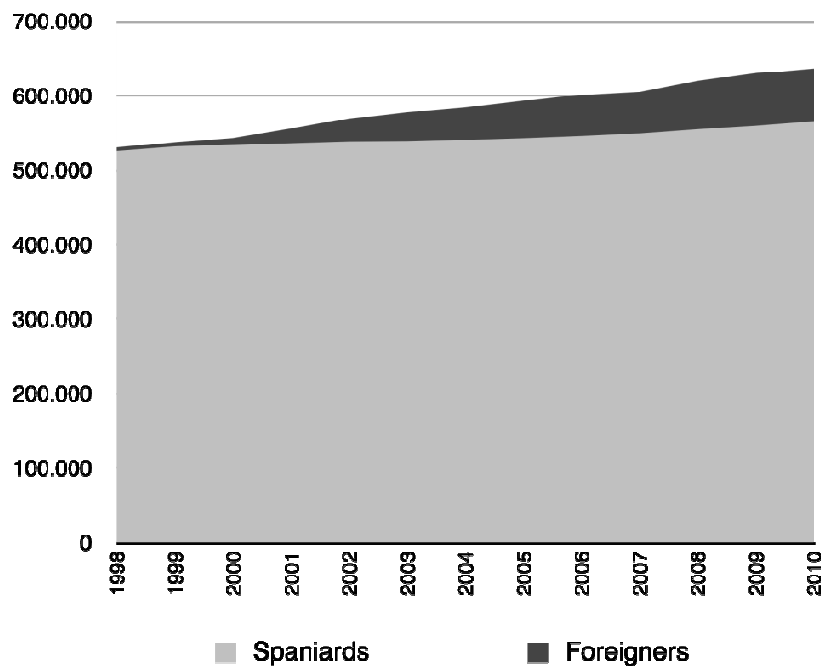


2. DEMOGRAPHIC CHANGES AND FAMILY

2.1. Socioeconomic trends

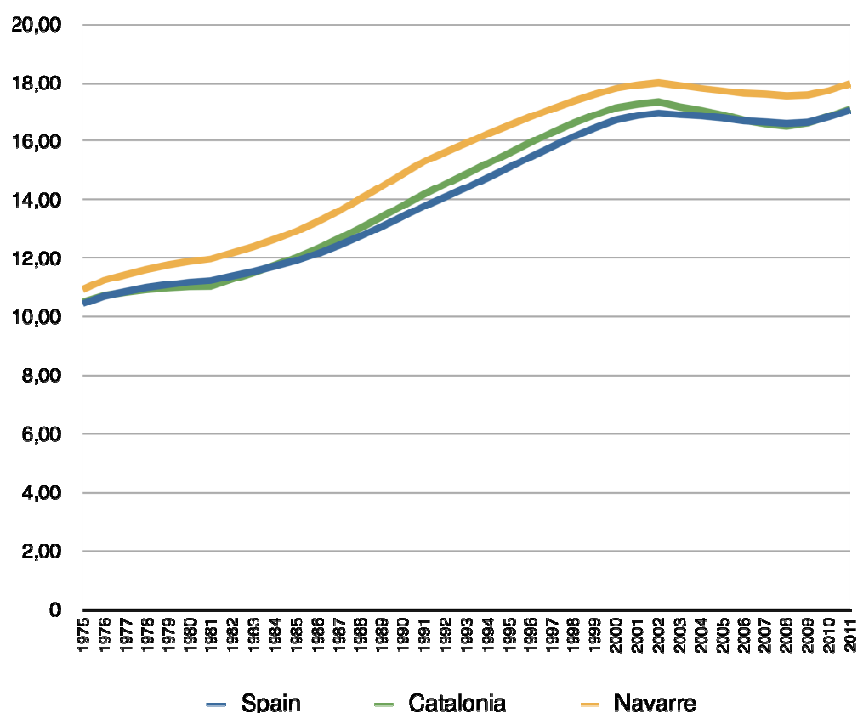
After a late baby-boom, Navarra (just as Spain as a whole) slowed down its population growth in the late seventies. By 1991, the population of Navarra had become stagnant. Starting in 1995-96, immigrants started to flow into the region, slowly until 2000, and faster since. Stagnation was a result of a very low fertility rate (1.3 children per woman), which led to a fast process of ageing. Immigration broke the trend, bringing about overall population growth, a reversal of the ageing trend and an increase in fertility, although this increase is also partially explained by young Spanish couples having better chances of getting jobs and buying an apartment.

Figure 5 - Overall population growth in Navarra 1998-2010



Source: INE

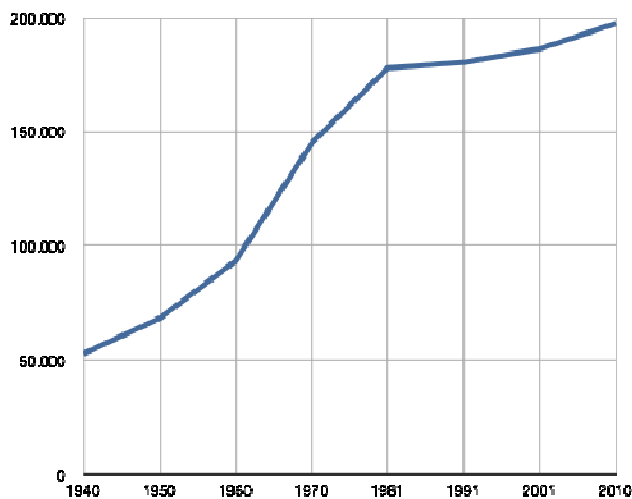
Figure 6 - Share of over 65 on the population of Spain, Navarre and Catalonia (1975-2009)



Source: INE

The population of Pamplona grew dramatically between the end of the Civil War in 1939 and 1980. Growth was especially fast between 1960 and 1980, a period during which Pamplona multiplied its population by 2.6 and grew from about 70 thousand to 180 thousand inhabitants. During the 1980s and early 1990s Pamplona didn't grow significantly, until immigration started in the mid 1990s. By 2010 it has come close to 200 thousand inhabitants.

Figure 7 - Population of Pamplona 1940-2010



Source: INE

Marriage rate has followed a downward trend in Spain (and in Catalonia and Navarre) since the 1970s. Crude marriage rate fell sharply until the early 1980s. Between 1980 and 2000 it has been more or less stable due to the double effect of delaying marriage and the arrival of Spanish baby-boomers to (late) marriage age. Since 2000 the downward trend has become clearer. Differences between Navarre and Catalonia are not significant.

The age at first marriage has grown steadily from about 27 for males and 24 for females in 1980 to 35 for males and 32 for females in 2009. Navarre is very close to the Spanish average in this respect.

Divorce rates have been growing until the beginning of the crisis in 2007. Legal changes in 2005, which allowed divorcing without previous separation, increased the number of divorces while reduced sharply those of separations. However, the aggregate crude rate of marriage breakups shows a limited impact of the legal reform and a strong impact of the crisis. In this field, Navarre shows a significantly lower rate of breakups than Catalonia or Spain as a whole.

Figure 8 - Crude marriage and breakup rates for Spain, Catalonia and Navarre 1976-2009

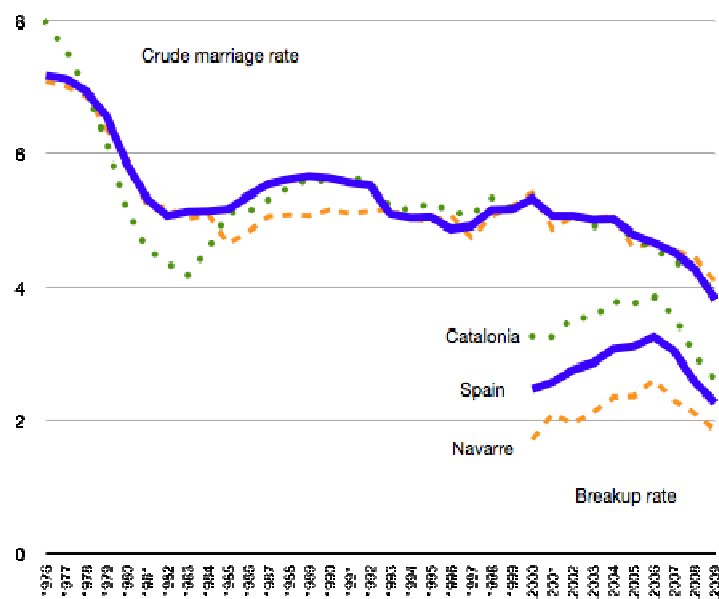
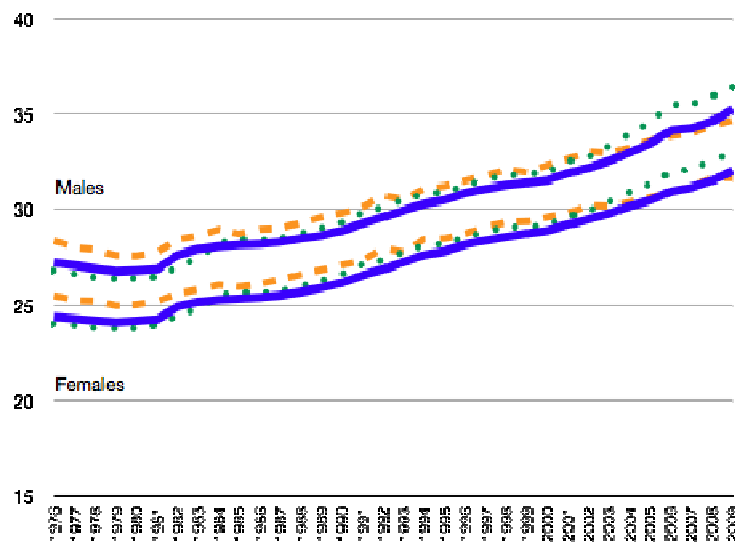


Figure 9 - Age at first marriage



Fertility rates fell dramatically in Spain and in Navarre until the mid 1990s. While the fall until the late 1970s was part of a general trend in modernising countries (the threshold of 2 children per woman was attained by 1978-1981), other factors pushed the fertility rate down to around 1.2 by the late 1990s. There has been a slight growth up to 1.4-1.5 during the last ten years.

Spain has delayed the age of first birth since the early 1980s from an average of around 28 in 1980 to around 31 since 2005. A first quick climb happened between 1980 and 2000 as part of a Malthusian response to youth unemployment first, youth employment instability afterwards and increasing housing prices for the whole period. Delaying independence from their parents and, thus delaying their first child have contributed to the decrease in fertility. The stabilisation since 2000 may have to do both with a certain increase in emancipation during the economic boom (there was much more employment and interest rates were very low) and with the increasing number of foreign mothers giving birth in Spain, at average ages some three years younger than Spaniards.

While Catalonia has been always very close to the Spanish average, Navarre has had a significantly higher age all along the period. Both regions reduced fertility faster than the Spanish average, but have also had a slightly stronger growth than the average during the last ten years.

Figure 10 - General fertility index (children per woman) in Spain, Navarre and Catalonia (1975-2009)

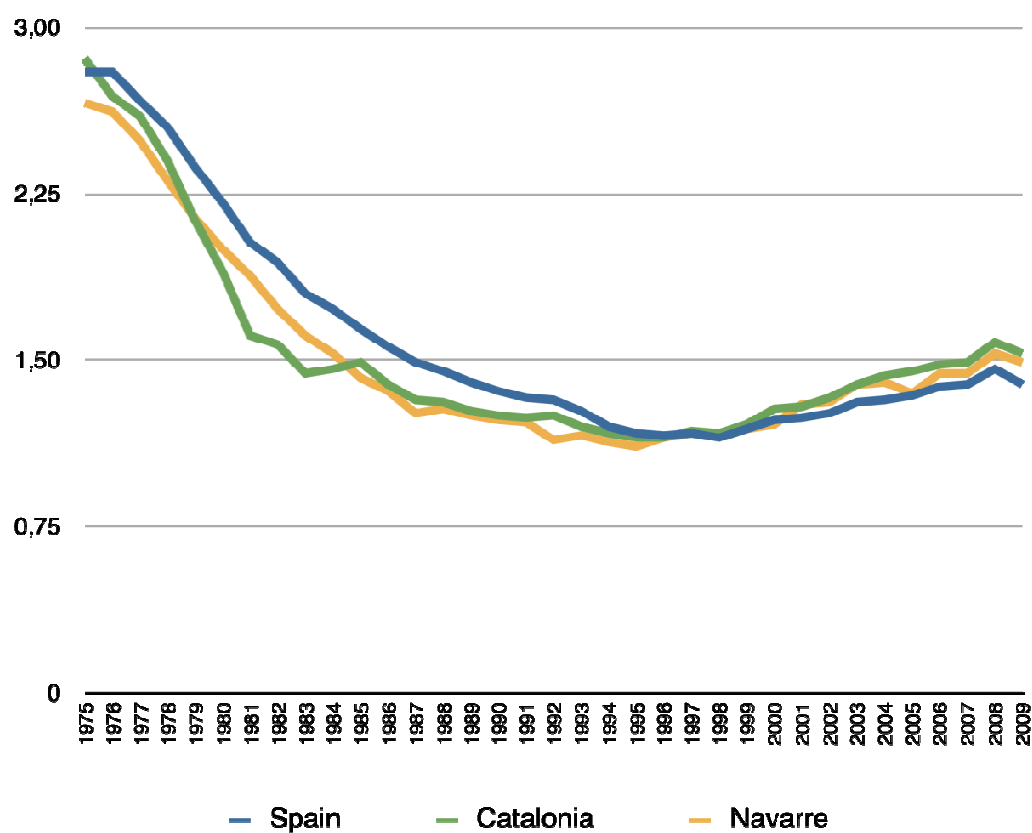
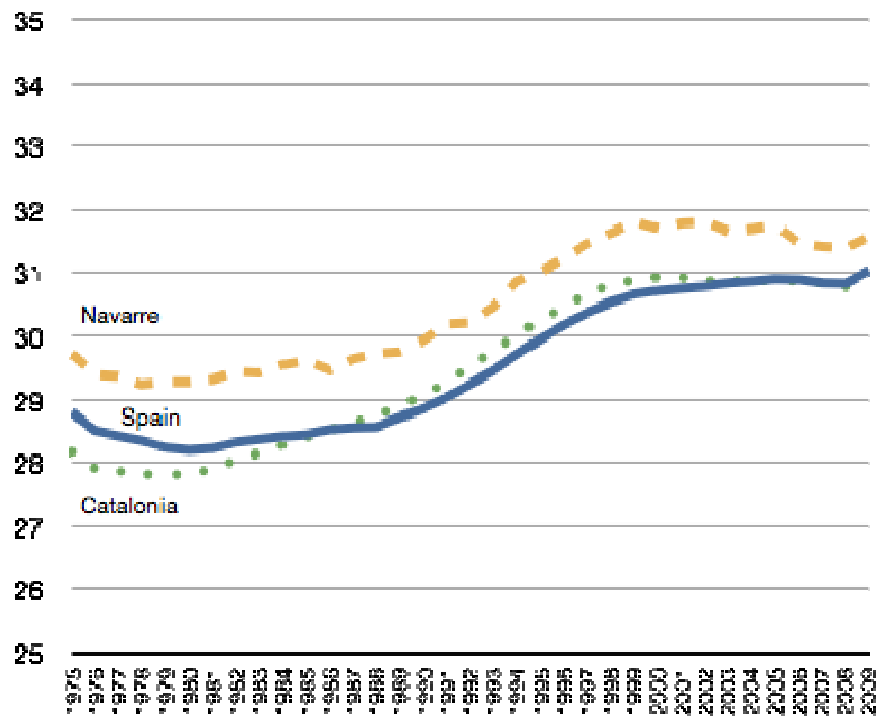


Figure 11 - Age of mothers at childbirth



The proportion of children born of unmarried mothers has been growing steadily in Spain during the last 20 years, starting from much lower levels than those of Northern Europe. By 2008, one third of children born in Spain were born of an unmarried mother (whether that means a "lone" mother or not is another question). Although this growth has happened all over Spain, Navarre has a significantly lower proportion than Catalonia and Spain as a whole.

Table 6 - Proportion of children born of unmarried mothers 2008

Spain	33.2
Catalonia	37.9
Navarre	24.7

Family structure

Detailed city level information on family structure is not available for Pamplona for recent times. The last officially published data come from the 2001 Census.

Table 7 - Households by structure 1991-2001

	Spain		Pamplona Municipality	
	1991	2001	1991	2001
Single person	13.35	20.28	13.70	21.63
Multiperson non family household	2.99	4.03	4.90	5.63
Single Nucleus households	71.52	64.47	69.85	61.95
Couple without children	16.89	17.26	13.56	15.21
Couple with children	47.76	39.13	47.87	36.70
Single mother family	5.68	6.62	7.08	8.12
Single father family	1.19	1.47	1.34	1.92
Extended households	8.96	8.23	7.86	8.44
Couple without children with other people	1.94	2.21	1.81	2.37
Couple with children with other people	5.78	4.26	5.82	4.11
Single mother family with other people	1.03	1.22	1.22	1.60
Single father family with other people	0.2	0.54	0.23	0.36
Two or more family household	3.18	3.00	2.46	2.36

Source: INE, Census

The most significant changes that may be seen during the 1990s are the increase of single person households and the reduction of couples with children. These changes are consistent with a period of low fertility: less couples with children, more couples without children (either because they have postponed having children or because children have grown, more single persons mostly connected to ageing. Single parent families show some increase, as do multiperson non family households, which may be partly connected to immigration.

The household structure in Pamplona is closer to the national average than to Barcelona. Although all data show similar patterns, the indicated trends are stronger in Barcelona.

With the available data little can be said about the number of single mothers in Navarre and their share of the whole population. The last available source with regional/provincial data is the 2001 census, that gave an estimate of some 4.270 households formed by one adult and one or more children out of a total of 188 thousand households (about 2.3%). This figure may underestimate some extended families with single parents inside.

The national Instituto de la Mujer publishes estimates based on the Labour Force Survey for Spain as a whole. These data show a steady increase in the number and proportion of single parent households.

Table 8 - Number and proportion of single parent households in Spain 2001-2010

	2001*	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Number (000)	281.2	202.2	319.8	307.2	353.3	393.3	421.4	451.5	533.8	558.3
% of all households	2.3				2.3	2.5	2.6	2.7	3.1	3.2

* Definition of single parent household is not the same for both sources

Source: INE, Instituto de la Mujer. Data for 2001 come from the Census. All other data from the Labour Force Survey.

Data offered on their occupational status is limited. According to this last source, in 2010 68.3% of single parents were employed, 19.9% were unemployed and 11.8% were not economically active. According to these figures, the unemployment rate (on the active population) was around 22.6%, just slightly higher than the average.

According to interviews with social workers carried out in Navarra in 2008 (Alter [Universidad Pública de Navarra] 2008), the main problems lone mothers (or at least lone mothers that apply for support from social services) face in the field of employment and income are:

- Difficulties to find jobs due to conflicting demands of child care and employment: services are not always available or not at the right times, employment opportunities have often time requirements that don't match their possibilities. At the same time many of these lone mothers have reduced or weak family networks, a basic resource to compensate for insufficient services.
- Many of these lone mothers have low educational levels, low professional qualifications and little work experience. This limits their opportunities in the labour market to some low paid jobs (if any) that don't allow them to earn enough to cope with their family expenses.

2.2. Public regulation

The responsibility for family benefits and services is split between several government levels.

Income support

- Cash benefits. There's no universal child benefit in Spain. The (national) Social Security system has means-tested child benefit (291€/year/child) and single payment benefits at birth or adoption in some cases (single mothers, more than three children, etc.). These are under the responsibility of the central government. Regions may establish additional benefits if they wish.
- 1.2 Income tax has deductions. The general income tax system includes a deduction from earned income for each dependent child. Responsibility for such fiscal benefits is in the hands of the central government, except in Navarra and the Basque Country, where each province may set its own deduction levels.

Paid leaves

The general system of parental leave is part of the general Social Security system and thus run by the central government. Some regions have established additional benefits for people temporarily leaving their jobs.

Child care services (day care)

The central government has regulated basic child care services as educational services (see WP2). Regions are responsible for regulating them in detail, and responsibility for the provision of services is shared between regional and local governments.

This structure of responsibilities has been basically stable during the last 10 years, except for child care services that have changed (nominally at least –see WP2).

Child care services in Navarre

- In Spain, day care services for children younger than 3 have been transitioning from a care-centred model to an educationally focused one since the 1980s. Schooling for children 3 to 6 years old, while not compulsory, has become publicly-funded and universal in practice since the end of the 1990s (WP2 p x). While the commitment to extend coverage for the so-called "first cycle" has been increasing over the last ten years, its practical development has been slower and more complex.
- In Navarre before 2000 there was a limited number of public centres run by the regional government and by the municipalities of Pamplona and three smaller towns. The centres in Pamplona were created by the municipality in the late 1970s and early 1980s with a clearly progressive educational model, while the other 8 centres (originally created by the central government's National Institute for Social Assistance) evolved from a care centred model. There was also a significant (although not well known) number of private centres either linked to private schools or independent, but very loosely regulated.
- There was a first attempt of regulation in 2001 that only affected public centres and their financing system. In 2006 responsibility for this kind of centres was handed over to the regional Department for Education, while centres run by the regional government continued to be run by the Department for Social Affairs. Present day regulation was established in 2006 (for the whole of Spain) and 2007 (for Navarre), and both public and private centres should comply to the regulation by 2011/2012. This means that public centres have to be legally "created" and private centres (with no public funding) have to be "authorised", after proving they fulfil the criteria set by the regional government. In May 2011, out of 98 existing public centres only 30 had been "created" and another 15 were pending approval; whereas out of 80 existing private centres, only 7 had been authorised and 22 were pending approval.
- All publicly run centres have common admission criteria and prices. During the forthcoming school year 2011/12, the price of a full-time (7 hour a day) seat will range between a maximum of 217 and a minimum of 37€ a month. Prices vary according to the yearly per capita taxable income of the family. The maximum price will be paid by families making more than 15.000€ per capita, while the minimum price is for families making less than 4.500€ per capita. If lunch is to be included, prices will range between 312€ and 121€. Private centres receive no public funding and parents have to pay the full cost.
- Costs not covered by parents are funded by the municipalities and the regional government, although situations are very different from one centre to another, due to differences in the administrative situation of centres (some centres are run directly by the regional government, some by municipalities, and were created under different administrative regimes) (Comptos 2011: 11).
- The number of centres and places during school year 2010/11 is shown in Table 9.

Table 9 - Number of centres and places, school year 2010-11

	Centres	Places available	Places used
Regional government	8	544	546
Municipalities	90	5,718	5,246
Private	80	3,825	3,089

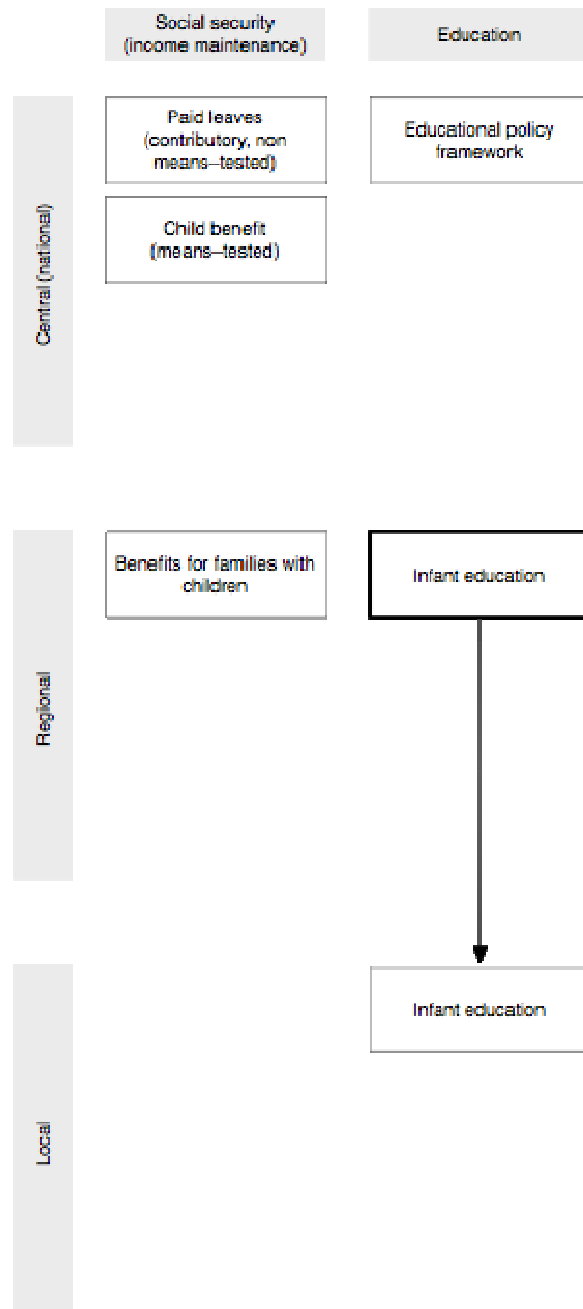
These data have some limitations. Especially data on private centres is incomplete, with figures for places coming from 74 of the eighty known centres and chances that not all private centres are known to the regional government.

There's another publicly funded programme of domestic childcare ("Casas amigas" or friendly homes), run by two non profit associations with 22 homes capable of caring for 65-70 children.

- The aggregated number of places in publicly funded centres covered slightly over 36 per cent of the number of children aged 0 to 3 in Navarre. This coverage rate, however, was lower in Pamplona (27%) and higher in some rural districts. If both public and private services are taken into account, the coverage rate is 58% for Navarre and 57% for Pamplona. Differences between areas in the region are significant, with coverage rates ranging from 72.6 to 41.5%.

Child benefits in Navarre

In addition to the aforementioned national means-tested child benefit, the regional government of Navarre has established some limited child benefits for families with children under 3 (suppressed in 2010), for families with 4 or more children, and for working parents that leave their jobs to care for children.



3. MIGRATION

3.1. Socioeconomic trends

What is the proportion of migrants and /or ethnic minority groups over the whole population of the city?

What are the most numerous ethnic minority groups in the city (consider the first 5 groups)?

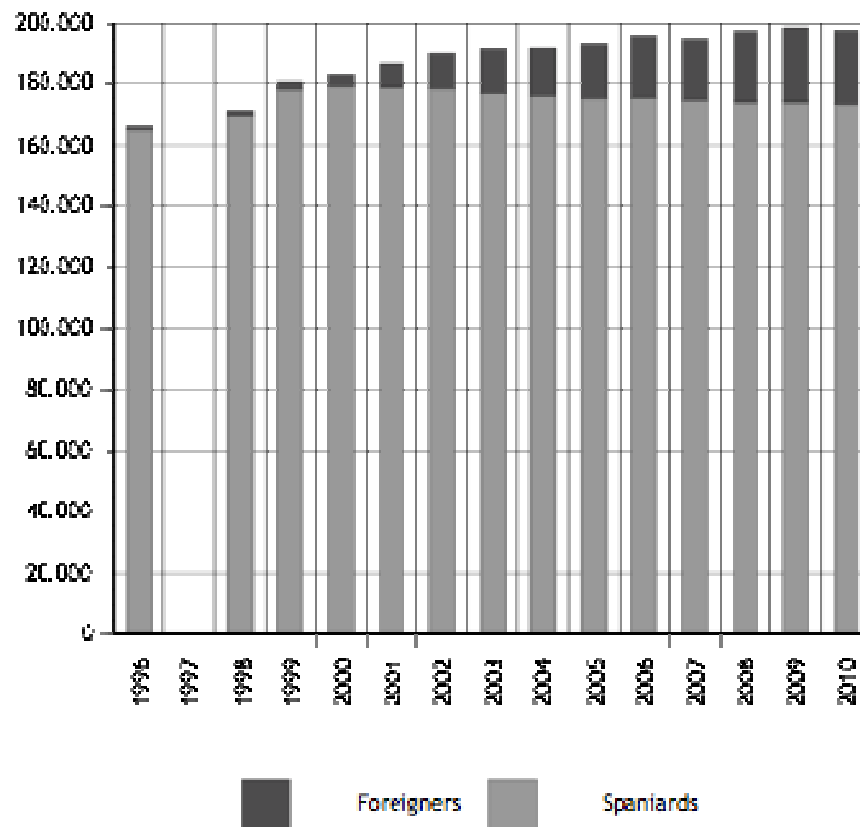
What is their composition (ethnicity and nationality/age/gender/level of education/time of immigration/religion)?

As Spain as a whole, Navarre has gone through a spectacular immigration process during the last 15 years. Until the 1950 Navarre lost population to migration to more developed regions in Spain. Industrial development brought some migrants from other Spanish regions during the 1960s and 1970s, although never at the massive scale known by Catalonia, the Basque Country or Madrid. Then during the 1990s foreign migrants started flowing in, first to work in agriculture as labourers, then moving into the booming construction sector, industry and services. More than one tenth (11.6% in 2009) of the population of Navarre are foreigners (Laparra 2010) (slightly less than the national average), and 7.6% are foreigners from outside the European Union (slightly more than the national average). Estimates for 2009 were that almost 90% of all foreigners had a residence permit and that 12 to 15% of non EU citizens were in irregular situations.

In Pamplona (data for 2010), of a total population of 198,000 inhabitants, some 25,000 (12.3 percent) were foreigners (i.e., did not have Spanish nationality).³ People with 128 different nationalities can be found in Pamplona. 5.3 percent of the population were Latin Americans, especially from Ecuador, Bolivia, Colombia and Perú (these four countries accounted for 7,522 people). The second largest group was made of European Union members, most of them from Bulgaria (the first foreign nationality group in the city) and Romania (5,247 people from these two countries). Other significant groups are Maghrebians and people from the rest of Africa (about 1,700 each), and Asians (about one thousand).

³ People with Spanish nationality are not foreigners, regardless of whether they have another nationality or not.

Figure 12 - National and foreign population of Pamplona (1996-2010)



The foreign population in Pamplona is made almost half and half of men and women. There are significantly more men than women amongst Moroccans and Algerians (most of which live in Southern Navarre, outside Pamplona). There are slightly more men than women amongst Equatorians, Romanians and Bulgarians, and slightly more women than men amongst Colombians, Bolivians, Peruvians and Brazilians.

The large majority (about 84%) are aged 16 to 64, with a growing number of children and very few elderly people. Estimates for 2008 were of 31.4% of foreigners between 16 and 29, and 38.7% between 30 and 44.

Table 10 - Foreign inhabitants of Pamplona by gender and age group (2010)

	Inhabitants	%
All foreigners	24,251	100
Men	12,596	51.9
Women	11,665	48.1
Younger than 16	3,465	14.3
16 to 64	20,441	84.3
Over 65	345	1.4

Source: INE, Padrón de habitantes.

Family regrouping has been important during the last few years, and there's a growing number of mixed marriages (in 2009 one in every five marriages in Navarre) (Observatorio Permanente de la Inmigración en Navarra 2011). Almost 20% of the children born in Navarre in 2009 were born to foreign mothers. The total fertility rate for Spaniards in Navarre was 1.3, while for foreign mothers it was 2.3.

If we look just at the municipality of Pamplona (the core of the real city and about two-thirds of its population), the proportion of foreigners was around 12.3 per cent (January 2010). An analysis by census tracts (138 in Pamplona) shows that the highest proportion is around 30%. 10 tracts had more than 20%, and 65 were above the average. No tract had no foreigners and only 12 had less than 5%. So there is certainly a pattern of distribution according to housing prices, but it wouldn't be fair to talk about ghettos.

During its first years (up to 2004) immigration in Spain was largely based on an "irregular" model. Coming legally to live in Spain was (and still is) quite difficult. Coming legally as a tourist and staying irregularly after the first three months was, and still is, quite easy. The result was the growth of a population that lived in an irregular situation, mainly because they could easily work without a permit (at least in agriculture, domestic services and so on). Every few years, part of this population went through an *amnesty* process and obtained a residence permit, making them move on to legal jobs. Although Navarre was no exception to this model, a more pragmatic local policy of "legalisation" kept the proportion of irregular immigrants below the national average.

Since 2003 the proportion of irregular residents in Navarre has decreased from one-half (Laparra Navarro *et al.* 2004) to 10-15% (Laparra 2010). This is due partly to a more flexible legalisation policy and to the fact that Romanians and Bulgarians have become members of the EU.

This decrease in irregular situations has led to a decrease in irregular jobs. In 2008, 85.6% of the employed foreigners has a "regular" job and 14.4 had a "black economy" job. Most of these irregular jobs were held by foreigners without a work permit (Laparra Navarro *et al.* 2009). There has been (in Navarre) a limited process of upward job mobility. Starting from very low paid precarious jobs, many immigrants have been able to move into legal, better paid and more stable jobs, although not all the way up.

At the same time, a significant number of immigrants have acquired Spanish citizenship. In Navarre, between 2002 and 2010, some 13,000 people were naturalised.

Most immigrants wish to stay permanently. School integration of children has been quite successful (parent satisfaction is very high) although the cost (in terms of larger workload and adaptation problems) may have been significant in some schools. All residents in Spain, regardless of their legal situation, are entitled to both compulsory education and health care.

In Navarre, housing was one of the difficult issues at the beginning of the process. In 2003, many immigrants felt housing was the (only) field in which their situation was worse than in their country of origin. Anyhow, they seem to have been able to get into part of the empty housing (usually not the best quality) and into part of the housing released by middle class families moving into better apartments during the boom.

What may come out as a result of the employment crisis is hard to predict. A substantial part of the economic base for immigration is gone. Migrants fare worse in most employment indicators. Less migrants are coming to Spain, and some are leaving. Moreover, the fact that losing your job may make you lose your residence permit is turning back some migrants into irregularity, and that may be a setback in the integration process.

3.2. Public regulation

The central government is responsible for the regulation of the situation of foreigners in Spain. The regulation of immigration, of the conditions to stay in Spain, and of access to residence and/or work permits and to nationality is fully in the hands of the central authorities.

Regional and local authorities are not explicitly responsible for the "integration" of immigrants, but such "integration" is considered a result of educational, health, employment and social services policies, a large part of which are in the hands of regions and local authorities (Ministerio de Trabajo y Asuntos Sociales 2007). Most regions have established regional social integration plans that specify measures in this field, and the central government has established a mechanism to fund social integration actions at the local and regional levels. Navarre was one of the first regions to establish a regional plan in 2001 (Navarra 2002).

Third sector organisations have an important role, especially in offering social support to migrants. During the first years of the immigration process and since most newcomers were in irregular situations, public social services were reluctant to offer direct support. Third sector organisations, such as ANAFE (linked to one of the trade unions, Comisiones Obreras), Caritas (Catholic church), another trade union (UGT) and the Red Cross took a leading role in developing support services (legal advice, teaching the language, vocational training). Public authorities started to support these efforts as an indirect way of offering services to migrants. This model is now well established and stable agreements exist between regional authorities and third sector organisations. At the same time, public services have become more open, at least in the fields of education and health care, since access to these services is open to any resident foreigner, regardless of his or her legal situation.

Aside from legal advice, most of the welfare programmes that address the needs of migrants are general programmes. Only some targeted actions may be found in fields such as vocational training.

4. TRENDS IN THE HOUSING FIELD

4.1. Socioeconomic trends

Housing in Spain is marked by two outstanding features: its reliance on the market (i.e., public intervention is mostly conceived as market regulation, rather than direct supply) and its orientation towards ownership (Trilla and López 2005; Aguilar Hendrickson *et al.*

2011). The tenure model seems to be quite stable in Spain as a whole: 82.1% of households owned their home in the 2001 Census, and the same percentage appears in the 2009 SILC. Although both sources are not exactly the same, there seems to be a remarkable stability. Slightly more than 11% of households lived in rented homes.

Table 11 - Housing tenure in Spain, Barcelona and Pamplona 2001-2009

		2001	2009
Spain	Ownership	82.1	82.1
	Rent	11.4	11.5
Navarre	Ownership	87.6	90.1
	Rent	7.7	7.8
Pamplona	Ownership	85.2	n.a.
	Rent	10.7	n.a.

Source: INE, Census 2001 and ECV (SILC) 2009

Pamplona was below the Spanish average in rented homes (10.7%), and although no data are available for the city in 2009, regional data suggest a reduction in rental and a slight increase in ownership (90.1% for the region in 2009).

Estimating the real cost of access to housing is not easy. Price is a relevant indicator, but it has to be seen in relation to wage levels and financing costs. A simple ratio between average non subsidized housing prices and average wages shows a growth from 4 and a half years of salary in 1988 to more than 6 years (1991-1992), a reduction to about 4 and a half years in 1996, and a new period of growth until the crisis. If financial costs are taken into account, the picture is slightly different. Interest rates were absurdly high in the 1980s and early 1990s in Spain, and equally absurdly low during the early 2000s. If the household effort is measured in terms of the percentage of the average income, between 1988 and 1994 the cost of access was above 50%. Then it went down to close to a reasonable 30% between 1995 and 1999, and then began to increase again, due to the growth in prices (for household income was growing and interest rates were very low) (Trilla and López 2005). Average prices grew at yearly rates of more than 10% between 2000 and 2006, with a yearly peak of 18.4% in 2004. This has led to a larger access to housing during the period 2000-2007, at the cost of a huge endebtmnt of households that are buying a home.

These indicators were somewhat better for Navarre. With data for 2003, the average market price and the maximum tolerable price for a household were quite close for the region as a whole. Pamplona must have been worse (prices are significantly higher than the regional average). But the situation was far better than the unaffordable prices in Madrid or Catalonia.

Table 12 - Average price (€/sq meter) of non subsidized housing 2005-2010

	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Spain	1,761.0	1,944.3	2,056.4	2,071.1	1,917.0	1,843.0
Pamplona	2,513.1	2,678.2	2,759.0	2,593.4	2,351.2	2,115.6

Source: INE, Ministerio de Fomento.

This situation has acted as a barrier to access for a significant part of those who try to set up a new household (mainly young couples and immigrants). For the majority of households who already own a home (more than 80%) and especially for those who have already paid it (about 60%) the increase of prices actually increased the value of their property and has been used in many cases to obtain cheap bank loans (another factor that explains the huge private debt in Spain). So it has "benefited" owners and blocked many people that wished

to become owners. That has led to immigrants relying much more than Spaniards on rental and to many young couples to opt between staying with their parents or incurring in huge debts.

4.2. Public regulation

Housing policy is nominally an "exclusive" responsibility of regions. But the central government has been able to set a basic framework, due to two main factors. On the one hand, construction is a central part of economic activity, and the central government is responsible for general economic policy. On the other, the main instrument of housing policy until 2011 has been a series of tax deductions for buyers of private homes. Fiscal policy is basically national, but Navarre has an independent system. So basic housing policy guidelines are set by the central government, but regions have significant leeway to set their own policies.

Navarre passed during the period two main laws on housing, in 2004 and in 2010. As elsewhere in Spain, housing policy is based on the concept of "protected" housing or, to be more precise, "protectable actions" in the field of housing. These actions may be funded by public authorities. One of such "actions" is the promotion of housing for sale or for rent.

Until the 1980s, "officially protected housing" (VPO) was divided in two categories: public protected housing was developed by public agencies and sold or rented to very low income families, whereas private protected housing was developed by private developers and usually bought by families with medium-low income. Since the 1980s concepts changed, and a single overall category of protected housing was established (VPO) but divided into two categories named "general" and "special". The distinction between public and private development was thus blurred in the new regulation.

The 2004 Navarrese regional law on housing set the following types of protected housing:

- Special protected housing, available to households with equivalent income below 2.5 times the minimum salary.
- General protected housing, available to households with equivalent income below 5.5 times the minimum salary, although 60% of this kind of housing should be reserved for people with income below 2.5 times the minimum salary.
- Limited price housing (VPT), available to households with equivalent income below 7.5 times the minimum salary.
- Agreed price housing (VPP), available to households with equivalent income below 7.5 times the minimum salary, but with prices higher than the previous.

Finally, "free" or unsubsidised housing gets no official protection and is freely sold in the market.

This regulation was aimed at opening up official protection to higher priced housing for people with higher income, and at the same time at giving priority to lower income households in protected housing. Nevertheless, most protected housing is for sale, and people with really low income can only afford public rental housing, a part of category a).

The 2010 law simplifies the classification of protected housing down to two categories:

- Protected housing, available to households with equivalent income below 4.5 times the IPREM⁴
- Limited price housing, available to households making less than 6.5 times the IPREM.

Officially published statistics give an incomplete picture of the evolution of different types of housing in Navarra.

Figure 13 - New housed (started and finished) per type in Navarra 2002-2010

Started									
	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
VPO	1,006	2,034	1,850	2,230	1,860	567	1,916	937	1,376
VPT	210	837	820	1,377	1,126	330	953	294	397
VPP						149	60	217	0
Unsubsidised	5,554	6,642	6,742	6,583	7,664	5,980	3,140	1,038	1,255
Total	6,770	9,513	9,412	10,190	10,650	7,026	6,069	2,486	3,028
Finished									
	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
VPO	1,342	731	473	1,855	1,896	1,176	2,014	1,724	1,019
VPT	48	207	172	356	933	848	1,009	1,287	359
VPP									205
Unsubsidised	4,424	4,245	4,782	4,477	6,230	6,047	5,812	3,872	1,738
Total	5,814	5,183	5,427	6,688	9,059	8,071	8,835	6,883	3,321

The public housing company (VINSa) runs a programme that allows owners that wish to rent their apartments with better guarantees to do it through the company. Owners get a lower price, but the public company covers management costs and whatever problems may appear.

Local authorities may act as housing developers, but above all have full responsibility for urban planning and zoning, which affects both the availability of housing and the price of land. The municipality of Pamplona has a stable agreement on housing policy with the regional government.

Since the 1990s, some third sector organisations started some limited programmes of protected access to housing for "socially excluded" people. This initiative was integrated into regional housing policy by means of a special programme, called "social integration housing". Third sector organisations agree every year with the regional government to buy some homes that they may rent or sell to people as part of a social integration process. The regional government set up a special "housing integration team" which is run by an NGO, to give social support in such cases.

⁴ The IPREM is an officially established amount of money that acts as a reference for many public benefits in Spain. Most of such benefits used to be linked to the SMI (Salario Mínimo Interprofesional) until 2004, when the government created the IPREM so the SMI could grow faster as a minimum salary without affecting the amount of benefits. In 2011, the IPREM (532.51€/month) was 83% of the SMI (641.40€/month).

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TABLES

Table 13 - Data for Figure 5. Population of Navarre 1998-2010

	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Foreigners	4,313	5,971	9,188	19,497	30,686	38,741	43,376	49,882	55,444	55,921	65,045	70,627	71,369
Spaniards	526,506	532,038	534,569	536,766	538,942	539,469	541,358	543,590	546,430	549,955	555,332	559,951	565,555
Total	530,819	538,009	543,757	556,263	569,628	578,210	584,734	593,472	601,874	605,876	620,377	630,578	636,924

Table 14 - Data for Figure 6. Share (%) of people over 65 on the population of Spain, Catalonia and Navarre 1975-2011

	Navarre	Spain	Catalonia
1975	10.93	10.45	10.51
1976	11.25	10.71	10.73
1977	11.44	10.86	10.84
1978	11.62	11.00	10.93
1979	11.77	11.10	10.99
1980	11.89	11.19	11.03
1981	11.98	11.24	11.04
1982	12.19	11.40	11.28
1983	12.40	11.55	11.51
1984	12.65	11.73	11.76
1985	12.92	11.92	12.03
1986	13.25	12.16	12.33
1987	13.61	12.44	12.67
1988	14.03	12.75	13.03
1989	14.45	13.08	13.41
1990	14.88	13.43	13.80
1991	15.31	13.78	14.19
1992	15.63	14.10	14.54
1993	15.94	14.42	14.89
1994	16.26	14.76	15.25
1995	16.55	15.11	15.60
1996	16.84	15.47	15.96
1997	17.11	15.81	16.30
1998	17.37	16.16	16.62
1999	17.60	16.46	16.90
2000	17.81	16.73	17.15
2001	17.93	16.88	17.27
2002	18.01	16.97	17.35
2003	17.91	16.91	17.18
2004	17.81	16.87	17.06
2005	17.73	16.80	16.91
2006	17.64	16.70	16.72
2007	17.61	16.66	16.60
2008	17.55	16.61	16.52
2009	17.58	16.65	16.63
2010	17.74	16.84	16.86
2011	17.98	17.07	17.11

Table 15 - Data for Figure 7. Population of Pamplona (municipality 1949-2010)

Year	Inhabitants
1940	52,743
1950	68,288
1960	93,429
1970	145,026
1981	177,906
1991	180,372
2001	186,245
2010	197,488

Table 16 - Data for Figure 8. Crude marriage and breakup rates for Spain, Catalonia and Navarre -2009)

	Crude marriage rate			Breakup rate		
	Spain	Catalonia	Navarre	Spain	Catalonia	Navarre
1976	7.18	7.98	7.09			
1977	7.13	7.56	7.01			
1978	6.94	6.97	6.88			
1979	6.57	6.18	6.39			
1980	5.86	5.17	5.94			
1981	5.33	4.57	5.22			
1982	5.07	4.36	5.21			
1983	5.13	4.18	5.01			
1984	5.14	4.56	5.10			
1985	5.17	5.12	4.66			
1986	5.37	5.13	4.83			
1987	5.55	5.32	5.06			
1988	5.62	5.49	5.08			
1989	5.67	5.62	5.07			
1990	5.64	5.57	5.16			
1991	5.57	5.66	5.11			
1992	5.53	5.57	5.14			
1993	5.10	5.21	5.17			
1994	5.04	5.16	5.03			
1995	5.05	5.27	4.98			
1996	4.87	5.13	5.07			
1997	4.92	5.08	4.75			
1998	5.16	5.34	5.06			
1999	5.17	5.19	5.22			
2000	5.33	5.32	5.41	2.46	3.27	1.72
2001	5.07	5.05	4.87	2.57	3.26	2.09
2002	5.07	5.07	5.05	2.76	3.53	1.95
2003	5.01	4.91	5.04	2.86	3.54	2.12
2004	5.02	4.99	5.06	3.07	3.79	2.35
2005	4.79	4.73	4.59	3.11	3.76	2.36
2006	4.67	4.58	4.67	3.26	3.85	2.6
2007	4.52	4.37	4.55	3.04	3.57	2.3
2008	4.28	4.31	4.45	2.58	2.98	2.11
2009	3.82	3.90	4.09	2.27	2.61	1.85

Table 17 - Data for Figure 9. Age at first marriage

	Spain Male	Spain Female	Catalonia Male	Catalonia Female	Navarre Male	Navarre Female
1976	27.23	24.38	26.81	24.01	28.36	25.49
1977	27.08	24.28	26.63	23.93	28.00	25.23
1978	26.92	24.17	26.45	23.79	27.90	25.21
1979	26.76	24.08	26.38	23.76	27.60	24.95
1980	26.81	24.15	26.41	23.77	27.57	25.01
1981	26.89	24.25	26.48	23.95	27.77	25.20
1982	27.62	24.91	26.98	24.45	28.44	25.61
1983	27.92	25.15	27.46	24.79	28.62	25.80
1984	28.08	25.28	28.25	25.50	28.97	26.06
1985	28.16	25.33	28.45	25.66	28.72	25.96
1986	28.20	25.39	28.39	25.63	28.98	26.10
1987	28.29	25.49	28.48	25.71	29.02	26.34
1988	28.49	25.69	28.76	26.00	29.31	26.61
1989	28.64	25.90	29.02	26.25	29.60	26.84
1990	28.90	26.17	29.32	26.64	29.83	27.10
1991	29.28	26.56	29.85	27.12	30.13	27.33
1992	29.60	26.87	30.11	27.34	30.75	27.96
1993	29.97	27.26	30.54	27.81	30.53	27.76
1994	30.30	27.61	30.80	28.11	31.09	28.44
1995	30.52	27.82	30.93	28.21	31.23	28.49
1996	30.86	28.17	31.23	28.54	31.53	28.74
1997	31.10	28.38	31.61	28.85	31.80	29.09
1998	31.28	28.58	31.79	29.10	32.11	29.35
1999	31.41	28.74	31.88	29.06	31.98	29.38
2000	31.55	28.90	31.97	29.21	32.33	29.60
2001	31.92	29.22	32.52	29.63	32.66	29.83
2002	32.19	29.50	32.76	29.95	33.05	30.22
2003	32.54	29.79	33.34	30.39	32.97	30.18
2004	33.01	30.19	33.99	30.93	33.26	30.40
2005	33.47	30.49	34.59	31.34	33.62	30.64
2006	34.15	30.95	35.50	31.98	33.86	30.92
2007	34.27	31.16	35.51	32.13	33.99	31.22
2008	34.63	31.53	35.95	32.55	34.40	31.66
2009	35.27	32.06	36.43	33.01	34.69	31.65

Table 18 - Data for Figure 10. General fertility index (children per woman) in Spain, Navarre and Catalonia (1975-2009)

	Spain	Catalonia	Navarre
1975	2.8	2.86	2.66
1976	2.8	2.69	2.62
1977	2.67	2.6	2.49
1978	2.55	2.4	2.31
1979	2.37	2.13	2.14
1980	2.21	1.9	2
1981	2.03	1.61	1.88
1982	1.94	1.57	1.73
1983	1.8	1.44	1.61
1984	1.73	1.46	1.53
1985	1.64	1.49	1.42
1986	1.56	1.39	1.36
1987	1.49	1.32	1.26
1988	1.45	1.31	1.28
1989	1.4	1.27	1.25
1990	1.36	1.25	1.23
1991	1.33	1.24	1.22
1992	1.32	1.25	1.14
1993	1.27	1.2	1.16
1994	1.2	1.17	1.13
1995	1.17	1.15	1.11
1996	1.16	1.15	1.15
1997	1.17	1.18	1.17
1998	1.15	1.17	1.16
1999	1.19	1.21	1.19
2000	1.23	1.28	1.21
2001	1.24	1.29	1.3
2002	1.26	1.33	1.31
2003	1.31	1.39	1.39
2004	1.32	1.43	1.4
2005	1.34	1.45	1.35
2006	1.38	1.48	1.44
2007	1.39	1.49	1.44
2008	1.46	1.58	1.53
2009	1.39	1.53	1.49

Table 19 - Data for Figure 11. Age of mothers at childbirth

	Spain	Catalonia	Navarre
1975	28,80	28,17	29,73
1976	28,51	27,91	29,39
1977	28,43	27,87	29,37
1978	28,35	27,83	29,24
1979	28,24	27,80	29,28
1980	28,20	27,84	29,28
1981	28,23	27,89	29,32
1982	28,32	28,05	29,44
1983	28,37	28,15	29,42
1984	28,42	28,28	29,55
1985	28,45	28,41	29,62
1986	28,53	28,52	29,46
1987	28,56	28,64	29,64
1988	28,57	28,73	29,73
1989	28,72	28,91	29,76
1990	28,86	29,07	29,94
1991	29,04	29,29	30,20
1992	29,25	29,52	30,22
1993	29,46	29,78	30,47
1994	29,72	30,01	30,87
1995	29,96	30,28	31,03
1996	30,19	30,46	31,24
1997	30,38	30,69	31,47
1998	30,54	30,81	31,63
1999	30,66	30,89	31,81
2000	30,72	30,94	31,70
2001	30,76	30,93	31,79
2002	30,79	30,87	31,81
2003	30,84	30,90	31,65
2004	30,87	30,84	31,69
2005	30,91	30,92	31,75
2006	30,90	30,86	31,46
2007	30,84	30,84	31,41
2008	30,83	30,78	31,39
2009	31,05	30,96	31,58

Table 20 - Data for figure 12. National and foreign population of Pamplona (1996-2010)

Pamplona/Iruña	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Total	166,279	NA	171,150	180,483	182,666	186,245	189,364	190,937	191,865	193,328	195,769	194,894	197,275	198,491	197,488
Spaniards	165,033	NA	169,498	178,078	179,059	178,735	178,213	176,768	176,007	175,023	175,249	174,545	173,932	173,920	173,237
Foreigners	1,246	NA	1,652	2,405	3,607	7,510	11,151	14,169	15,858	18,305	20,520	20,349	23,343	24,571	24,251
Total	100.0	NA	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Spaniards	99.3	NA	99.0	98.7	98.0	96.0	94.1	92.6	91.7	90.5	89.5	89.6	88.2	87.6	87.7
Foreigners	0.7	NA	1.0	1.3	2.0	4.0	5.9	7.4	8.3	9.5	10.5	10.4	11.8	12.4	12.3

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THE WILCO PROJECT

Full title: Welfare innovations at the local level in favour of cohesion

Acronym: WILCO

Duration: 36 months (2010-2013)

Project's website: <http://www.wilcoproject.eu>

Project's objective and mission:

WILCO aims to examine, through cross-national comparative research, how local welfare systems affect social inequalities and how they favour social cohesion, with a special focus on the missing link between innovations at the local level and their successful transfer to and implementation in other settings. The results will be directly connected to the needs of practitioners, through strong interaction with stakeholders and urban policy recommendations. In doing so, we will connect issues of immediate practical relevance with state-of-the-art academic research on how approaches and instruments in local welfare function in practice.

Brief description:

The effort to strengthen social cohesion and lower social inequalities is among Europe's main policy challenges. Local welfare systems are at the forefront of the struggle to address this challenge - and they are far from winning. While the statistics show some positive signs, the overall picture still shows sharp and sometimes rising inequalities, a loss of social cohesion and failing policies of integration.

But, contrary to what is sometimes thought, a lack of bottom-up innovation is not the issue in itself. European cities are teeming with new ideas, initiated by citizens, professionals and policymakers. The problem is, rather, that innovations taking place in the city are not effectively disseminated because they are not sufficiently understood. Many innovations are not picked up, because their relevance is not recognised; others fail after they have been reproduced elsewhere, because they were not suitable to the different conditions, in another city, in another country.

In the framework of WILCO, innovation in cities is explored, not as a disconnected phenomenon, but as an element in a tradition of welfare that is part of particular socio-economic models and the result of specific national and local cultures. Contextualising innovations in local welfare will allow a more effective understanding of how they could work in other cities, for the benefit of other citizens.