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# Urban environmental challenges in developing countries—A stakeholder perspective

Raed Fawzi Mohammed Ameen<sup>a,b,c</sup>, Monjur Mourshed<sup>a,c</sup>

<sup>a</sup> BRE Centre for Sustainable Construction, Cardiff University, School of Engineering, The Parade, Cardiff CF24 3AA, United Kingdom.

<sup>b</sup> Department of Architecture, College of Engineering, Karbala University, Iraq

<sup>c</sup> E-mail addresses: [raedf.ameen@yahoo.com](mailto:raedf.ameen@yahoo.com), [MohammedAmeenRF@cardiff.ac.uk](mailto:MohammedAmeenRF@cardiff.ac.uk) (RFM Ameen), and [MourshedM@cardiff.ac.uk](mailto:MourshedM@cardiff.ac.uk) (M Mourshed)

## Abstract

Developing countries face significant urban environmental challenges due to rapid urbanization, population growth, inability to effectively tackle climate and environmental risks, inefficient governance and environmental management, the prevalence of corruption and a chronic shortage of investment. Environmental degradation is often acute in politically unstable countries such as Iraq. Several post-war urban development and regeneration projects are currently underway in Iraq, but without evident participation from the wider public in decision-making. This study investigated stakeholders' perception of urban environmental challenges—their level of importance and priority in the Iraqi context. A nationwide survey ( $n=643$ ) was conducted using a 25-item structured questionnaire where respondents' views were gathered on a 5-point Likert-type scale, in addition to demographic information. Principal component analysis (PCA) and statistical tests were applied to investigate the relationship between the perceptions of urban environmental challenges and demographic factors. Five principal components were identified, namely: water, waste, and materials; environmental impact; natural hazard; personal mobility; and transport. The results showed that about 70% of the respondents considered 'water conservation' as the most important urban environmental challenge, followed by 'increase choice of transport modes'. 67.2% of the respondents rated 'efficient infrastructure and utilities' as a very important factor, and was ranked the third. All demographic characteristics except location showed statistically significant differences in perception. The relatively high importance placed by the respondents on infrastructure related items such as water, transport and utilities demonstrate a possible link between the perceptions and: (a) the citizens' day to day experience and hardship, and (b) the lack of adequate infrastructure and service provisions in Iraq, due to political instability in the recent decades.

**Keywords:** Urban sustainability, Urban environmental challenges, Public participation in development, Stakeholder perception

# 1 Introduction

2 Cities are engines of economic prosperity and social development (Mourshed et al. 2016). However,  
3 urban environmental challenges have become a pressing global issue due to the undesirable impacts  
4 on the environment caused by rapid urbanization (Komeily & Srinivasan, 2015), the use of non-  
5 renewable resources, and pollution (Ameen et al., 2015). Cities are growing, both in terms of both  
6 population and geographical spread, and have become the key determinant of environmental quality  
7 at local, regional and global scales. According to the United Nations Department of Economic and  
8 Social Affairs, in 2010, the global urban population had reached 3.5 billion, which is predicted to  
9 double by 2050 (UNDESA, 2010). Urban development factors such as land use changes, energy  
10 consumption and associated greenhouse gas emissions, water consumption and availability, waste  
11 generation and recycling, pollution, sanitation, and infrastructure are likely to become more  
12 challenging (Clarke & Ramalingam, 2012). In addition, local and global factors such as natural  
13 disasters, wars, corruption, and economic downturn can exacerbate the situation (Smith, 2013).

14 Cities in developing countries have been affected by unprecedented population growth and rapid  
15 urbanization (Wei & Ye, 2014), and most have transformed into a source of negative environmental  
16 impacts and a driver for the rapid depletion of natural resources. The scale of the challenge is such  
17 that some authors have gone as far as to label these factors uncontrollable and unpredictable, now  
18 and in the future (Rana, 2010). Furthermore, past research on urban development focused mostly on  
19 meeting the demands of policy-makers and planners without adequately addressing stakeholders'  
20 perceptions and their aspirations. Identifying urban environmental challenges is, therefore,  
21 important, especially from a stakeholder perspective, so that effective and widely-acceptable  
22 solutions and policies can be developed based on local priorities, which are often different from the  
23 global ones (Ameen et al., 2016).

24 The aspiration to create a globally applicable understanding of urban challenges can be seen in the  
25 development of urban sustainability assessment methods such as CASBEE-UD<sup>1</sup>, LEED-ND<sup>2</sup>, and  
26 BREEAM<sup>3</sup> Communities. Despite their adoption in many countries, global sustainability assessment  
27 tools have been found to be limited in the developing context (Ameen et al., 2015), which is  
28 characterised by different socio-economic trajectories than those found in the developed countries.  
29 Moreover, the existing sustainability assessment tools primarily focus on minimising resource  
30 consumption (e.g. energy, water, and materials) and often disregard the overarching sustainability  
31 goals such as healthy environment, and social cohesion and capital. The understanding of the  
32 country-specific contexts is, therefore, essential for achieving sustainable urban development  
33 (Kadhim et al. 2016) and should begin with the identification of the local urban challenges and their

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<sup>1</sup> CASBEE (Comprehensive Assessment System for Built Environment Efficiency). <http://ibec.or.jp>

<sup>2</sup> LEED-ND (Leadership in Energy and Environment Design—Neighborhood Development). <http://gbci.org>

<sup>3</sup> BREEAM (Building Research Establishment Environmental Assessment Method). <http://breem.com>

1 deviations from the global, especially in the high-density cities in developing countries that face  
2 significant environmental challenges of varying magnitude.

3 Realising the gap in the literature, this research investigated stakeholders' views on urban  
4 environmental challenges in Iraqi cities with a view to identify their importance and priorities for  
5 implementation.

6 The rest of the paper is organised as follows. Urban environmental challenges in Iraq and other  
7 similar developing countries are reviewed next; the outcome is a list of key environmental indicators  
8 on which the respondents' views are gathered. The development of the questionnaire is illustrated  
9 along with the discussion on analysis methods, followed by the interpretation of the results. The  
10 paper ends with concluding remarks on the environmental priorities for urban sustainable  
11 development in Iraq.

## 12 **2 Review of urban environmental challenges**

13 Iraq represents a unique context where cities have suffered from the destruction and degradation due  
14 to political instability for more than four decades—resulting in severe damages to infrastructure  
15 (MOE, 2013). Rebuilding and rehabilitation while establishing new urban regions and cities are the  
16 topmost priority for development stakeholders. There is also a societal aspiration for an improved  
17 standard of living because of the new oil boom and economic prosperity. The Iraq National  
18 Development Plan (2013-2017) has identified key urban environmental challenges that need to be  
19 addressed as a priority: air, water, and soil pollution; shortage of water resources; desertification;  
20 lack of waste recycling and reuse; untreated contaminated areas; and inefficient infrastructure (CSO,  
21 2013). The significant environmental impacts in Iraq in the past four decades are summarised in  
22 [Table 1](#), and the key challenges are discussed, as follows.

23 <Insert Table 1 about here>

### 24 **2.1 Environment**

25 **Vegetation cover** has a significant effect on weather and climate variability. Increasing vegetation  
26 cover is considered an effective solution to stabilise dune areas and mitigate the impact of frequent  
27 sandstorms (Brovkin, 2002). There has been a decrease in vegetation cover in the central and  
28 southern of Iraq during 2000-2012 (Abbas et al., 2014). The successive wars in Iraq led to significant  
29 chemical pollution, exposing civilians to hazardous materials. **Tackling environmental pollution** is,  
30 therefore, the key to ensuring a sustainable future for Iraq. Despite being responsible for only 0.5%  
31 of global GHG emissions, Iraq plans to reduce its emissions to tackle global climate change (IG,  
32 2015). Cities being the engine of economic prosperity and growth are the primary geographies that  
33 can help **reduce GHG emissions** and mitigate the impact of climate change.

## 1 **2.2 Energy, utilities and infrastructure**

2 **Efficient infrastructure and utilities** are essential to enable support and enhance a community's  
3 living conditions (Fulmer, 2009). Infrastructures in Iraqi cities have suffered severe damages because  
4 of the wars and the international sanctions, leading to the postponement of new and the upgrading  
5 of ageing infrastructure such as water distribution systems, sewage, roads, electricity generation  
6 plants and energy distribution systems (Foote et al., 2004). Secure, flexible, and economic  
7 production and distribution of energy while increasing the share of renewables and reducing the  
8 demand are essential for an environmentally resilient society (SWECO, 2015). **Smarter power**  
9 **systems** and the grid require significant investments and effective policies (Widergren et al., 2011).  
10 Increasing the share of renewable energy results in a cleaner and healthier environment, with  
11 improved local air quality and reduced GHG emissions (Siegel et al., 2010). Iraq has significant  
12 potential for renewable energy resources such as solar and wind. **Diversification of energy mix** is,  
13 therefore, an essential component for the future development of Iraqi energy infrastructure to meet  
14 the growing demand for energy. **Minimising energy consumption** is the cornerstone of policies for  
15 energy security and climate impact mitigation (Omer, 2008). Energy conservation reduces the need  
16 for costly investments in energy infrastructure and delays investments needed for network upgrades.

## 17 **2.3 Natural hazards**

18 Iraq suffers from many natural hazards common to arid climates. **Desertification**—the  
19 transformation of fertile land into desert, is caused by the loss of green cover; drought and hardening  
20 of soil; increased salinity rates; and the extension of sand dunes (Geist, 2005). Desertification  
21 threatens food security and affects social and economic development (Reynolds et al., 2007). 39% of  
22 the Iraq's surface has been affected by desertification, and 54% is under threat (CSO, 2010).  
23 **Sandstorms** affect large areas and cause environmental pollution, economic losses and health  
24 problems (Liu & Diamond, 2005). Iraq is one of the countries most affected by sandstorms due to  
25 regional climatic changes such as decreasing annual rainfall, and environmental changes such as  
26 drying marshlands, and degrading land (Sissakian et al., 2013). **Drought**, also, causes direct  
27 environmental damage to plants and forests; animal species; air and water quality (Ole-MoiYoi,  
28 2013). Many of agricultural areas in southern Iraq are vulnerable to frequent drought. (Shean, 2008).

## 29 **2.4 Mobility and transportation**

30 **Modal choice of transport** is essential for sustainability. The utilization of alternative transportation  
31 modes can help address traffic congestion, and minimise undesirable impacts on the environment,  
32 especially in areas of high population density. Iraq lags other countries in the provision of public and  
33 alternative transportation modes such as trains, subways, and buses (Al-Akkam, 2012). As a  
34 sustainable transport mode, **Cycling** can reduce the use of fossil fuel and associated GHG emissions,

1 as well as help tackle the risks of sedentary lifestyle and obesity (Ege & Krag, 2010). Increasing  
2 bicycle trips can reduce congestion on roads and improve the urban environment. Another  
3 sustainable mode of travel, **walking**, is healthier, the promotion of which enhances liveability in  
4 cities (Evans & Jones, 2011). The **increased use of public transportation**, especially mass transit  
5 systems such as rail, subway, and bus rapid transport (BRT) reduces overall energy consumption  
6 and associated emissions (Hodges, 2009). Private cars are the primary means of passenger transport  
7 in Iraq due to the underdeveloped public transport infrastructure (UNEP, 2015). **Reducing the**  
8 **number of vehicles** on roads is critical to alleviate traffic congestion, and associated urban  
9 environmental impacts. Car use reduction requires effective planning for urban transport, against the  
10 fivefold increase in the number of cars in Iraq between 2001 and 2012 (CSO, 2014).

## 11 **2.5 Water**

12 Water is one of the most important natural resources in the Middle East, and is vital for sustaining  
13 life, industry, and economy (Waylen et al., 2011). Tigris and Euphrates represent 98% of Iraq's  
14 surface water, and are the primary source of drinking, irrigation, and industrial water use (CSO,  
15 2013). The availability of water in the two rivers is likely to decrease by between 50 and 80% by  
16 2025 (CSO, 2013), which necessitates the search for **alternative water sources** such as artesian  
17 wells, groundwater, springs, lakes, and marshes. **Urban rainwater harvesting** has received renewed  
18 interests as an alternative to conventional water supply, despite the scarcity of precipitation across  
19 the Middle East (Lange et al., 2012). **Greywater** can be used on-site for landscape irrigation, toilet  
20 flushing and constructed wetlands (OECD, 2009), thereby reducing the demand for treated water  
21 from utilities.

22 Moreover, by mid-century, as populations grow, demand rises, and climate changes, per capita  
23 water availability is projected to decrease by half (Michel et al., 2012). Therefore, along with the  
24 diversification of water sources, strategies for **water conservation** need to be prioritised. On the  
25 other hand, water recycling is regarded as a sustainable option to tackle the increasing mismatch  
26 between available water resources and the rising demand for water (OECD, 2009). Finally, **water**  
27 **consumption needs to be minimised** as only 91% of the population has access to drinking water in  
28 2012, with significant differences in consumption between rural and urban areas (Allan 2001).

## 29 **2.6 Waste and materials**

30 As one of the most underdeveloped sectors, "waste and materials" need to mainstream recycling  
31 and move away from harmful waste processing techniques such as landfill and incineration  
32 (Knowles, 2009). **Waste recycling** and **reuse of materials** saves energy and reduces the need for raw  
33 materials and natural resources—thereby mitigating the impact of climate change (Thormark, 2006).  
34 Moreover, the **separation of waste** at source leads to increased recycling (FoEEUROPE. 2013). On

1 the other hand, **wastewater treatment** and poor effluent quality from municipal wastewater  
2 treatment plants are a fundamental problem in developing countries, and the cause of pollution of  
3 water in lakes and rivers (ECO, 2003). 6.2% of the Iraqi population does not have access to basic  
4 sanitation facilities, resulting in an increased risk of disease outbreaks, particularly among the  
5 vulnerable groups such as children and women (UN, 2013).

### 6 **3 Methodology**

7 A nationwide 25-item questionnaire was conducted for investigating stakeholders' perception of  
8 urban environmental challenges in Iraq. The questionnaire was selected as the main method as it  
9 enables the capture of a large number of people's opinions in an efficient and coherent way. It has  
10 been successfully used in several previous studies on public perception in diverse topics. Balram &  
11 Dragičević (2005) used self-administered mail-back questionnaire to investigate attitudes to urban  
12 green spaces in Montreal, Canada. Hamilton-Maclaren et al. (2013) and Aldossary et al. (2015) used  
13 online questionnaire to explore public opinions on alternative lower carbon wall construction  
14 techniques in the UK and cultural barriers to the delivery of low energy homes in Saudi Arabia  
15 respectively.

#### 16 **3.1 Questionnaire development**

17 The questionnaire was developed in five stages:

18 **First**, an initial list of urban environmental indicators was identified based on an extensive review of  
19 the literature on urban environmental and sustainable development challenges, as discussed in  
20 Section 2. Attention was paid to the relevance of the identified indicators to the cities and regions of  
21 Iraq and the Middle East.

22 **Second**, one of the authors visited four Iraqi governorates from the central and southern regions,  
23 Baghdad, Babel, Karbala, and Al-Najaf, between November and December 2014. Stakeholders from  
24 the public, professional, and governmental groups were contacted by telephone, through social  
25 media, and via internal communications within relevant government departments, and  
26 municipalities. Interviews were held with willing stakeholders to explore their opinions on the  
27 identified indicators, as well as other relevant local urban environmental challenges. In the light of  
28 these face-to-face interactions, the list of indicators was updated and their definitions were refined to  
29 enhance clarity—resulting in a final list comprising 25 items.

30 **Third**, a draft online questionnaire was developed based on the two preceding stages. The survey  
31 was first produced in English and then translated into Arabic to enable wider participation from the  
32 public, who may not be well-versed in English. Two professional translators reviewed the draft to  
33 check for accuracy and clarity of the content. The questionnaire draft was assessed in a pilot survey  
34 to analyse the comprehensibility and clarity of the items linked to the psychometric features of the

1 instrument. The pilot study participants ( $n=16$ ) included city planners, urban designers, academics,  
2 architects, civil engineers, and the members of the public. They were asked to comment on content  
3 deficiencies (if any), the length of the questionnaire, the level of understanding of the components,  
4 other potential perceptions, and the importance of the items. The pilot study results were used to  
5 amend the final questionnaire, improving content validity.

6 **Fourth**, the final questionnaire was distributed via online, which is faster than a manual survey, as  
7 well as being less costly (Huang, 2006; Weible & Wallace, 1998). The survey was conducted  
8 between December 2014 and April 2015 via Survey Monkey (SurveyMonkey, 2016) that facilitates  
9 the widespread distribution of questionnaires and enables the authors to control and monitor the  
10 responses and to gain a preliminary analysis of the results in a short time (Baker et al., 2010).

11 **Fifth**, face-to-face interviews were conducted with the two age groups, i.e. 55-60 years and 61 years  
12 and above, that have the lowest internet usage rate. One of the researchers went through the  
13 questions from the questionnaire during the interviews and recorded the responses on the  
14 SurveyMonkey web tool via an internet- enabled Tablet.

15 In both the fourth and fifth stages, participants were asked to rate their perceptions of the  
16 questionnaire items on a 5-point Likert-type scale, ranging from 1 to 5, where 1= unimportant; 2= of  
17 little importance; 3= moderately important; 4= important; and 5= very important. The  
18 questionnaire also contained open-ended questions to enable respondents to provide comments on  
19 included items, or other significant factors they thought were important. Demographic information  
20 such as age, gender, occupation, academic qualification, governorate (i.e. region) and the location  
21 (i.e. urban, suburban or rural) was included.

## 22 **3.2 Survey respondents**

23 The study was conducted for both genders with different social backgrounds, occupations, and  
24 qualifications. All three Iraqi regions were included in this research—the northern, central, and  
25 southern, comprising all 18 governorates. The only participation requirement was that the  
26 respondents should be over the age of 18. Respondents were informed in writing that taking part in  
27 the survey was voluntary and that the data would be kept confidential.

## 28 **3.3 Sampling and data collection**

29 A snowball sampling technique (Dragan & Maniu, 2013) was used in this study to cover large-scale  
30 distribution of the survey across all cities/regions of Iraq. Snowball sampling widens the reach of a  
31 questionnaire to include many hitherto unknown participants, as reported in the previous work by  
32 Hamilton-Maclaren et al. (2013). After issuing the survey, the link was sent to a group of potential  
33 respondents across Iraq by email, text messages, and messaging on social networks. The same



1 process was repeated several times during the survey period until the required number of stratified  
2 samples was collected.

### 3 **3.4 Data analysis**

4 IBM SPSS Statistics for Windows, version 20.0 (Leech et al., 2015) was used for statistical data  
5 analysis. Descriptive statistics on the indicators and scale frequencies, response percentages, means,  
6 modes and standard deviations (SD) were computed. The demographic data were also analysed  
7 descriptively by computing frequencies and percentages. Internal consistency reliability was assessed  
8 via Cronbach's alpha ( $\alpha$ ) coefficient (Cronbach, 1951) that provided a single estimate of internal  
9 consistency or average correlation of questionnaire items to measure the reliability (Webb et al.,  
10 2006). Several social studies suggested  $\alpha = 0.70$  as the threshold of acceptable reliability (Tavakol &  
11 Dennick, 2011).

12 Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was carried out on all 25 indicators to determine the  
13 underlying structure, by characterizing a group of correlated variables. The importance of a  
14 component was evaluated by testing scree plots and the contribution of each component to total  
15 variance (>5%). Variance Maximization (varimax) as an orthogonal rotational strategy was applied  
16 using the results of the PCA. Rotation reduces the number of factors on which the variables under  
17 investigation have high loadings and makes the interpretation of the analysis easier (Mourshed &  
18 Zhao, 2012). Factor loading greater than 0.40 was the criterion for including an item. Bartlett's test  
19 of sphericity was used to identify significant correlations between items. Sampling adequacy was  
20 assessed with Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure, which was 0.918 for this study. KMO greater  
21 than 0.8 can be considered good and indicates that PCA is useful for these variables (Cerny &  
22 Kaiser, 1977).

## 23 **4 Results and findings**

### 24 **4.1 The respondents' characteristics**

25 A total of 643 responses were received, of which 411 answered all survey questions. The remaining  
26 analysis is on 411 valid responses. [Table 2](#) summarises demographic characteristics of the  
27 respondents, which are described below.

- 28 • **Gender:** About two-thirds (68.4%) of the respondents were male, and the rest were female.
- 29 • **Age:** 19.2% were aged between 25 and 30 years, representing the highest rate of  
30 participation, followed by 15.8% for 41–45 years. The >61 age group had the lowest  
31 participation, at 4.4%.

- 1 • **Occupation:** 53% of the respondents were government employees, primarily because they  
2 represent 20% of the workforce (Alwardi, 2015). The unemployed, students and  
3 homemakers, represented the second largest group of respondents (16.5%).
- 4 • **Qualification:** 49.1% of the respondents had an undergraduate degree as their highest  
5 qualification, followed by 32.8% with a post-graduate degree. 18% had either studied up to  
6 secondary school or had no formal qualification.
- 7 • **Geographical coverage:** the highest participation was from the southern region (65.9%),  
8 followed by the central (32.4%) and northern (1.7%) regions.
- 9 • **Location:** most of the respondents lived in urban (83%) areas, followed by suburban (13.9%)  
10 and rural (3.2%) areas.

11 <Insert Table 2 about here>

12 A descriptive analysis of the environmental factors is given in [Table 3](#), representing the percentage of  
13 responses for each option on the 5-point scale. Mean, mode and standard deviation (SD) of  
14 responses are computed for each item.

15 <Insert Table 3 about here>

## 16 **4.2 Principal component analysis (PCA)**

17 PCA results, the factor loadings after rotation, eigenvalues, and percentages are presented in [Table](#)  
18 [4](#). All questionnaire items had a substantial factor loading in the range 0.4–0.8. Five summated  
19 indices were extracted from the 25 items: environmental impacts; water, waste and materials;  
20 natural hazard; personal mobility; and transport. Initial analysis was run for each component to  
21 obtain eigenvalue over Kaiser’s criterion, which is greater than 1.0. The eigenvalues of the five  
22 factors ranged from 1.044 to 9.549. Bartlett’s test of sphericity as a factor solution showed a  
23 significant correlation among questionnaire items ( $p < 0.000$ ), suggesting that all selected variables  
24 were related to each other and were suitable for further analysis. The KMO (0.918) measure verified  
25 the sampling adequacy, indicating that the questionnaire variables were appropriate for factor  
26 analysis and can be considered high (Zhao & Mourshed, 2012). The total variance extracted was  
27 63.72%. The first component, ‘environmental impact’, was clustered by ten items, and represented  
28 the largest percentage of explained variance (38.19%). While the fourth and fifth components had  
29 only two items, accounting for 5.4% and 4.17% of the variance respectively.

30 <Insert Table 4 about here>

31 None of the 25 items had dual loading, which is an indicator for questionnaire clarity. Given the  
32 large sample size, the convergence of the scree plot and Kaiser’s criterion results, five components  
33 have been retained for final analysis. Reliability estimates (Cronbach’s alpha) for all generated

1 components were greater than 0.60 (Table 4), indicating a robust internal reliability between the  
2 questionnaire items with similar attributes (Cerny & Kaiser, 1977). Overall Cronbach's alpha was  
3 0.925 indicating a very high level of reliability (Ahmad & Ahlan, 2015).

#### 4 **4.3 Relationship between personal information and the perception of** 5 **environmental challenge indicators**

6 Participants were regrouped, and the variables were re-categorised to summarise data analysis and  
7 interpretation. Data distribution was not normal. Non-parametric tests, were, therefore, carried out  
8 on all survey items by following a non-normal distribution. Mann-Whitney *U*-test was carried out on  
9 'gender' while Kruskal-Wallis test was carried out on 'occupation', 'qualification', 'region' and  
10 'location'. All demographic characteristics except location showed statistically significant differences  
11 in perception, as shown in Table 5.

12 Gender has a significant effect on perception about *minimise energy consumption*, while age group has  
13 a significant effect on perception about *increasing vegetation cover*, *minimise GHG emissions* and *increase*  
14 *choice of transport modes*. Occupation has a significant effect on perception about *water, waste and*  
15 *materials* and the *use of recycled/greywater, water recycling waste separation and recycling* items. Region has  
16 a significant effect on perception about the items: *water, waste, and materials* and *promote the use of*  
17 *alternative sources of water, use of recycled/grey water* and the need for *sewage treatment*. Finally,  
18 qualification has a significant effect on perception about the component, *increase waste recycling*.

19 <Insert Table 5 about here>

## 20 **5 Discussion**

21 Stakeholders are key in achieving urban sustainability. Their perceptions are a result of their  
22 experiences of daily living and places of work and study, as well as their observation of existing  
23 urban challenges. The 25 investigated items were ranked based on the mean scores ranging between  
24 3.40 and 4.56, from the lowest to the highest, on a Likert-type scale of 1–5, as shown in Table 4.

25 Overall, about 70% of the respondents considered *water conservation* the most significant urban  
26 environmental challenge for Iraqi cities. The item has been granted a highest mean score ( $\bar{x}=4.56$ )  
27 and the lowest SD ( $\sigma=0.759$ ), followed by *increase choice of transport modes*. The indicator *efficient*  
28 *infrastructure and utilities* was ranked third, followed by *increase vegetation cover* and *promote the use of*  
29 *public transport* respectively. While, the respondents considered *promote the use of the bicycle* the least  
30 important item of the investigated aspects, with the lowest mean score ( $\bar{x}=3.40$ ) and the highest SD  
31 ( $\sigma=1.267$ ), preceded by *rainwater harvesting*.

32 The results suggest that the Iraqi stakeholders are more concerned about wider environmental  
33 aspects such as water, transport modes, infrastructure, vegetation cover, and energy management.

1 The respondents' views broadly coincide with prior findings of environmental challenges that were  
2 initially identified through the comprehensive literature review. Twenty of the investigated 25  
3 indicators had mean scores greater than 4 (=important), while only five had mean scores greater  
4 than 3 (=moderately important).

5 The results of the principal component analysis highlighted five structured components, with high  
6 internal consistency, even though some factors contained only two items. The discussion of  
7 environmental challenges in the following sub-sections will, therefore, be grouped around PCA  
8 components, and according to their importance and priority, as shown in [Table 5](#).

## 9 **5.1 Environmental impact**

10 Environmental impact is the largest PCA component, comprising ten items with a mean score  
11 greater than 4.00—indicating high importance for all constituent items. *Efficient infrastructure and*  
12 *utilities* is the most important item in the group. Infrastructures in Iraqi cities have suffered severe  
13 damages due to the political instability (Foote et al., 2004). Despite significant investments most  
14 reconstruction efforts in Iraq have largely been unsuccessful because of the lack of security,  
15 corruption, and coordination between local Iraqi officials and the specialised global actors (GAO,  
16 2005).

17 *Increase vegetation cover* is the second most important item. The global trend of decreasing vegetation  
18 cover significantly affects weather and climate variability, and influences the amount of water  
19 vapour and CO<sub>2</sub> in the air (Bonan et al, 1992). Vegetation also helps in stabilising dune areas and  
20 mitigating the impact of sandstorms (Brovkin, 2002). There has been a decrease in vegetation cover  
21 in central and southern Iraq, where the number of palm trees decreased from 30 million to about 10  
22 million between 2000 and 2012 (WHO, 2015). Hence, vegetation cover has a crucial role in urban  
23 physical and socio-ecological sustainability in Iraq (Abbas et al., 2014).

24 *Effective and smart management of energy resources* is the third most important item. Smart energy  
25 management is aimed at flexible and economic production and distribution of energy while  
26 increasing the share of renewables. Smart electricity grid can enable Iraq to leapfrog in implementing  
27 innovative, and flexible services at the local level. The challenge is to adapt the existing institutions  
28 and infrastructure for market transformations, while enhancing energy efficiency in a cost-optimal  
29 way (SWECO, 2015). Smart management of electricity generation and distribution can meet  
30 environmental sustainability and energy-efficiency policy goals, but at the same time, it requires a  
31 significant investment and effective policies (Widergren et al., 2011).

32 *Reduce environmental pollution* came fourth. Pollution increases with population and economic  
33 growth, and increased resource consumption, transportation, and industrial production (Yang et al.,  
34 2005). Pollution has large and detrimental effects in developing countries, which is yet to be

1 sufficiently addressed. Evidence demonstrates that environmental risk factors regularly play a role in  
2 more than 80% of diseases (YCELP, 2008). Four decades of war in Iraq led to significant chemical  
3 pollution, exposing civilians to hazardous materials. Furthermore, the dependence on fossil fuels for  
4 economic activities increased by more than 92% in Iraq (UNEP, 2015). Some Iraqi regions suffer  
5 from depleted uranium pollution because of the Gulf War and military operations of 1991 and  
6 2003—impacting on public health and increasing the incidence of cancers and birth defects (Fathi *et*  
7 *al.*, 2013). Reducing environmental pollution, therefore, will lead to improving environmental  
8 health, and it should be the top policy priority.

9 The item *maximise the use of renewable energy* is the fifth most important item in the environmental  
10 impact group. Nowadays, energy is considered as the lifeblood of a country, requiring effective and  
11 efficient management of energy resources (Kharaka & Dorsey, 2005). In addition to reducing  
12 dependency on fossil fuel, increasing the share of renewable energy results in a cleaner and healthier  
13 environment, with improved local air quality and reduced GHG emissions (Siegel *et al.*, 2010).  
14 Despite being a major hydrocarbon producer and exporter in the world, Iraq has significant potential  
15 for renewable energy resources such as solar and wind. Diversification of energy mix is essential for  
16 energy sector resilience in Iraq.

17 The remaining items in the environmental impact component have also been identified in previous  
18 studies as global urban challenges: *minimise water consumption*, *reduce vehicles on road*, *minimise GHG*  
19 *emissions*, *reduce energy consumption*, *minimise water consumption*, *minimise energy consumption*, and  
20 *increase waste recycling* (Omer, 2008; Siegel *et al.*, 2010). These global challenges need to be addressed  
21 through collective actions. Moreover, global responses are critical for enhancing local capacity,  
22 increasing public awareness, and providing solutions for nations with regional commonalities.  
23 Responses at national and international levels interact to tackle the urban challenges and can  
24 generate a gradual, structural, and transformational modifications in the management of  
25 environmental issues in the future (Ameen *et al.*, 2014).

## 26 **5.2 Water, waste and materials**

27 The second PCA component has eight items related to resource efficiency. Mean scores ranged  
28 between 3.72 and 4.56—highlighting the variations in the importance of various indicators in the  
29 component. *Water conservation* came in first. It was also considered the most important indicator of  
30 the questionnaire items. The Arab world is considered the most water-scarce region in the world. By  
31 mid-century, as populations grow, demand rises, and climate changes, per capita water availability is  
32 projected to decrease by half (Michel *et al.*, 2012). The water in the main Iraqi rivers, Tigris and  
33 Euphrates, is projected to decrease by between 50 and 80% by 2025, which are controlled by  
34 neighbouring countries that contain the main headwaters (CSO, 2013). A government report  
35 showed that Iraq's per capita share of water decreased by 35.2% in 2014 compared with 2012 (CSO

1 2015). Drinking water supplied to Iraqi cities is likely to be insufficient, and can cause humanitarian  
2 crises (UNESCO, 2010).

3 *Sewage treatment* came in second. It is regarded as a fundamental problem for developing countries,  
4 including Iraq, where poor effluent quality from municipal wastewater treatment plants cause  
5 pollution in lakes and rivers (ECO, 2003). Political instabilities in Iraq have resulted in the  
6 destruction of vital infrastructures, including sewage plants. 6.2% of the Iraqi population do not have  
7 access to basic sanitation facilities. They live with an increased risk of disease outbreaks, particularly  
8 affecting the vulnerable groups such as children and women (UN, 2013). Effective solutions to  
9 wastewater treatment in the existing and future urban development projects are, therefore, essential  
10 for Iraq.

11 *Waste separation and recycling* came in third. Recycling waste assists in reducing air and water  
12 pollution by decreasing the need for waste disposal and bringing about lower GHG emissions. Many  
13 studies have found that separating and recycling waste is a preferable solution for the environment  
14 rather than incineration or landfilling (FoEEUROPE. 2013). Ezeah et al. (2013) suggested that only  
15 30% of the waste generated in cities in developing countries is collected and separated. Waste and  
16 resource management services in Iraqi cities have seen years of deterioration. Traditional solid waste  
17 treatments are still prevalent, despite the negative impacts on the environment (Knowles, 2009).

18 *Water reuse and recycling* is regarded as a sustainable option to tackle the increasing mismatch  
19 between availability and the rising demand for water (OECD, 2009). With the gradual decrease in  
20 water availability in the Arab region in general, and especially in Iraq, water recycling will play a  
21 fundamental role in the coming decades.

22 The rest of the component's factors have been ranked with mean scores less than 4.00. They ranged  
23 from 3.9 to 3.72 for *reuse of materials, use of greywater, promote the use of alternative sources of water, and*  
24 *rainwater harvesting*—indicating moderate importance to respondents. For instance, *rainwater*  
25 *harvesting* is 'moderately important' to the public, probably due to the perception that water is scarce  
26 in Iraq but the amount of annual rainfall is too little<sup>4</sup> for them to consider it to be more important.

### 27 **5.3 Natural hazards**

28 The third group relates to natural hazards. With the highest mean score of 4.29 in the group, the top  
29 ranked item is *desertification* of land that threatens food security and affects socio-economic  
30 development. 75% of Iraq's total arable (Saidi & Al-Jumaiali, 2013) and 61% of agricultural land are  
31 affected by desertification (Abbas et al., 2014). The second item in the group is *sandstorms*, which is  
32 considered an extremely violent and unpredictable phenomenon. Increased occurrences of

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<sup>4</sup> The average annual rainfall in Iraq is less than 100 mm over 60% of the country especially in the central and southern regions with a high rate of evaporation (Al-Ansari, 2013).

1 sandstorms result in regional climatic changes such as decreasing annual rainfall, and environmental  
2 changes such as drier marshlands, land degradation and desertification (Sissakian et al., 2013).  
3 *Droughts* is the third most important item in the group. Much of the agricultural areas in southern  
4 Iraq are vulnerable to frequent droughts. One of the worst droughts occurred in 2007, due to a lack  
5 of water supply to farmlands through the Tigris and Euphrates rivers, affecting agricultural crop  
6 production (Shean, 2008). It should be noted that natural hazards such as earthquakes and volcanic  
7 eruptions are rare or non-existent in Iraq.

#### 8 **5.4 Personal mobility**

9 The fourth component has two items: *walking as a means of mobility* and *promote and provide the use of*  
10 *the bicycle*. They have been ranked as moderately important by the respondents. Walking is  
11 considered the most efficient means of mobility in many Iraqi regions, especially in the capital.  
12 Driving cars in Baghdad is difficult because of the negative impacts of extensive security measures  
13 involving numerous security checkpoints, the sudden shutdown of arterial roads, and the lack of  
14 adequate car parking. These factors affected traffic movement, and resulted in the reduced use of  
15 private cars, and indirectly promoted walking, cycling, and the use of motorcycles—especially for  
16 short trips (Sarsam, 2013). However, excessive heat in summer, dusty air and the lack of shaded  
17 walkways discourage people to walk or use the bicycle. Moreover, respondents aged forty and over  
18 mentioned during face-to-face interviews that they rarely used bicycles because of the prevalent  
19 class-oriented social stigma associated with adult men riding bicycles.

#### 20 **5.5 Transport**

21 The final component, transportation, comprises two items. *Increased choice of transport modes* was  
22 ranked as the first and second most important item among the transport group and all indicators  
23 respectively. Diversity in transportation modes is a challenge for Iraqi cities as they lack adequate  
24 alternative means of public transport such as trains, buses, and subways, as well as a clear lack of  
25 marine transport systems (Al-Akkam, 2012). The indicator has not received enough attention in  
26 previous literature as one of the urgent public needs for Iraqi cities. *Promoting the use of public transport*  
27 comes second of this component, and it was regarded as the fifth most important environmental  
28 indicator with a mean score of 4.36. In Iraq, public transportation systems are not yet fully  
29 developed. Thus, private cars are the dominant type of road transport (UNEP, 2015). The  
30 respondents in our study collectively emphasized on increasing diversity in transportation modes  
31 and the use of public transport—both in the questionnaire and during face-to-face interviews.

32 It is important to mention that face-to-face interviews revealed some rather extreme perceptions, e.g.  
33 the unwillingness to reduce energy consumption to compensate for the electricity shortage. In  
34 addition, some considered that water recycling and the use of grey water is inconsistent with the  
35 social and religious norms relating to recycled water being unclean and thus these measures cannot

1 be implemented. Hence, there is a need for educational campaigns to increase public awareness of  
2 the environmental challenges that may have an association with social and religious beliefs and  
3 practices.

## 4 **6 Limitations of the study**

5 The questionnaire was conducted in all Iraqi governorates. Therefore, the responses are inherently a  
6 national snapshot of stakeholder perception of urban environmental challenges and their relative  
7 importance in Iraq. Hence, the differences in perception between respondents were due to the  
8 disparities in age, educational attainment, occupation, and the extent of the participants'  
9 appreciation of the indicators. The main challenge that the survey faced was its dependence on  
10 participants using a computer to access the internet to answer the questions, as, among its regional  
11 counterparts, Iraq has the lowest rate of internet usage (Heshmati *et al.*, 2014) and, in general, the  
12 internet services provided to Iraqi citizens can be considered inefficient. Internet usage among the  
13 educated people in Iraq is 86.4%. Therefore, the questionnaire concentrated on them, with the  
14 provision of a mobile team to solicit the opinions of non-educated people, particularly in rural areas,  
15 or people who do not have access to internet facilities. Another limitation was the difficulty in  
16 obtaining views from the older population; i.e. those aged 55 years and above. Together with the  
17 category of respondents without any qualifications, they are unlikely to have access to the internet  
18 on a regular basis, compared to the younger population, who access the internet at their places of  
19 work and study. Chronic electricity outages across Iraq and the lack of access to electricity in rural  
20 areas further exacerbated the challenges in reaching the rather marginalised sections of society.  
21 However, the face-to-face interviews ameliorated some of these problems and helped in reaching a  
22 wider distribution in urban, suburban and rural Iraq.

## 23 **7 Conclusion**

24 There is now a widespread agreement that environmental issues are very important to all  
25 communities, at the present and in the future. It is an essential and ongoing task to involve  
26 stakeholders in identifying urban environmental challenges for informed decision making and  
27 effective implementation of adopted policies. This study, first, identified the relevant environmental  
28 challenges and, then, provided a comprehensive snapshot of public opinion on their importance and  
29 priorities in the Iraqi context. Respondents' perception of the identified urban environmental  
30 challenges resulted from their day-to-day interactions with the immediate environments, as well as  
31 their aspirations for the future. Most of these Iraqi challenges have resulted from the political  
32 instability in the country for more than four decades. This study concludes with the following key  
33 recommendations for the decision-makers, practitioners and researchers in urban development.



- 1 • Water scarcity has been identified as the most pressing challenge in Iraq. The situation is  
2 exacerbated further by less than acceptable water quality and the prevalence of high levels of  
3 contaminations. Water recycling and promoting the use of available alternative sources of  
4 water are, therefore, viewed as priorities in both the existing and new urban development  
5 projects.
- 6 • Attention must be paid to reduce undesirable environment impacts by increasing vegetation  
7 cover, promoting infrastructure projects, and adopting sustainable and diverse  
8 transportation—all have been found in this research to be very important to stakeholders.
- 9 • Increasing the share of renewable energy and smart management of energy infrastructure can  
10 meet future environmental sustainability and energy-efficiency policy goals while mitigating  
11 the present-day acute electricity shortage.
- 12 • Urban waste recycling must be prioritised to convert different types of waste into useful  
13 products while preventing their accumulation. Waste recycling reduces the consumption of  
14 raw materials and energy.
- 15 • Walking and cycling as a means of mobility need to be encouraged through the design and  
16 implementation of walkable neighbourhoods and cycle routes. Social stigmas associated  
17 with cycling need to be addressed through awareness campaigns.

18 A good response rate and the nationwide representation suggest that the findings of this study  
19 are appropriate for consideration in the development of future policies and guidelines at the  
20 urban scale.

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## 1 Tables and figures

2 **Table 1:** Significant environmental impacts in Iraq in the past four decades. Adapted from Matar  
3 (2010) and WHO (2015)

<b>Environmental impact</b>	<b>Major effects</b>
Air pollution	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Toxic smoke produced by oil fires.</li> <li>• Toxic gases are resulting from the use of weapons and explosives.</li> <li>• The concentration of environmental pollutants increased eleven times since 1990.</li> </ul>
Degradation of agricultural land	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 70% of agricultural land exposed to pollution and destruction.</li> <li>• The decrease of 26,000 acres of arable land due to increased salinity.</li> </ul>
Vegetation damage	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Decreasing number of palm trees from 30 million to about 10 million.</li> <li>• The decrease of forest area from 1.8 to 1.5% due to desertification.</li> </ul>
Lack of safe drinking water	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Reduction in production capacity of the water purification plants from 7 to 1.5 Mm<sup>3</sup>/day.</li> <li>• 91% of households must buy bottled drinking water privately, due to concerns about the quality of water from public utilities</li> <li>• Drinking water shortages caused the death of one in eight Iraqi children under 5.</li> </ul>
Destruction of infrastructure, and transportation networks	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Destruction of infrastructures such as power plants, roads, and bridges.</li> <li>• Destruction of 96% of power plants.</li> <li>• 57% of problems with infrastructure are related to the water supply networks.</li> <li>• 70% of school buildings suffer from war damage or neglect.</li> </ul>
Contamination of lands with radioactive depleted uranium	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• More than 380 sites were contaminated with radioactive depleted uranium.</li> </ul>
Contamination of water sources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 50% of sewage is discharged directly into main water resources.</li> <li>• Leaking sewage pipes and septic tanks contaminate the public drinking water network with wastewater.</li> </ul>
Accumulation of waste	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Lack of separation and recycling of waste.</li> <li>• Waste is treated by landfilling or burning.</li> <li>• Frequent accumulation of waste in residential areas or at the rivers.</li> </ul>
Contaminated areas by mines and bombs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• ~25 million landmines planted in Iraq.</li> <li>• ~1200 km of the Iraqi-Iranian border is contaminated by mines and bombs.</li> <li>• ~84,000 tons of bombs were dropped on more than 6500 km<sup>2</sup> southern Iraq.</li> </ul>

4

1 **Table 2:** Respondent's demographic factors

Variable	Scale	Frequency	Total (%)
Gender	Male	281	68.4
	Female	130	31.6
Age group (yr)	18- 24	57	13.9
	25- 30	79	19.2
	31- 35	58	14.1
	36- 40	57	13.9
	41- 45	65	15.8
	46- 50	34	8.3
	51- 55	19	4.6
	56- 60	24	5.8
	>61	18	4.4
Occupation	Government employee	218	53.0
	Non-government employee	62	15.1
	Self-employed	63	15.3
	Other	68	16.5
Qualification	Post-graduate degree	135	32.8
	Undergraduate degree	202	49.1
	Up to secondary school	74	18.0
Region *	Central	133	32.4
	Southern	271	65.9
	Northern	7	1.7
Location	Urban	341	83.0
	Suburban	57	13.9
	Rural areas	13	3.2
Notes:			
* Regions are defined as comprising the following governorates; i.e. administrative units:			
• Central: Baghdad, Dayala, Al- Anbar, and Salah Al-deen.			
• Southern: Babylon, Karbala, Al-najaf, Wasit, Al-quadisiya, Maysan, Al-muthanna, Thi-qur, and Basrah.			
• Northern: Erbil, Sulaymaniya, Douhok, Kirkuk, and Nainawa.			

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1 **Table 3:** Descriptive analysis of the environmental factors

Environmental Items	Response* (%)					Mean	Mode	SD
	1	2	3	4	5			
Water conservation	1.0	1.7	5.6	22.9	68.9	4.56	5	.759
Increase choice of transport modes	2.4	1.7	5.8	26.8	63.4	4.46	5	.872
Efficient infrastructure and utilities	1.2	1.6	14.5	15.4	67.2	4.45	5	.886
Increase vegetation cover	1.6	2.0	16.2	11.7	68.4	4.43	5	.943
Promote the use of public transport	1.0	1.5	10.2	34.3	53.0	4.36	5	.802
Effective and smart management of energy resources	2.4	3.4	10.0	26.5	57.7	4.33	5	.959
Reduce environmental pollution	2.0	3.3	16.2	19.1	59.4	4.30	5	.990
Desertification of lands	1.9	3.9	12.9	24.8	56.7	4.29	5	.968
Sewage treatment	3.4	4.9	9.2	24.1	58.4	4.29	5	1.046
Waste separation and recycling	2.9	3.9	11.4	29.0	52.8	4.24	5	1.000
Sandstorms	1.5	3.9	15.3	29.0	50.4	4.22	5	.945
Maximise the use of renewable energy	3.4	6.8	14.6	21.7	53.5	4.15	5	1.113
Minimise water consumption	2.0	5.5	19.5	21.3	51.6	4.14	5	1.047
Reduce vehicles on road	2.0	4.7	19.5	25.8	48.0	4.12	5	1.016
Minimise GHG emissions	3.9	5.5	17.8	20.3	52.5	4.11	5	1.123
Drought	2.4	6.8	15.6	27.0	48.2	4.11	5	1.057
Minimise energy consumption	1.6	4.9	23.8	23.6	46.1	4.07	5	1.019
Water recycling	3.9	5.1	14.4	33.3	43.3	4.07	5	1.032
Increase waste recycling	3.9	4.3	19.5	27.0	45.3	4.05	5	1.062
Walking as a means mobility	3.9	7.8	20.0	25.8	42.6	3.95	5	1.134
Reuse of materials	3.2	6.6	21.2	35.3	33.8	3.90	4	1.035
Use of greywater	4.6	4.4	23.8	32.1	35.0	3.88	5	1.044
Promote the use of alternative sources of water	3.4	7.5	23.6	29.7	35.8	3.86	5	1.089
Rainwater harvesting	6.6	10.7	19.2	30.4	33.1	3.72	4	1.213
Promote the use of the bicycle	8.5	17.3	24.6	24.3	25.3	3.40	4	1.267
<b>Notes:</b> *Response scales are as follows: 1. Unimportant; 2. Of little importance; 3. Moderately important; 4. Important; 5. Very important								

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1 **Table 4:** Rotated Component Matrix of the survey items

Items	Component				
	Environmental impact	Water, waste & materials	Natural hazards	Personal mobility	Transport
Reduce environmental pollution	.837	-	-	-	-
Increase vegetation cover	.826	-	-	-	-
Efficient infrastructure and utilities	.816	-	-	-	-
Minimise GHG emissions	.806	-	-	-	-
Minimise water consumption	.763	-	-	-	-
Reduce vehicles on road	.755	-	-	-	-
Minimise energy consumption	.744	-	-	-	-
Increase waste recycling	.719	-	-	-	-
Effective and smart management of energy resources	.506	-	-	-	-
Maximise the use of renewable energy	.458	-	-	-	-
Promote the use of alternative sources of water	-	.711	-	-	-
Use of recycled/ grey water	-	.705	-	-	-
Water recycling	-	.688	-	-	-
Reuse of materials	-	.669	-	-	-
Sewage treatment	-	.667	-	-	-
Waste separation and recycling	-	.633	-	-	-
Rainwater harvesting	-	.632	-	-	-
Water conservation	-	.497	-	-	-
Desertification of lands	-	-	.817	-	-
Drought	-	-	.762	-	-
Sandstorms	-	-	.678	--	-
Promote the use of the bicycle	-	-	-	.815	-
Walking as a mean of mobility	-	-	-	.803	-
Increase choice of transport modes	-	-	-	-	.659
Promote and provide for the use of public transport	-	-	-	-	.641
Cronbach's alpha coefficient (0.925)	.918	.866	.751	.706	.657
Eigenvalues	9.549	2.477	1.509	1.351	1.044
Percentage of explained variance (63.721)	38.194	9.910	6.036	5.404	4.177

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**Table 5:** Results of non-parametric test

PCA	Questionnaire items	Mean	Non-parametric test (p- value*)					
			Gender <sup>†</sup>	Age group <sup>‡</sup>	Occupation <sup>‡</sup>	Qualification <sup>‡</sup>	Region <sup>‡</sup>	Location <sup>‡</sup>
<b>Minimise environmental impact</b>	Efficient infrastructure and utilities	4.45	.427	.067	.877	.223	.581	.324
	Increase vegetation cover	4.43	.946	<b>.046*</b>	.798	.117	.424	.430
	Effective and smart management of energy resources	4.33	.427	.067	.877	.223	.581	.324
	Reduce environmental pollution	4.30	.281	.153	.273	.085	.589	.882
	Maximise the use of renewable energy	4.15	.835	.295	.181	.249	.696	.477
	Minimise water consumption	4.14	.057	.095	.864	.160	.784	.346
	Reduce vehicles on road	4.12	.121	.110	.935	.055	.556	.898
	Minimise GHG emissions	4.11	.405	<b>.018*</b>	.261	.650	.263	.799
	Minimise energy consumption	4.07	<b>.001*</b>	.575	.821	.061	.845	.689
	Increase waste recycling	4.05	.052	.062	.245	<b>.033*</b>	.696	.534
<b>Water, waste and materials</b>	Water conservation	4.56	.529	.058	.431	.353	.943	.697
	Sewage treatment	4.29	.901	.903	.135	.212	<b>.047*</b>	.139
	Waste separation and recycling	4.24	.099	.089	<b>.010*</b>	.108	.172	.995
	Water recycling	4.07	.810	.188	<b>.018*</b>	.314	.263	.650
	Reuse of materials	3.90	.892	.866	.087	.163	.660	.592
	Use of greywater	3.88	.436	.186	<b>.031*</b>	.249	<b>.002*</b>	.422
	Promote the use of alternative sources of water	3.86	.972	.059	.510	.931	<b>.022*</b>	.548
	Rainwater harvesting	3.72	.240	.361	.132	.293	.832	.301
<b>Natural hazard</b>	Desertification of lands	4.29	.480	.128	.592	.838	.306	.843
	Sandstorms	4.22	.180	.311	.271	.341	.147	.235
	Drought	4.11	.861	.144	.211	.824	.057	.719
<b>Personal mobility</b>	Walking as a mean of mobility	3.95	.053	.168	.356	.836	.174	.701
	Promote the use of the bicycle	3.40	<b>.013*</b>	.723	.796	.241	.922	.985
<b>Transport</b>	Increase choice of transport modes	4.46	.463	<b>.004*</b>	.947	.716	.793	.094
	Promote the use of public transport	4.36	.756	.663	.416	.631	.448	.982
<b>Notes:</b> * $p < 0.05$ , <sup>†</sup> Mann-Whitney <i>U</i> -test, <sup>‡</sup> Kruskal-Wallis test								