JOINING FORCES
Metropolitan governance & competitiveness of European cities

FINAL REPORT
CONCLUSIONS & RECOMMENDATIONS

MAY 2010
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INTRODUCTION
The URBACT programme

Following URBACT I 2002-2006, the URBACT II programme for sustainable urban development takes part in implementing the Lisbon-Gothenburg Strategy (priority to competitiveness, growth and jobs). It manages the exchange of experience among European cities and the capitalisation / dissemination of knowledge on all issues related to sustainable urban development.

Specifically, URBACT II aims to:

- Facilitate the exchange of experience and learning among city policy-makers, decision-makers and practitioners;
- Widely disseminate the good practices and lessons drawn from the exchanges and ensure the transfer of know-how;
- Assist city policy-makers and practitioners, as well as managers of Operational Programmes, to define action plans for sustainable urban development.

URBACT II is structured along two thematic axes:

**PRIORITY AXE 1 - Cities, Engines of Growth and Jobs**

- Promoting Entrepreneurship
- Improving Innovation and Knowledge Economy
- Employment and Human Capital

**PRIORITY AXE 2 - Attractive and Cohesive Cities**

- Integrated development of deprived areas and areas at risk of deprivation
- Inclusion
- Environmental issues
- Governance and Urban Planning

A commitment to fostering integrated approaches to urban issues cuts across all themes in URBACT. Efforts to promote economic competitiveness cannot disregard issues of social cohesion, and alternately slow economic growth can have a negative impact on social cohesion. Consequently, projects shall address one of these themes as a dominant entry point while exploring connections with the others.

The URBACT II programme brings together the 27 European Union Member States, as well as Norway and Switzerland.

URBACT is jointly financed by the European Union (European Regional Development Fund) and the Member States.

Source & more information: http://urbact.eu/
INTRODUCTION

JOINING FORCES
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of European cities

LEAD PARTNER:
Lille Metropole [France]
Agence de développement et d’urbanisme de Lille Métropole

PARTNERS:
Brno [Czech Republic]
Brussels-Capital Region [Belgium]
Agence de Développement Territorial
Burgas [Bulgaria]
Eindhoven [Netherlands]
Samenwerkingsverband Regio Eindhoven [SRE]
Florence [Italy]
Krakow [Poland]
Instytut Rozwoju Miast [Institute of Urban Development]
Seville [Spain]

LEAD EXPERT:
Tamas Horvath [Hungary]
University of Debrecen
Joining forces is a Working Group, which was developed within the URBACT European exchange and learning programme between 2008 and 2010; it brought together 8 partner cities: from 8 member states, Brno (CZ), Brussels Capital Region (B), Burgas (BG), Eindhoven (NL), Florence (I), Krakow (PL), Lille Metropole (F) and Seville (E). Lille Métropole, represented by its Agence de développement et d’urbanisme, was the Lead partner and Tamas Horvath was the Lead expert.

Joining forces has explored how strategy-making and governance arrangements at the city-region level can help to effectively address the main challenges faced by urban Europe: competitiveness, cohesion and sustainability. All over Europe, metropolitan areas or city-regions are increasingly recognised, even by local authorities, as the “real city” level, the right one for designing and implementing more effective development strategies and governance mechanisms. Achieving successful cooperation between cities and their surrounding areas is obviously crucial to improve local cohesion, but even more to increase territorial competitiveness and sustainability.

The project has described and analysed partners’ concrete situations in order to propose conclusions and suitable recommendations to the local / regional / national / European authorities on why and how to develop metropolitan governance mechanisms.

In order to effectively exchange experiences and thus be able to draw relevant conclusions, the working group had to work on the basis of practical examples (case studies) and therefore to consider the single theme of metropolitan governance through different aspects.

The most important and shared aspects for the 8 different partners were:

- Strategic and Spatial Planning
- Mobility management and Transport
- Main environmental issues: air and noise pollution, waste disposal, water supply, etc.
- Knowledge economy [Creativity, Research & Education]
- Private sector involvement in metropolitan Governance [public/private arrangements]
- Social inclusion, participation and empowerment
- Attractiveness & competitiveness [including Promotion / Marketing]

Joining forces has produced different surveys and reports:

- a baseline study, [in two volumes] analysing the metropolitan governance issue from a European perspective and describing each partner city’s specific context,
- working reports from the seven thematic seminars held in the different partner cities,
- a compendium of information on local support groups and local action plans, which describes the impact the common activity has had on each partner city’s local development,
- and the present synthesis of conclusions and recommendations, summarizing the main outcomes of the Working group activity.
PART 1
GENERAL CONCLUSIONS & RECOMMENDATIONS
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GENERAL CONCLUSIONS & RECOMMENDATIONS

INTRODUCTION

At the start of a new millennium, Europe is faced with major challenges resulting mainly from a globalisation process, which was launched by European countries, but whose leadership they have lost for years. It is an uneasy task for a so diverse a continent to engage itself in the process of integration and, at the same time, to have to re-evaluate or even re-invent the very basis for its development. The issues at stake belong to a wide range of policy domains, the main ones being probably economic competitiveness and regeneration, social cohesion, environmental sustainability, cultural development and democratic renewal. Not surprisingly, the successful meeting of these challenges will depend on the ability of the Europeans to innovate, but also and perhaps mainly to accept new concepts and values, that is to say new solutions to problems and new lifestyles.

However, the definition and demarcation of these urban areas tend to become more and more difficult due to the general process of “metropolisation”, which has developed all over Europe; limits between urban, peri-urban and rural areas have often been erased in reality, whereas political boundaries have remained unchanged. The capacity of local authorities, and consequently of citizens, to manage - or even to simply exert democratic control - on local development at the relevant level has diminished. Consequently, it has appeared necessary in many urban areas to set up new forms of cooperation or coalition between local authorities and / or other stakeholders: hence the current development of metropolitan governance arrangements everywhere in Europe.

Cities, especially the largest ones, are clearly at the forefront of this struggle. They are simultaneously the places where a large majority of European people live and work and the main places where new lifestyles and new economic and social processes are invented and first implemented. They are thus the places where European policies for innovation, competitiveness and cohesion are the most likely to have a strong positive impact and therefore where their added value would be the most conspicuous. This also means they are the places where citizen’s confidence in the European integration process can be more effectively secured or restored.
THE NEED FOR A NEW VISION OF URBAN TERRITORIES

• An increasing mismatch between the real city and political definitions

In most European countries, especially in the biggest urban areas, major differences can be observed today between the political definition of cities, i.e. municipalities, and the urban reality, from both morphological and functional points of view. Although this process is quite new in some countries, especially in Southern and Eastern Europe, it has been at work for decades in other ones, such as, for example, the UK and Belgium.

In a huge number of cases, built up areas have grown over the years and appear widely to ignore municipal boundaries, which have not evolved, or not fast enough to reflect this new reality. In cities as different as London, Lyon, Porto or Thessaloniki, it is a common feature to cross municipal limits without noticing evidence of any change in the urban fabric. This is all the more true in former industrial regions, such as, for example, the Ruhr area, where an association of municipalities was created to answer this problem as early as in the 1920s.

However, continuity of the urban fabric is not the only aspect of this mismatch. It is obvious that everywhere the reality of a city’s ecosystem (air, water supply, but also solid and sewerage waste disposal) extends well beyond the built up area, and a city’s ecological footprint often spreads over a large region, which can be even larger in the many cases of cities developed on major rivers.

The economic system can extend over an even larger area. In European cities, job markets have expanded for years over wider and wider areas, for not only the most qualified jobs, and their catchment areas sprawl far beyond city limits over large suburban zones. This phenomenon is well known and data shows its growth over the years.

However, a city’s economic system is also made up of less documented business flows (such as consultancy, legal and financial service provision, sub-contracting and supply services). And, last but not least, citizens’ consumption of private (shopping, leisure, etc.) as well as public services (education, culture, health, etc.), has been spreading well beyond municipal boundaries.

• Fast-moving urban reality

The problem is not only the existence of this mismatch between the political definition and the reality of cities. Defining what is urban and what is not - and moreover what belongs or not to the same city/urban system - tends to become more and more difficult, or at least more and more different from the expert’s or the man-in-the-street’s point of view. The massive urban sprawl experienced in recent years has fostered - if not created – real confusion between what used to be common reference points. The huge growth of built up areas, often with large shopping / leisure or industrial zones, has in many places led to towns and cities actually merging with each other, whereas they used to be historically independent and sometimes belonged to different political, social and economic contexts.

Moreover, the massive creation of rather low-density housing estates, often named or described using words that refer to the rural world (cottage, field, park, etc.), but also the huge development of some villages and market towns have led to the emergence of large expanses of mixed urban / rural areas.

Most people living in such areas work in a central business district or a distant industrial park. They go once a week to the city centre for shopping, or leisure activities, etc., but consider themselves as “rural” and do not recognise any responsibility for “inner-city” problems. However, the trend towards
greater mobility does not only concern commuting flows resulting from residential choices. Businesses tend to relocate over time, sometimes to the outskirts of cities, and it is obviously not always easy for workers to move to the same areas. However, the whole way of life has been gearing people up for more mobility driven by the “consumer choice” attitude to any kind of services: health, education, sport, culture, etc. In any case, the wider use of ITC, with the resulting changes in ways of working and the relocation of some activities, have also contributed to making the urban society more and more difficult to comprehend.

**The relative failure of top-down attempts to redraw boundaries**

In order to deal with these problems, many national governments have tried for decades to redraw local authorities’ limits and / or boundaries. A wide range of solutions has been experimented: compulsory mergers between municipalities (in Belgium, for example), the forced creation of metropolitan authorities (such as the first French Communautés urbaines), and the creation of a legal framework for the formation of voluntary groupings (such as the Città metropolitane law in Italy), etc.

It has to be acknowledged that most of these initiatives have proved to be more or less ineffective: the national government, led by Margaret Thatcher, cancelled metropolitan authorities in Britain; no “Città metropolitana” has ever been effectively created in Italy. In France, “Communautés urbaines”, which constitute perhaps the most successful of these initiatives, have remained quite limited in number until recent years, and the issue of democratic accountability is still pending, as Communauté urbaine councillors are not directly elected by citizens but by municipal councils.

The issue of citizens’ understanding of what is at stake and their resulting support or lack of support is crucial concerns everywhere. Many attempts to redraw city or regional boundaries in order to match reality better have failed, because they have proved unacceptable to citizens, as the Berlin or Rotterdam examples show.

**A changing world: from a closed to a more open society / economy**

It is probably too early to draw conclusions about some recent emerging trends in our societies. However, one can observe an interesting move towards a more collaborative and more open society. This does not mean competition is no longer tough, but new forms of cooperation are emerging in parallel leading to what has been called “coopetition”. This trend, which is obvious in the R&D field and the wider economy, is also starting to affect spatial or territorial planning issues, so it is likely to change the approach to urban issues in the next few years.
Today, there is a wide body of opinion among experts and practitioners that supports greater integration of policy-making, which will ensure greater effectiveness in local and regional development. This principle of integration is widely recognised with regard to fields of policy-making and the need for such integration is becoming clearer and clearer with regard to matters of scale. To-day in Europe many experiments are being conducted in co-operation that goes beyond political / administrative limits, especially in metropolitan areas where they tend to be preferred to the redrawing of institutional boundaries. Most of these initiatives have actually resulted from the need to give pragmatic answers to real problems rather than from any political ambitions to reshape the institutional landscape.

A. Developing policies on the most effective scale

For decades, it has been obvious that the municipality cannot always be the “right” level to design and implement solutions to local problems. However, the quest for the unique relevant scale for dealing with urban / metropolitan issues has proved to be rather vain, probably because there are different possible interpretations of what a metropolitan area is, but also because the territorial relevance of policies can strongly vary from one issue to another.

• No “one fits all” definition of metropolitan areas

Whatever the language used, there is some ambiguity in the terms “metropolitan area” or “city-region”. Obviously, as often in European political matters, there is a translation issue: the terms “City-region”, “Aire métropolitaine”, “Metropolregion”, “Città metropolitana”, etc., which refer roughly to a similar reality in different cultural contexts, are actually not exactly equivalent and this causes some confusion when it comes to European exchanges of experience. More importantly, the same words are often used in the same language to describe quite different realities. There are at least two major different meanings of metropolitan areas. The first one corresponds more or less to what experts call the “Morphological urban area” (MUA), i.e. the continuity of built up area, with a defined level of density. The second one corresponds to what experts call the “Functional urban area” (FUA), i.e. the wider urban system including towns and villages that do not maintain urban continuity but are economically and socially highly dependent on a major urban centre. Geographers and statisticians have been debating for years on the definition of the relevant thresholds of density levels (MUAs) and - mainly - commuting flows (FUAs) in order to achieve a common definition of these two realities at the European level.

However, whatever the relevance of statistical data, these two definitions cannot, as such, be enough to give a clear and operational definition of a metropolitan area. Not only their size but also their shape has a strong influence on the definition that can be given and accepted locally. However, this shape can be quite different from one case to another, as a series of factors come into play. The two most important are probably: first, the relative size of the central city / municipality compared with the surrounding ones; and second the monocentric or polycentric nature of the considered urban system. The Paris region and the Rhine-Ruhr area, for instance, have roughly the same amount of population, but their status as a metropolitan area is clearly different.

Another important issue to be taken into consideration when comparing metropolitan areas and governance systems is the general context, which can be very different according to national and / or regional features.
The first question is the political and/or administrative role that the central city plays in its environment; national or regional capitals are often more clearly recognised as cores of a metropolitan system than other cities. The fact that the capital city is—or not—dominant within its national/regional context can also be quite important in this regard. The respective situations of two capital cities such as Amsterdam and Budapest, for example, are very different.

The political and legal background also exerts a major influence. The size and number of municipalities, the existence and size of regions or provinces, the distribution of powers between local authorities are all factors that exert a strong influence on the emergence of the metropolitan area as a relevant political issue. In addition, the way local authorities are financed and, in particular, the way the local tax system is designed (with a possible mismatch between expenses and resources) are quite different from one country to another.

- **The metropolitan scale is more effective for dealing with a wide range of issues**

The mismatch described above between the urban reality and political definitions explains why the metropolitan/city-region scale has been—or should be—considered as relevant for a range of political or administrative functions. However, public functions provided on this scale are not necessarily linked to a sole and constant definition of metropolitan areas. It is also worth stressing that the right scale for policy-making remains often the neighbourhood and/or at municipal level, as government units. For some other powers, wider metropolitan frameworks can be preferred, because these are generally operational, flexible and changeable.

The adequate level for defining and implementing strategy can or could be somehow near the definitions of the MUAs and/or FUAs, as follows.

**Technical infrastructure and interlinked functions**

are spread in spatial terms around the city and its wider urban area. There are many components, especially in the following domains.

**Transport systems.**

The supply of facilities includes hard infrastructure, such as roads, highways, bridges, etc. with, in this case, investment and maintenance as public functions. The organisation of the mobility and transport system is also crucial in urbanised areas with functions such as transport management, parking systems, regulation of transit, etc. Linkages to global systems (airport, high-speed trains, etc.), suburban connections (suburban railways, unified systems, metro lines, tariff regulation) and systems of big city transport—these all should be organised satisfactorily. Functions mentioned above are divided among different tiers of government in order to serve mobility as such, which is the most important component to sustain the ability of particular areas to face global competition.

The national (and sometimes international) level, middle tiers, municipal cooperation are also involved in general, but it is difficult to link the task as a whole to one or another governmental relationship. There is a wide range of policy implementation tools used by different public sector actors, such as transport planning, development strategies, management of transit delivery, which all are very much based on city regional poles and interlinked connections. However, apart from these fields, many other ways of direct measurement operate in order to enhance non-institutionalised solutions to meeting public needs for complex day-to-day mobility.
### Groups of functions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Functions at city region</th>
<th>MUAs</th>
<th>FUAs</th>
<th>Remarks</th>
<th>Link to Seminars</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Public transport</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>With different solutions</td>
<td>Florence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mobility</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Florence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Land use</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
<td>Eindhoven</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water supply</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
<td>Or larger</td>
<td>Seville</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Waste disposal</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Seville</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local economic development</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Krakow, Brno</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clustering and the Knowledge society</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Brno, Krakow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Territorial marketing</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>Depending on the context</td>
<td>Brussels</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strategic planning</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Eindhoven, Brussels</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social care</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Burgas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Major facilities</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Various</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>Depending on the level of provision</td>
<td>Burgas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culture</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>Capacity-dependent</td>
<td>Burgas, Brussels</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Water-cycle management.**

Thanks to the decisions of many cities, it has been opened up to other municipalities in the area, and water public sector companies provide services to all settlements and not only to the central city. This direct or indirect ‘management by municipal stake holdings’ represents a special form of cooperation at city region level. To set up such solutions, a wide political consensus is needed, which can be based on a common party affiliation or any other common interest recognised and accepted by the majority of the communities involved. By fighting leaks and other ways of promoting water efficiency, cities can make full use of a valuable resource and reduce demand on reservoirs. Recycling of water is already becoming more common, but water-short cities could facilitate the reuse of water by separating household and industrial wastewater.

This response of public management is based on the external effects of service provision. Market or government can react to externalities in different ways. Among others is *internalisation of externalities* in such a way as to create economic units large enough to guarantee that any externality, either positive or negative, will occur within their limits. In the case of big cities, internalisation is not achieved by administrative decisions, i.e. the creation of a new level of government, but more
flexible measures of governance are highlighted. Cooperation is preferred to the forced unification of cities and their surrounding municipalities; involvement in private financing rather than simply subsidies from the national budget; participation rather than bureaucratic methods, etc.

Waste disposal. In developed economies, this is based on the fact that organic waste is a valuable resource. European cities are leading a trend toward either using it as a source of energy (production of bio-methane) or composting, which transforms castoff organic matter into a product that invigorates agricultural soil. In most developed cities, the overwhelming majority of waste is treated this way. Some cities have gone a step further toward preventing landfill overflow by involving the industries that create disposable goods or generate waste.

Municipalities have created different programmes to spur small - and medium - sized industries to reduce waste: companies receive the city's environment quality label if they reduce waste by a definite percentage. This sustainable production is closely linked to the economy of scale of solid waste collection, so the right scale belongs often to morphological urban areas.

[2] Apart from the provision of infrastructural services, ‘direct’ economic functions are subject to urban sprawl. The future-oriented meaning of this is that cities as economic poles are determined by information technology, the knowledge economy, biotechnology, etc. in the global world economy. Their position in terms of international competition is based on external accessibility, effectiveness of infrastructure, quality of the housing stock, the availability of job opportunities, provision of performing services, and other factors. Therefore, policies at city-regional level are often devoted to enhance measures for infrastructural renovation, entrepreneurship, environment-friendliness, and other issues for promoting development.

Implemented strategies in these areas are linked to the wider, more flexible changing metropolitan areas, which may make cities and their region as a whole attractive in economic terms. There are also territorially more focused public actions, for instance, the development of the local economy. Local economic development of this capacity is influenced by traditional regional and Euro-regional policies. Territorial marketing may be developed also on this particular basis.

Strategic planning and, to some extent, spatial planning are geared to wider territorial urban areas, whose definition mainly relies on economic links. It may lead to particular goals of spatial projects. In most cases, the regional spatial structure plan prepared by any public actor from the metropolis is not binding in legal terms. However, it is based on negotiations and consensus-building among the municipalities involved in the framework of the city-region. Financial resources for this informal region, including project funds, are linked to the priorities of strategic goals and spatial plans. Therefore, borders are non-administrative and very flexible, depending on realities that condition project implementation. In some cases, units of municipalities or administration are against this attitude, so they are quite reluctant to give up their territorial power, entity and their legal integrity, instead of dedicating it to the real functionality of the wider and interlinked area in the urban environment.

[3] Most public social services are typically characterised as municipal functions. However, social inclusion is a complex task, which city regions have had to deal with traditionally. Especially in big city areas, exclusion tends to acquire a spatial dimension as market pressures lead to the concentration of the more vulnerable people in less attractive neighbourhoods. What could be an issue for municipalities is becoming more and more often a metropolitan issue; it is no longer limited to particular settlements, but becoming an
issue of inter-municipal relations within the same metropolitan area where unbalanced development has been observed. At the level of morphological urban areas, complex activity and social inclusion policy may be observed in wider and wider frameworks. Instead of being based on rigorously administrative powers and functions, participation in such network-like cooperation is usually based on mutual interests, exchange of resources and commitment. Different kinds of collaboration can be distinguished. The move to increase the involvement of the private sector is clear. The private sector has resources that could be used for projects. Private companies usually profit from their investments in financial terms, but sometimes only in terms of public relations. It means a willingness to invest might be looked on as social engagement. For instance, one of the most important private partners is usually a housing association or similar organisation, but private companies may also be involved in such a way. Finally, voluntary and community sectors (neighbourhood organisations, trade unions, religious or non-religious social care organisations) have become involved in the implementation of urban social inclusion policy.

The traditional local function of provision of cultural public services is also acquiring a new dimension in metropolitan areas. Creating widely organised mass opportunities to meet personally is also important from the point of view of inhabitants and entrepreneurs. Cultural networks work together in order to make the city or the city region a place for dialogue and reflection for cultural actors and stimulate collaboration between them. Interested stakeholders often lobby together for the recognition of their place as international cities of art, culture or sport. Therefore, metropolitan areas try to enhance their image in terms of culture and link their economic benefits with this. Some joint projects for promoting the territory and attracting visitors are developed for this purpose. Business meetings combined with cultural opportunities offer options to find new ideas for development and building up new professional connections in the wider urban area. With the importance of the social aspect of urban environment, policy approaches to urban regeneration have been considerably broadened and have become increasingly comprehensive by integrating people and place, community and economy giving a new dimension to local culture.

B. An overall need for pooling the resources of local authorities

Further to the rather technical arguments presented above, there are other reasons for favouring city regions for the delivery of the above-mentioned functions. There is an overall need for pooling resources of local authorities in order to overcome shortages of public money and to deal effectively with the challenges of competition between territories in the global economy. In addition, local taxes are often not levied and collected at the level where tasks and services are required and should be provided.

• The need to reach a certain critical mass

Reaching a certain territorial critical mass is important for both the quality and quantity of the services provided by local authorities. This first allows local authorities to develop their capacity to invest in infrastructure (public transport, cultural facilities, etc.) or to provide services (development agencies, health care, etc.) that better match the needs of citizens’ and /or the businesses. This is particularly true for highly specialised services they could not afford to develop and manage alone.

Secondly, enhancing critical mass enables local authorities to develop a more comprehensive approach to the local economic system, which is obviously not constrained by municipal boundaries, rather than deal with just a limited part of it. This is particularly important when local authorities want to help develop economic clustering and /or R&D
activities. This also increases the ability to negotiate with the private and non-governmental sectors in public matters in a more balanced position, i.e. at the same level as the one at which they are the most often organised, i.e. the large metropolitan scale.

Thirdly, critical mass gives sufficient importance and diversity to play at global level. This means the capacity to develop relevant tools (congress centres, inward investment agencies, marketing campaigns, etc.), but also sports or cultural events with an international significance.

- **To avoid sterile competition between local authorities**

   It is important to stress that global competitiveness is not to be based on local competition, although some emulation between local authorities can help. Focusing on petty local fights creates a risk of confusion and loss of competitiveness.

   In any case, it is of mutual interest to prevent any misuse of public money, such as the duplication of similar public facilities on the same reference territory (congress hall, major sport facilities, etc.), or tough competition to attract inward investments, leading to various forms of tax dumping, or reduction in planning quality standards (out-of-town shopping and other commercial developments). An additional advantage could therefore be a more careful use of land, with a more sensible and sustainable distribution of development.

- **To provide citizens and business with relevant services**

   The above-mentioned groups of service provision and public tasks are all related or/and oriented towards cities according to the principle of economy of scale, as they serve relatively huge urban areas. Limits to provision must be diverse in space and flexible in time; their adequate geographical level can be adjusted to the morphological and/or functional urban areas, notwithstanding the formal boundaries of local governments (even at their departmental and regional levels) nor even sometimes national borders. They can therefore be great enough in size and quality to respond adequately to both the general needs of a huge population and the specific demands of diverse communities.

- **Facing the mismatch between levels of tax collection and service provision**

   In most city-regions / metropolitan areas, taxes are not levied and collected at the place and at the level where the corresponding services have to be delivered. For example, when business taxes are levied at the municipal level, this can make the municipalities quite rich where industries are located, whereas the neighbouring municipalities where their employees live do not have the required resource to meet the needs of their residents. Conversely, taxes may be levied only on households and therefore benefit only the municipalities where people reside but not necessarily those where they use public services, such as schools or hospitals.

   In both cases, there is clearly a corruption of the original purpose of local taxes, which could be avoided by innovative mechanisms that allow some pooling of public resources at metropolitan level.
ON METROPOLITAN GOVERNANCE

There are many technical as well as political arguments in favour of metropolitan co-operation and the development of governance arrangements. However, it must be recognised that most of the time they have not proved to be convincing enough to make decision-makers go through with them and, more importantly, guarantee that initiatives taken would be sustainable.

C. Some basic principles are to be met for successful metropolitan cooperation

Developing metropolitan co-operation is obviously a matter of political vision and commitment. Without these, any initiative would be unlikely to lead to concrete outcomes. However, their existence is not as such enough to secure success; some basic principles have to be respected.

- Building mutual trust is the main condition, as solidarity is required

The main obstacle that needs to be overcome is mistrust resulting from years of ignorance, petty rivalries and lack of solidarity. There is no single definitive solution to the problem of how to create or restore trust between potential partners; and, in any case, this cannot be achieved in a few days or months. However, there are ways of slowly building the required mutual trust.

The first condition is the ability to define common interests, which should be more than the mere addition of specific ones. This does not mean that the specific – and often divergent – interests of the various partners should be ignored or even forgotten. However, there can be a common consensus for focusing on co-operation, at least initially, regarding issues where common interests are most obvious. This can involve benefiting from common opportunities as well as fighting against common threats.

Trying to define a common vision for the future of the area can be another way of pooling forces. This supposes the ability to develop a common assessment of strengths and weaknesses, which requires time and resources for expertise, and obviously means sharing some same basic concepts.

However, acting in common is probably the best way of developing and securing co-operation. Projects should come first and both the “learning by doing” and the “proof through example” principles fully apply to metropolitan cooperation. Structures can be created if and when required to help develop actions when some obstacles, especially legal ones, appear to impede implementation.

If the initial trigger may come from initiatives by national or regional authorities, there is most of the time a specific responsibility that the central (or biggest) city must accept for the development of metropolitan co-operation. It is up to this core city, regarded as the most powerful partner, to show its strong commitment to the process, by sharing with neighbouring authorities some of its advantages, even if only symbolically. Mutual respect is another important element in this perspective, and the leading authority must consider and treat other authorities as equal partners and not as “second division players”.

- Time and continuity are required: the process has to be sustainable

As trust is to be secured before tricky issues may be effectively considered, the time issue is crucial.
The process has to be maintained, even if the first achievements may be seen as rather modest. After an initial period of rather general enthusiasm, there is a big risk that some sense of disillusion sets in, as the decision-making appears to be quite slow, and the results too limited. At this stage, it is important that the ambition be reasserted, initial objectives reaffirmed and the agenda for cooperation confirmed (with the required amendments).

It is therefore extremely important to achieve a consensus between the political parties at the origin of the process. The cooperation itself should not be a matter for local politics, even if prioritising the actions to be developed gives rise to intense discussions. In this perspective, all metropolitan arrangements, even if they are informal, need to be widely publicised.

**Involving citizens is crucial**

If local authorities are obviously the first to be concerned by metropolitan cooperation processes, they should try to involve citizens as much as possible. In addition to the basic principle of democracy according to which power lies with the citizens, there are at least two main reasons for this.

Firstly, the very existence of FUAs does not result from any clear political intent, but from people’s residential choices (which are obviously influenced by a series of factors including political ones such as tax and other legal conditions). Metropolitan cooperation mechanisms are thus mainly required to serve local people better by dealing with issues resulting from their way of living. By doing this, they often unfortunately have to face “nimby” attitudes, likely to block the development of projects of metropolitan interest. These attitudes mainly result from the absence of any sense of belonging to the metropolitan area. Citizens’ awareness is thus crucial, as is their subsequent participation in the definition of initiatives most likely to be effective.

Secondly, the clear interest and support of citizens, and especially of the most active among them, is essential for the process to be supported by all political decision-makers, and not to become a stake in local elections.

**Gaining the support of the economic sector is crucial too**

The economic/business sector is as interested as the general public in the solving of problems created by the metropolitan way of life. However, economic agents are often much better informed and more aware of the issues at stake and their influence is obviously much greater. Support and commitment by major economic stakeholders is therefore to be developed as a matter of priority, from the very beginning.

**D. Innovation is required in approaches to governance**

Specific solutions are to be found in metropolitan governance on the basis of local/national culture. All of these solutions are based on the involvement of different stakeholders in a rather bottom-up approach. Widening the number and quality of supporters in this pragmatic exercise is important in city regions where institutional relationships are contradictory. From outside the metropolitan area, there is often some concern about the potential power any institutional form of city regional representation could have. Governance methods appear to be relevant answers to these types of institutional challenges.

**Involving all relevant actors: private and voluntary sectors**

Effective metropolitan governance implies the involvement of all the relevant actors in public affairs; actors from the private and voluntary sectors should not be forgotten even if mobilising
the different public and administrative authorities is already difficult. It should be more than just participation; private and voluntary sectors can be involved in the supply of public tasks in a ‘functional’ way.

This obviously means that non-formal methods should be added to the existing local democratic institutions, particularly when initiatives are taken that clearly lack the constitutional legitimacy conferred by elections. Dealing with metropolitan issue in an effective way requires the recognition of the dangers of such a democratic deficit. Different new forums for citizen representation have been established, especially at city-region levels. Territorial organisations bringing together entrepreneurs and other bodies of private or non-governmental stakeholders have become quite prominent in operational terms.

**Involving all relevant actors:**
**vertical integration / multi-level governance**

The rise of metropolitan cooperation is not to be considered as an alternative to existing governmental structures, and it is obviously not an attempt to unravel regional and/or national institutions. On the contrary, it is a matter of securing all the relevant governing actors’ direct participation in city regional management.

The question is not only the issue of formal cooperation, associations at county and regional levels. Sometimes, especially in the case of metropolitan affairs, these offices and bodies, representatives and members compete with each other, not to mention competition between different nation states, especially in border areas. In this area, non-formal methods, such as facilitating rather than administering, seem to be more and more important, at least in the less formalised initiatives taken in favour of competitiveness, cohesion and sustainability of interdependent urban areas.

**Flexible and/or structured systems?**

It is necessary to avoid too formal and rigid administrative solutions. On the other hand, not every task can be achieved without a regulatory function, which can hardly exist independently of some structuring. In fact, flexible and structured systems should be linked to each other as smoothly as possible. Again, it is not only the question of cooperation, but also of the way to define governing methods, i.e. governance, in sum.

According to the concept and practice of governance, public tasks are divided among different tiers of government in such a way as to ensure a flexible functional spread of public responsibilities between governmental and non-governmental bodies, even involving collective and private stakeholders. This less formalised method of administration, or so-called governance, is one of the best methods to manage tasks at city-region level, which, in fact, always cut across all existing administrative borders in quite a changeable way and involve a great number of different actors. Stakeholders’ tasks and the interaction between them can be divided up in a very innovative way in some cities and their surrounding wider areas.

However, some structured systems are obviously not to be excluded in the delivery of public functions. Both types of solution are actually possible depending on the theme and the scale. Some public tasks require formal systems, especially when a single investment capacity is needed (for a metro system, for example). Others can rely on looser arrangements (for promotion of tourism development, for example). In any case, formal systems are more likely to be required when MUAs are concerned, whereas more informal ones might be enough for FUAs. However, this scale issue is also to be considered in a pragmatic and flexible way. Not every issue has to be faced and not every project to be developed at the same level and on a single scale, and FUAs can be quite different according to the
function considered: the FUA for provision of higher education, for instance, is often much larger than the usual definition based on commuting flows.

**Legitimacy versus effectiveness?**

When considering governance mechanisms, it is also necessary to recognise the existence of conflicts of legitimacy. Governance practices are not all based on elections, and they are somehow contradictory, but also subservient to legitimate institutions. Because of the need for democratic control, there are different options rooted in real experiences for representing the interests of a city region in a way that is able to be more flexible than formal governing and administering institutions, even those of a horizontal cooperative nature. At the same time, this trend in moderate institutionalisation makes it easier to find support either from intergovernmental, private or non-governmental sectors.

Following these principles, possible models may vary according to local experiences and practical needs formulated more and more precisely in European cities. A public authority model is to be distinguished from the spontaneous elected boards or councils of delegated bodies, private or voluntary advisory committees.

On the implementation side, the development agency model may be sketched. It is under the direction of public boards, interested directly in the effectiveness of its work. In the corporate model, chambers of commerce and industries etc. get involved in building up an identity for the city-region. This motivation is not independent of the longer-term interests of the economic sector. However, it may be different from lobbying activities.

Initiatives by national governments are also based on specific preferences unique to this or that city region, so their positioning interests are not to be neglected later.
From the conclusions summarised above, it is clearly in the general interest to foster the development of effective metropolitan forms of cooperation in Europe. As already mentioned, the main responsibility lies with local authorities, and especially the central municipalities, but the support and involvement of all local stakeholders, from the public, private or voluntary sectors, is required. However, the existence of such a local commitment is far from being enough to secure the success of metropolitan co-operation. The active support – and, in some cases, commitment – to metropolitan governance mechanisms is required from all other tiers of government.

National governments (regional ones in federal countries) should first provide a legal and / or political framework for such processes to develop. All tiers, including the European authorities, should also develop a better knowledge and recognition of the role of wider urban systems in response to global challenges. Consequently, they should recognise the new, quite informal, forms of co-operation developed at that level, as a relevant frame for the definition and implementation of strategic development programmes. Moreover, they should actively support projects developed at metropolitan level, and, according to local situations, the process itself, especially in the development period.

A European-wide initiative for the promotion of metropolitan regions could be a relevant policy response to new challenges, which the traditional – insufficiently flexible – institutions can hardly face with success. These new answers should obviously not be in competition, but act as useful, albeit subsidiary, tools available to the current authorities, whose legitimacy generally comes from elections. The growing importance of some measures implemented in quite a few European metropolises can have the effect of enhancing people’s intention to be involved also indirectly through locally established bodies and forms of cooperation in influencing the development of their own wider urban area.

- Better recognition and more involvement in policy-making and delivery

The governance mechanisms developed at city-region level are very different from one place to another. They are the more often quite challenging combinations of different network solutions, aiming at widening the effective development capabilities of large urban areas, though avoiding problems resulting from administrative amalgamation or the use of traditional rather bureaucratic instruments.

Whatever the governance system that is favoured regarding the local context, the recognition of metropolitan areas/city-regions as a relevant level for dealing with a wide range of political challenges should lead to their direct participation, if not empowerment, in the design and implementation of national and regional development strategies. This is particularly important for issues such as transport, economic development (and especially the knowledge economy), environment (water supply, waste, etc.) and strategic and spatial planning, when they are not – or not only – of local competence. However, the importance of metropolitan areas to the overall territorial cohesion challenge has to be enhanced: any “urban policy” should link area-based regeneration programmes with measures aiming at fighting against spatial segregation at metropolitan level.

However, the participation of metropolitan governance bodies should also and particularly concern the local definition of EU cohesion policy, and especially the formulation of regional Operational
Programmes; for instance, specific sub-programmes for metropolitan areas could be developed within the scope of regional OPs. However, other European policies could also be concerned given that most of the initiatives – if not all of them – which aim at fostering local development, could gain in effectiveness by the inclusion of a city-region dimension, and the consecutive participation of relevant actors in their definition and implementation.

• **Additional Resources**

As stressed above, cities and their metropolitan areas are the best places for dealing with some of the challenges that condition Europe’s success as a competitive economy, but also as a global political player. For strategies implemented at a metropolitan level of organisation to be effective, organising capabilities are not enough: new additional resources are also required.

These additional resources may first derive from either a new type of resource allocation or changes in the local and regional tax system and revenue-sharing in local finances. However, direct incentives from upper tiers of government and the EU are also needed to foster cohesion and competitiveness in urban areas. This help cannot be too narrowly focused, as to be effective it has to address a complex and comprehensive system of interrelations concerning many players and places. In any case, economic development does not necessarily directly benefit the residents of the place where it occurs, and, on the other hand, jobs are not to be provided to people exclusively in the very place where they live. The same can be said about local taxes: their definition should better reflect the complexity of urban systems; consequently, their base and definition should be harmonised on a metropolitan scale to avoid mismatches between tax collection and collective needs.

However, these financial tools matter if they fit in with general *intergovernmental financial relations* at a subsidiary level. The city-region level, regional or other middle tier governments, member states and the European level form all together a complex set of actors for policy-making and implementation of newly oriented urban and metropolitan strategies. This also means that national government agencies and companies, such as national railway companies, should also consider the metropolitan level as relevant and consequently the resulting governance structures as potential partners when drawing up their terms of reference.

Mobilising the private sector is one of the solutions promoted by many national governments to increase the capacity to invest in local development and (potentially) improve the management of public services. Experience shows, first, that this can only be a partial solution to problems, especially in the longer term. It is also clear that public-private relationships should always be developed within a clear and open framework, legally established and publicly controlled, thus avoiding any risk of confusion between public and private interests that would increase costs rather than reduce them.

• **Innovation in public processes**

A new orientation should be favoured in public processes. Openness and accountability are needed in resource allocation and re-allocation. Public procurement has already been generally preferred in many domains to direct municipal management of public service delivery. However, its effectiveness may be enhanced, especially through relevant legal instruments. Formal public-private partnerships should thus be developed every time it is clear that they first benefit the public interest and then private ones.

Nevertheless, the participation of private and voluntary sector players / organisations should be encouraged in strategy-making at metropolitan level. New, more or less informal, governance tools should be developed for this purpose, with the help of national and regional authorities, which in some cases could also be involved in them. In any case, relationships between the various tiers of government should be improved in the case of
metropolitan areas; existing political boundaries should not be accepted as arguments for refusing co-operation when common interests are at stake. National and, in some cases, European authorities should provide effective instruments to counter to such attitudes.

However, the major barriers to this often result more from inappropriate administrative frameworks than from unwillingness on the part of the partners to be involved. More or less informal associations and / or agencies should be created to develop projects by crossing competences and boundaries. Legal instruments are also to be developed to foster co-operation between local authorities and / or between tiers of government. The system of multi-annual contracts between public authorities, successfully experienced in countries such as France, is an example of the type of arrangement that could be set up for this purpose.

In addition, as support from local societies is crucial, communication should not be forgotten. Media and open events should be supported, organised in order to convey general messages to national and, in some cases, international audiences, emphasising the wider importance of metropolitan capacity-dependent units capable of hosting events such as typical fairs, cultural forums, huge sport games and mass races.

- **Development of knowledge and awareness**

Any further development of metropolitan governance mechanisms in a larger European urban system supposes that metropolitan systems in their complexity are more precisely analysed and outcomes from existing experiences better assessed.

Some academic literature does exit on this issue at national level in many members states (Germany, France, Italy, etc.), and worldwide comparative studies have been conducted by some international institutions. However, except for a few surveys conducted within ESPON, research work on metropolitan factors at European level has actually been quite limited. Moreover, existing studies generally focus on demographic definitions and ranking and / or on the relative economic performance levels of major urban systems. Limited interest is shown in the governance mechanisms that have been developed in metropolitan areas.

Some networks have for long promoted the importance of metropolitan areas at the European level; but in doing so they argued that metropolitan governments were required, and obviously within well-defined boundaries. This approach, although attractive at a first glance, has finally not proved to be very convincing, probably because it was not realistic enough, which could partly explain why the more flexible concept of metropolitan governance had long been neglected in the European debate. There has recently been an increase in interest in this, as shown by the number of URBACT II projects dealing directly or indirectly with this issue.

However, the information collected so far remains quite limited and the need for more work is evident. Two main types of initiative should be taken for this purpose:

- **Academic type surveys** should be funded in order to better understand current changes in the metropolisation process in Europe, but also its components and impact on the way Europe faces global challenges. This could be done, for instance, within the scope of the ESPON project and/or fit in with a new initiative such as a revised urban audit.

- **In-depth exchanges of experience** between metropolitan areas could be fostered, as a priority topic to be dealt with in existing programmes, if they can take into account the possible informal nature of metropolitan governance mechanisms, such as a more flexible form of URBACT initiative.
PART 2
SYNTHESIS OF THE THEMATIC SEMINARS
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Eindhoven seminar – October 2008
Synthesis of the theme:
“Governance regarding Strategic and Spatial Planning at City-region Level”

Florence seminar – February 2009
Synthesis of the theme:
“Governance regarding (Mobility and) Transport at City-region Level”

Seville seminar – April 2009
Synthesis of the theme:
“Governance regarding Externalities and Environmental Issues at City Region Level”

Brno seminar – June 2009
Synthesis of the theme:
“Governance regarding the Knowledge economy / creativity, research & Education at City-region Level”

Krakow seminar – October 2009
Synthesis of the theme:
“Governance and Public / Private Arrangements at City Region Level”

Burgas seminar – January 2010
Synthesis of the theme:
“Governance and Social Inclusion, Participation, Empowerment at City Region Level”

Brussels seminar – March 2010
Synthesis of the theme:
“Governance and Attractiveness and Competitiveness at City Region Level”
The objective of the seminar in Eindhoven was to scrutinise the role and instruments of governance in strategic and spatial planning at city-region level. This summary is based on direct lessons from the case[1] grouping of partner city-regions from the point of view of strategic and spatial planning, including some preliminary conclusions on governance as one of the key issues the working group has to deal with[2].

1. Lessons learned from the case of the Eindhoven city-region

There are different instruments in the city-region for the promotion of thinking in a strategic way. These are, in particular, a formal voluntary association (Eindhoven City Region – SRE), a joint foundation (Brainport) and a cross-border strategic cooperation process (ELAt).

1.1. Regional voluntary association

There is no official regional level of government in the Netherlands, however, the law allows municipalities to work together and create regional forms of government. These voluntary institutions are called WGR-regions. Most of them don’t have a specific separate body but the WGR gives a legal basis for cooperation to municipalities in one or more specific issues. These regions have statutory policy competences, such as economic development, transport, and environment and until the 1st of July 2008 spatial planning. The Eindhoven City Region (SRE) covers a quarter of the North Brabant province and consists of 21 municipalities and around 750,000 people living in the region. With more than 209,000 inhabitants, Eindhoven is the largest city in Southern Netherlands.

The municipalities in the region decided in 1993 to create a new separate regional body: the Eindhoven city-region (SRE), one of the eight formal city-regions in the Netherlands. The mission of the SRE is to strongly encourage cooperation between municipalities and promote the interests of the region at upper government level. It is also dedicated to obtaining investment grants. Each region, including the SRE, has a common agreement in which is
specified the way the regional body is funded. In this case, each municipality has to contribute on a per capita basis. Thus, large cities and municipalities with a bigger population have to pay more than the smaller ones. Besides the costs for the regional body, municipalities also pay a certain amount to a regional fund, which finances or stimulates small regional projects. The main tasks of the SRE are housing, spatial planning, environment, transport, and recreation.

The regional body consists of the council, the executive, and the support organisation. The regional council is the highest authority within the region and consists of members delegated by the municipal councils and aldermen from municipalities in the region. They are chosen indirectly by the inhabitants of the region. The more residents a municipality has, the more members are delegated to the regional council. The chairman of the regional council is the mayor of the biggest city. The regional council appoints its executive body. It is responsible for the day-to-day administration of the region within the scope of the regional policy. The mayor of the largest city chairs both the regional and the executive council.

1.2. Foundation for regional economic development
In 1993, South-East Brabant was hit by an economic crisis that led to mass redundancies among larger employers such as DAF and Philips, with many suppliers in the region falling victim in the wake of this recession. At the initiative of the Eindhoven City Region (SRE), businesses, knowledge institutions, and public authorities joined forces to get out of the economic malaise. The 21 SRE municipalities created a joint fund to strengthen the economic structure of the region and set up the Stimulus programme. This led to the creation of the current Brainport Foundation.

The willingness to cooperate in Brainport is high. With so many players aiming for strong growth, that willingness benefits from some coordination. Business, knowledge institutions, and public authorities have joined together in the Brainport Foundation to make these ambitions happen. Together they have charted the course in the strategic programme: Brainport Navigator 2013; beyond Lisbon!

In summary, the Brainport status essentially lies in the prominence of private R&D that is directly linked to the prominence of a competitive manufacturing industry. Nowadays the Eindhoven region has an internationally-recognized reputation for high-tech activities. Its leading role in the world of cutting-edge R&D has caused it to become known as ‘Brainport’: a hotspot within the South-East Netherlands’ top technology zone.

Brainport is also an action programme. An example is the High Tech Campus in Eindhoven (HTCE). The campus involves:

- originally a Philips research and development site
- 90 ha of green business park, 35% of which is available for non-Philips companies (R&D firms and institutes)
- more than 180,000 m² of office space; 50,000 m² of laboratory space and 10,000 m² of clean rooms
- the Strip: the heart of the campus with meeting rooms, recreational and sports facilities and other amenities
- access to technologies (incl. nanotechnology, signal processing, embedded systems, optical storage, wireless connectivity and broadband)
- access to facilities and equipment (technology services devices, prototyping and instrumentation, computer services, centre for technical training, EMC competence centre)
- management support (e.g., participation in international R&D programmes, advice on intellectual property rights and financing)
- access to regional know-how – and industrial / economic infrastructure

Brainport is also a City marketing strategy aimed at promoting the Eindhoven City-region through an
attractive concept “The Brainport” and marketing strategies to attract the creative classes and investors. The final aim is to position the City-Region of Eindhoven amongst the most famous European or worldwide creative cities.

The Eindhoven City-region (SRE) wants to implement its goals through concrete spatial projects. To do this, the SRE is now developing a Brainport Spatial Programme. The regional spatial structure plan prepared by the SRE is not binding in legal terms; however it is based on negotiations and consensus among the municipalities involved in the framework of the city-region. Structure plans prepared and approved by regions are very much strategy-oriented. The region’s financial resources including project funds are linked to the priorities of strategic goals and spatial plans.

1.3. Cross-border strategic cooperation
There are frameworks for cross-border cooperation in innovation financed by INTERREG and other programmes. First of all, “ELAt” covers cities and their areas featuring high-tech, knowledge-based industries in the Netherlands, Belgium, Germany, and France. This transnational cooperation among international cities focuses on joint innovation strategy, benchmarking, community business, and technology, development of entrepreneurship and access to investors. There is no a pre-set leadership by any public authority. Priorities are defined as strategic directions.

Another recent initiative is “VlaNed” from the national government level. It is based on cooperation between governments in the border region. It is similar to urban development in the Lille region. It is voluntary cooperation on both sides of the Dutch-Belgian border.

2. Similarities and differences between partners cities
City-regions are not involved in formal systems of local government (see Appendix). However, informal structures and / or frameworks of governance can be defined in relation to the working local authorities at different levels.

Apart from Eindhoven, Lille and Krakow are involved in city-regional or regional (Krakow) spatial planning collaboration. It can be voluntary, statutory or central government type. The voluntary model is represented by the Eindhoven City Region (SRE) as described and summarised above. There are some statutory city-regional forms of association for municipalities in France. The most comprehensive one is the ‘Communauté Urbaine’ framework adopted by Lille on the basis of an act of Parliament in 1968. Thus, Territorial Strategic documents and land use plans have been established at this level, even if the legal strategic spatial plan is set up on a slightly bigger scale (arrondissement). In the case of Krakow, the Malopolska Region prefers Krakow Metropolitan Area as a separate functional area in its regional plans. Regional government has legal power and instruments to influence this type of development.

On the other hand, there is no formal city-regional framework in the case of, Brno, Florence, and Burgas. We can say that this is also the case in Brussels, even if a formal region does exist, the Brussels-Capital Region, but with too tight limits to represent the true city-region. However, regional or national government levels usually take responsibility for spatial and strategic cohesion in the city and its area. This means, for example, that, in Florence, project management (PIUSS) is working at city regional level. Nevertheless, this is no the case for Belgium, where only the Regions have competences in strategic and spatial planning. The Federal State does not lay down any more competences on the matter, and not even a competence of coordination. Here, governance efforts focus on cooperation between the different public partners involved at the city-region level[4].
The main instruments of governance in planning at the city-regional level identified in our sample are the following:

- voluntary cooperation among municipalities in the area (SRE–Eindhoven City Region, Firenze Futura, Krakow Metropolitan Area Council)
- project management (SRE–Eindhoven City Region, lille Métropole, Krakow Metropolitan Area Council)
- adding strong general policy orientation to spatial planning (SRE–Eindhoven City Region)
- citizen or civil society participation in planning process (Burgas, Brno, Brussels-Capital Region, lille Métropole)
- funding is involved as an issue in plans (SRE–Eindhoven City Region, lille Métropole)
- partnership with entrepreneurs (SRE–Eindhoven City Region, Firenze Futura)

Our further task is to widen this list of instruments and methods, either in strategic and spatial planning or in any other field that is investigated further on.

Strategic and spatial planning at city-region level particularly focuses on the enhancement of competitiveness, including reorganisation and economic crisis management. It is also often oriented towards sustainability of development and environment. This is, for instance, the case in the city-Regions of Eindhoven and Lille.

In conclusion, we can see in our working group that there are instruments of governance everywhere (legal, administrative, budgetary, project, planning) in strategic and spatial planning at the city-region level. In some cases, the instruments are more integrated (Eindhoven, Lille, Firenze); in other cases, the instruments are more minimalist (Brussels, Brno, Krakow...).

The question is whether the city-region level has also a specific visibility and framework. Less or non-institutional forms and instruments were found on a differently specified level in different countries. Some of them can be and should be implemented in a way to build it into the formal systems and to spread active operational practice of local governments, territorial state administration, and territorial branches of civil and entrepreneurial organisations. However, particular solutions, development of own models, etc. depend very much on specific economic and social circumstances.

(1) In Belgium, each of the 3 regional strategic and spatial plans underlines the importance of coordination at the city-region level, However, in practice, a structured dialogue over strategic and spatial planning at the metropolitan level has never been implemented between the 3 Regions, at least until now. Actually, for the Brussels metropolitan area, cooperation is more organised through specific project development, such as the construction of the Regional Mass Rapid Transit Railway Network (RER), the construction of a water treatment plant or the management of trans-regional forests and rivers. These collaboration projects are implemented through “Cooperation Agreements” signed between the Brussels-Capital Region and the other two Regions and sometimes with the Federal State.
Transport investments generate city competitiveness and impact on social cohesion. However, this influence is not really direct from the point of view of all the different groups of inhabitants. For instance, stakeholders in competition are not typically from deprived strata in local society. In general, the successfully sustainable character of mobility is also linked to the wealthier areas occupied either by residents or businesses. Car dependency in suburban areas is higher than average. Preserving the good quality of life means to maintain opportunities to benefit from jobs and services, whilst reducing any harmful environmental impact. Social groups are interested in promotion of flexible forms of coordination and cooperation in challenging city-regions in order to improve their everyday circumstances.

The term “governance” covers many kinds of managing relationships, which involve not just agencies of professional bureaucracy but also civil associations, non-governmental organisations, private-public partnerships, etc. Governance can be an instrument for the development of collective actions in the complex city-region on the necessary basis of operating mobility. This makes the particular area unified and complex enough to take part in global competition. It seems that with the help of these managing practices, new transport (and communication) technologies encourage involvement of city-regions and help them to maximise their opportunities from either economic or social points of view.

1. Lessons learned from the case of Florence

The metropolitan area of Florence has a high degree of inter-municipal cooperation. First of all, 4 municipalities out of eleven (Sesto Fiorentino, Campi Bisenzio, Calenzano and Signa) had had experience of the management of administrative functions before these had been delegated to the Provincial authority. Secondly, the 11 municipalities use and often own shares of the same public utility companies in the transport and mobility sector (Bus and Parking companies), housing (Public housing company), water, energy and gas supply,
waste management. Thirdly, the strategic plan of Florence contains ongoing metropolitan projects (e-government, metropolitan public park network, mobility agency, “the healthy society” project) and projects in which more than one municipality are involved (Tramway, Scientific & Technological University pole, railways renewal projects). Finally, the Association in charge of the strategic planning project, “Firenze Futura”, is made up of 9 out of the 11 municipalities in the metropolitan area. Moreover, the mayors of the 11 municipalities regularly participate in a Metropolitan Conference where metropolitan issues as well as the institution of a second level authority (Union of Municipalities) have already been debated.

Integration in utilities management cannot be put together in such a way as to institutionalise it at a formal metropolitan area level of government. That’s the reason why the second strategic plan of the Florentine metropolitan area tries to create more flexible conditions for a process of union of some administrative functions at a metropolitan level.

The project to create a Union of Municipalities also relies on three other main aspects attesting that the Union is a win-win process:

- The Florence Municipality needs the collaboration of neighbouring municipalities to cope with mobility, congestion and the new localisation of productive areas; insofar as the “Florence” brand is really useful to the other 10 municipalities in terms of international tourist attraction as well as local handcrafts promotion;
- The Union would make municipalities consider the effects of their policies on the metropolitan area in the priority-making process;
- The existence of the bureaucratic apparatus of the Union would grant continuity of the integration process.

1.1. Development of Firenze Futura in utility, mobility, and interlinked functions

In this framework, political efforts are moving toward the creation of a visible supra-local cooperative organisation comprising the 11 municipalities with a view to managing services and other local authority functions. In particular, this supra-local government body would be responsible for planning (strategic planning, city planning, and management of mobility) as well as local authority functions (building permission, public local transport licenses, administrative tasks relating to fairs and markets, tourist facilities etc.) and local police and security functions.

At the Central Tuscany metropolitan system level, the Tuscany Region, the Provinces of Florence, Prato, and Pistoia and the Empolese Valdelsa district have signed a local development agreement to finance projects within the regional metropolitan system. This agreement would cover an important part of the regionally managed European Community intervention funds for the environment, mobility, local development, research and innovation, local welfare and culture.

As a consequence of the signature of the Pact for the government of the Florence metropolitan area between all municipalities of the province of Florence, the Province of Florence and the Tuscany Region, in the 1996 a Metropolitan Conference (board of institutional representatives) was created. After some years of sound work in which issues such as mobility, urban planning and waste recycling policy had been tackled since 2002, the role of the Metropolitan Conference had been passed on to the brand-new association called Firenze 2010 (today Firenze Futura), whose mission was to implement the first strategic plan of the Florence metropolitan area and institutional partners such as municipalities in the Florence urban area, the Province of Florence, the Tuscany Region, the Florence Chamber of Commerce and social partners.

Firenze 2010 is still working on the creation of the union of municipalities of the Florentine metropolitan area.
Firenze Futura’s partners are the Chamber of commerce, a local industrial association, trade unions, small and medium-sized enterprise associations, mutual company associations, retailer associations, farmers’ associations, the Province of Florence, the Tuscany Region, the Superintendence of Florence museums and the municipalities of Florence, Bagno a Ripoli, Campi Bisenzio, Fiesole, Impruneta, Pontassieve, Scandicci, Sesto Fiorentino and Signa.

1.2. The PINCO project for mobility in the Florence area

There is a project, called PINCO that aims to promote dialogue for a common vision in terms of mobility in order to implement The Integrated Mobility Plan for the Florentine Metropolitan Area. This plan is an instrument to reduce private vehicle traffic significantly and generate synergies between different methods of public transport and other forms of sustainable transport models (bicycle paths, pedestrian areas, etc.). PINCO was launched by the Metropolitan Association for Mobility and it is planned to work under the umbrella of Firenze Futura. All municipalities and other stakeholders will be able to participate in the preparation of the project.

1.3. Public–Private Partnerships in urban development

Private involvement is relatively intensive in integrated solutions. Stakeholders’ role is relevant to the maintenance of the local airport. They are also involved in different forms of co-financing of the public transport company (ATAF) in the city area. They own shares and, for instance, the management has launched the system of sponsorship of particular bus stops. Private resources are also allocated to the development of new tram lines linking the surrounding area with the city of Florence. The method is BOT (build-operate-transfer).

2. Similarities and differences between partner cities

There are different instruments of governance of public transport at the city-region level everywhere. The main task is to enhance the framework for mobility. Different forms of administration and governance work together to reduce risks of unbalanced urban development at city regional level. Some examples of good methods used follow (see below). Examples mean that others might adopt the same or similar solutions as part of their governing practice.

Provision of public transport by city management with extended territorial power

In Krakow public transport is managed by an agency of the city, called Municipal Infrastructure and Transport Management Authority. However, in addition to Krakow, its area of operation also covers neighbouring municipalities on the basis of an agreement on the joint provision of public transport. In Burgas, this function is provided, to some extent, directly by the city public transport company.

Integrated public transport systems

Integrated transport systems are working at city region level in the Brno area managed by the South Moravian Region. Concerning public mobility in Seville, a Metropolitan Transport Authority has been established involving the regional government and more than 20 municipalities. This integration consists of planning, development projects, and establishment of a single fare system for the metropolitan area as a whole and other activity.

Contracting systems

Formal contracts exist between public sector actors in Brussels-Capital and its morphological area. There is a contract between the three regions for public transport, investment plans for railways and maintenance of roads. There is also a contract between Brussels-Capital Region and Flanders Region for road management and public transport.
Another formal agreement between the Brussels-Capital Region and the Federal State aims to subsidise Brussels’ role as capital of Belgium and Europe. The system of delegation of public services is more traditional in France. Cooperative local governments in city-regions (EPCIs) as joint groupings are able to establish a Syndicat Mixte des Transports (SMT) as the competent authority for public transport. EPCIs or SMTs can delegate provision of services to private operators. These types of public-private contracts for the provision of public services are very well developed legal institutions.

Project management for integrated transport
Public-private cooperation works in project management for transport in many countries. For instance, PINCO is one of them in the Florentine area. On the other hand, the new high speed travel concept ‘Phileas’ is another good example from the Eindhoven region. Private involvement was significant here in terms of investment. Furthermore, public participation in the decision-making process was also relevant as well as in the phase of implementation of the whole concept.
Externalities in environmental problems are a very broad theme, so we narrowed this topic down in advance to focus on specific and practical issues more related to governance. Our initial preference was for solid waste management and operation of sewage systems, waste water disposal, and treatment at the city region level. In the seminar, mainly water treatment was preferred to the above-mentioned issues. However, notes on partner cities scrutinise the other themes as well.

So far, a set of city region instruments of governance was found on the occasions of previous seminars. In Eindhoven, for instance, inter-municipal cooperation (SRE) was introduced at the level of the urban area. In addition to this mainly horizontal form of cooperation, in Florence city region vertical cooperation was also relevant, among other things such as involvement of different levels of government in a strategy-oriented formal institution [Firenze Futura]. We also realised the involvement of private actors, entrepreneurs in both cases. Going forward, our aim is to enhance this experience of specific solutions, seminar by seminar. However, it is known that we cannot get a full picture from short direct impressions about one or another city-region. Examples are good for us as lessons to draw possible consequences with wider relevance for European cities and their urban areas.

The term governance covers many kinds of managing relationships. In this game, players can be very different. They are levels of administration, types of local government, national government, public bodies, private stakeholders, etc. On the other hand, apart from actors, methods can be really varied. Managing projects, making financial incentives, funded from private sources, etc. are very popular instruments. Collection of relevant knowledge in the establishment and enhancement of a wider scale of cooperation and introducing active forms of harmonisation as policy orientations can be relevant for local politicians and also members of Local Support Groups to strengthen or make Local Action Plans of their own. This added value, which is politically relevant from the European point of view, makes common efforts in favour of a city regional integrated approach easier than before.
Environmental issues are quite good examples for the development of non-structural forms of administration, policy-making, introducing financial incentives and involving the public.

1. Lessons learned from the case of Seville

In order to correctly approach the question of governance, here we present new ways of innovative spatial strategic planning of regional development. The terms “metropolitan area” are preferred to “city-region”. It refers directly to the Agglomeration of Seville, which comprises 46 municipalities including the city, with around one and a half million inhabitants, 50 percent of whom live outside the city itself.

Nowadays there is not any structure or board for metropolitan governance. However, the approach now is to create one in the very near future. This future board should consider as partners: the Seville city council, the rest of the 45 municipalities in the metropolitan area around the central city. the province and the region of Andalusia could also play a role. This structural idea is based on real cooperation here, among others, in the field of environment friendly and sustainable development.

1.1. Public sector companies in regional development

The role of public sector companies is very important in the fields of ecology and renewable energy, because they have been developing programmes for the promotion of these technologies.

On the other hand, local economic development focuses on the production of energy this way, as the largest solar energy production works in Europe is located in the city-region. Other entities include specialised companies involved in development systems and applications for making energy from renewable sources or in lending for services for installation systems such as this.

1.2. Public sector companies in urban service provision

Effective metropolitan cooperation is working in the field of public transport through the Consorcio Metropolitano de Transportes [a public agency under public law], which was generated by an initiative of the Regional Government of Andalusia. There is a definition of tasks, a formal budget, other funding possibilities, etc.

Thanks to the decision of the Seville City Council, water-cycle management has been opened up to other municipalities in the area. The public sector water company [EMASESA] provides services to 45 other municipalities by merging small public sector water companies. This management by stock-holdings represents a special form of cooperation at the city region level. To establish this format, a broad political consensus was needed, based on common types of party affiliation at that time. Nevertheless, the common organisational framework for public service provision is based on consumer fees exclusively, to make it non-dependent on the initial political intention later on, when other majorities are eventually in power.
2. Similarities and differences between partner cities

There are different forms of non-structured administration dealing with the provision of widespread urban services concentrated on environmental sustainability. Some key characteristics are listed here, such as:

- specific co-operation between different levels of government;
- management through public or public-private companies;
- public strategic management at city region level for managing common utility services;
- specialised public institutions with a historic tradition.

2.1. Specialised governmental co-operation

AOTA in Italy

The water network is managed by inter-municipal authorities that govern areas that the region had defined as optimal. The Optimal Territorial Area (OTA) concept had been introduced by the national law on the water service. The authority that governs the OTA - the AOTA - is a consortium of municipalities. AOTA’s role is to plan, organise and control the integrated water cycle, but it cannot manage it directly. Hence, the AOTA selects, entrusts and controls a utility management firm that is used to manage the integrated water cycle. The AOTA aims also to guarantee an optimal level of drinkable water supply and, at the same time, preserve the quality of water, respect the environmental preference and protect users’ interests.

By regional law, the Tuscany Region has divided its territory into 6 OTAs. The Florence city region has a stake in OTA number 3, namely the Medio Valdarno OTA. This OTA n.3 includes 53 municipalities belonging to 4 different Provinces (Arezzo, Firenze, Prato, Pistoia) and provides water to about 1,200,000 inhabitants. Publiacqua s.p.a. is the firm whose shares are mainly owned by municipalities, which since 2002 have managed the water cycle of OTA 3. This means that Publiacqua provides water, defines the water rates and manages the aqueduct, the sewers and water purification. The “Arno” River Basin Authority supervises the activity of the AOTA. Basin authorities are specific bodies instituted jointly by the National State and the Region that used to govern hydrographical basins intended as single systems and as optimal areas (regardless of administrative boundaries) for soil and subsoil conservation, the rehabilitation of water supply and for environment protection. The Basin Authority is the place where all decisions concerning the basin of a river are planned and where all the levels of government are represented.

COTA in Italy

As for water, even waste is managed at an inter-municipal level: the Optimal Territorial Area (OTA). The authority that governs an OTA is a consortium of municipalities called the Community of the Optimal Territorial Area (COTA). A COTA adopts the Industrial Waste Management Plan; rules on and monitors the methods of waste management; fixes waste tax rates and entrusts firms to manage the service. In October 2008, the OTAs of Florence, Prato, and Pistoia joined the OTA of Central Tuscany, which now consists of 77 municipalities.

Cooperation agreements between regions in Belgium

Cooperation on environmental issues at city-region level is implemented through the signature of Cooperation agreements between the Brussels-Capital Region and the other two regions or with the central government. These contracts are really an agreement between parties of the federation and no more. They do not cover any functional division of tasks or delegation of any function from one to another.

The same goes for monitoring movements of waste. Waste can in principle move freely between the Belgian Regions. However, the Region of Wallonia has enacted a ban on landfill for waste from other Regions. Exemptions may be obtained by a rigorous application procedure to the Walloon Waste Office (OWd). The Memorandum of Understanding which forms the basis of this application procedure has
expired since 1994, but the two regions continue to collaborate on this basis. There are no restrictions on transfers of waste to the Flemish Region. The movement of waste to and from this region is monitored by data from a register.

2.2. Public sector companies in the provision of public utility services

The most interesting tradition of involvement of private companies in the provision of solid waste and healthy drinking water supply is in France. Delegation of public competences, notably service provision, means public sector contractual relationships with private providers under the control of the public administration. However, at the same time, service fees are covered by consumers on the basis of their private contracts. So except for what concerns infrastructure, there are no subsidies in this relationship. In the case of Lille city region, this task is done at the level of the Lille Métropole Communauté Urbaine. The function is entrusted to this statutory body `at large’ in the cases of solid waste collection and disposal. As far as water management is concerned, delegations of competence are spread among some of the big companies that work in the water basins.

Public sector companies play an important role in other cities in our group. In these cases, the content of public sector action is closer to the municipal content. This means companies are owned by territorially involved local governments, such as EMASESA in Seville. Similarly, in the city region of Florence, delivery of most of the local utility services is managed in this way.

In another model, the city-municipality has simply a stake [not necessarily a majority stake] in the service-providing company. The city of Brno has 51% stakes in the water and sewage company. On the other hand, waste management is based on a contract between the city and the operator of the service. Surrounding municipalities from the city region seem to be linked to the delivery system on a contractual basis.

3. Role of strategic planning in the provision of public utility services

In general, waste and water management plans are based on territorial and regional linkages. In the case of waste, the concerned area can be large and service effectiveness; economies of scale are focused very much by different development projects. Among others, Krakow, Brno and Burgas are influenced by different initiatives including EU ones. As far as water treatment and supply are concerned, the water basin forms a natural unit of basic management of services to be provided.

Strategic planning is a basis for policy-making in areas of public services, such as waste management and delivery of water and sewage services. At the same time, programmes and projects are to be built on strategic planning, especially through EU Structural Funds, with other sources of funds from the EBRD, etc.

4. Public institutions focused on collective tasks

Water Boards in the Netherlands

The Water Boards are one of the oldest democratic institutions in the Netherlands. Water management is very important, since around a quarter of the Netherlands lies below sea level. Like the central government, the provinces and the municipalities, Water Boards are public bodies. The water authorities are responsible for protecting the land against the water. Their work includes the construction and maintenance of dams, dykes, and locks, the control of water flows and levels, and the maintenance of water quality. Water Board executive councils are elected by property owners in their localities. In recent years, other residents have also been granted the right to vote. However, the chairman of the executive committee is appointed by the government.
Contemporary studies on innovative processes make use of a range of scales, from the global to the regional and local. In addition, network-based approaches have introduced a non-territorially bounded dimension to studies of innovation. Our investigation has pointed to the importance of city-regional interconnections. This viewpoint seeks to build upon such insights suggesting that greater attention should be given to territorial connections in studies of innovation. At the same time, extra-local interconnection is extended beyond the globalisation of research and development, especially between trans-national corporations, which is the obvious environment of the innovation issue these days.

There have been many efforts made to regenerate cities as the basis for the construction of new institutional alliances and policy networks supported by a series of urban-based initiatives. Successive governments premised their intervention on the assumption that cities (and particular parts thereof) were the most appropriate geographical level around which to organise policy intervention. In pursuing this city-based agenda, the policies are themselves instrumental in constituting the city as an object of policy: a problem in need of a solution. It explores regeneration policy and the political implications of the shift away from ‘marginal localism’ towards an alternative model of ‘city-based regional actions’.

1. Lessons learned from the case of Brno

The municipal government of Brno is very active in making and implementing city strategy in order to realise its vision of being an intellectual centre of innovation within the European region. Efforts of the city are combined with the activities of the South Moravian Region, namely in the framework of the South Moravian Innovation Centre. It obtains financial support, and provides advice, contacts and space for start-up companies, as well as other services covering the regional area as a whole.

Urban development projects are implemented mainly in the Brno industrial zone, the Czech Technology Park Brno and the Masaryk University
Campus in Brno–Bohunice. The Brno industrial zone is focused on investments in the processing industry, strategic services, and technological centres. The Czech Technology Park Brno has been established for high-tech industry to generate synergy between research, development, and business. The university campus focuses on education and research, especially in the field of biotechnology and preclinical research.

Lessons learned from the case relate mainly to the involvement of different actors from the area with greater capabilities and interests in innovation. Particular examples of activities are presented here below.

1.1. Innovation centres and project orientation development
Although innovation centres are initiated mainly by public funds, development and research activities are based on different projects from the EU and any other private money. Among the latter, an example of private funding is the New Technologies for Mechanical Engineering (NETME) project, which was presented in the seminar. Nevertheless, the whole initiative is involved in the integrative Brno City development plan. Its implementation is under the umbrella of Brno University of Technology.

The research project called the Central European Institute of Technology (CEITEC) is the largest planned investment in research and development. Brno’s position in the field of innovation technologies should be consolidated and significantly improved through projects like these. The CEITEC is a unique trans-regional project being prepared in the Brno area. The project is based on an idea common to universities, Academy of Science Institutes and the departmental research institutes in Brno. The CEITEC has established itself as a centre of scientific excellence dedicated to research and development in the areas of biotechnologies and advanced materials technologies. The project meets the need for concentration and increases R&D competitiveness in the Czech Republic.

Simultaneously, the utilisation of outcomes is emphasised. The project aspires to be funded by the European Research and Development Fund through its Research and Development for Innovations Operational Programme.

1.2. Creative clusters
An example of creative clusters is BRNOPOLIS, also introduced in the seminar. Brnopolis is a non-profit project for local people in creative professions, who share their experience and interest in international city development. It includes moderated multiblogging on the web and the open coffee face to face informal meetings that are a part of the network of events held in over 80 cities around the world. It is important that neither formal institutions nor municipalities are involved in the management of the knowledge economy in general. However, universities and especially motivated local governments take part in projects relevant to this issue.
2. Similarities and differences between partner cities

There are different forms of governance of the knowledge economy at city-region levels in partner cities. Some main characteristics are listed here, such as:

- institutional initiatives
- managing creative clusters
- direct knowledge management with spatial relevance.

2.1. Institutional initiatives

Conseil de Développement in Lille métropole

The Conseil de Développement was created in 2002 as a statutory body to favour consultation and citizen participation. It is composed of 150 unelected representatives of civil society (associations, trade unions, businesses etc) and personalities from Lille Métropole, but also from neighbouring areas (Belgium and the Coal Mining area). The Conseil de développement provides advice and recommendations on issues that are being debated by the Lille Métropole council. It also promotes specific development projects in such fields as culture, employment, the housing market etc. Since 2004, at the city region level, nine councils of development (from Lille Métropole and from the different agglomerations around Lille) are working together to promote specific development projects and support the Lille Metropolitan Area project. Conseil de développement is very active in the promotion of the knowledge society in the Lille area.

Special Economic Zone in Krakow

The Special Economic Zone, established by the regulation of the Council of Ministers issued in 1997, was designed to operate from 1998 to 2017. The Kraków Special Economic Zone consists of 19 subzones within a territory made up of 17 municipalities. The land designed for capital investments in the Krakow Metropolitan Area is situated in quite a few subzones. The Kraków Special Economic Zone offers its investors primarily greenfield land and office space for lease.

2.2. Non-institutional initiatives

Cooperation managed by non public sector actors in the Brussels capital region

The universities in the metropolitan area (Brussels, Leuven, Louvain la Neuve) cooperate within the framework of European and Belgian research programmes. Universities cooperate within the framework of European federal research programmes. The chamber of commerce and the business associations in 3 regions work together in order to draw up a vision for the future of the metropolitan area of Brussels. Through the Regional Plan for innovation, financial support is provided to either universities or companies. There are also services offered by the Region to support innovative companies.

2.3. Knowledge management with spatial relevance

Creative framework for incubations in Florence

The regional government encourages cooperation between actors operating in Tuscany in the field of advanced training, public and private research and transfer of the results through the setting up of a coordination process called regional research network, consisting of the Regional Government. Local bodies, universities, advanced training high schools, research institutes. They carry out research activities; operate scientific technology parks, and other projects relating to the circulation and transfer of knowledge, with particular reference to private companies in regional healthcare service and local public service companies. Within this operational framework, which has a strong interactive and inter-relational dimension, the Florence Technological Incubator and art & craft incubation should be viewed as significant examples of the relationship between the city of Florence and the Tuscan region in the field of innovation.

The Florence Technological Incubator, established after a Memorandum was signed in 2000 between
Florence City Council, the Provincial Administration of Florence, the Chamber of Commerce of Florence and the University of Florence in order to create a metropolitan incubation system, offers businesses in the area of technological infrastructures and support, training and consultancy services for the creation and development of small businesses in highly innovative sectors and to encourage the process of technological transfer and innovation.

The mission of the Florence Incubator is to assist the creation and development of innovative and technological businesses within a “facilitated” and stimulating environment through pre-incubation, incubation and aggregation services. The Region financed the rebuilding of the future site of the incubator and it’s now starting the organisation of the structure that is supposed to be led by the Research and Technological Transfer Foundation partners, i.e. the commercial chambers of Pistoia, Prato and Florence, the Provinces of Prato, Pistoia and Florence and the University of Florence.

The creative incubator called ‘Space of Art and Craft’ (Italian abbreviation: SAM) deals with the promotion, enhancement and economic and cultural development of the craft, artistic and business enterprises of Florence. The creative incubator aims to give space to the new economy, while taking into account the historical economy and the need to respect and help people / artists / workers to find a comfortable place within a typical services spin-off incubator.

ELA linking to the Eindhoven area
The triangle of Eindhoven, Leuven and Aachen (ELA) is a transnational geographically concentrated area with potential to become a top European technology region. Due to the intermediary position of the ELA-triangle between the Flemish Urban network, the Ruhr Area and the Dutch Randstad, the significance of cooperation within the ELA-triangle surpasses the scale of these regions. Creating favourable conditions is necessary to become a top technology region. These three all together are able to fulfil the criteria in terms of capabilities. Transnational cooperation between Eindhoven, Leuven and Aachen means a larger economic and knowledge base, urban diversity (though knowledge economy foundations). The triangle has a potential to become a Top Technology region, because of the presence of 5 top universities, institutions and strong business activities.

The common issue in this subgroup may be the existence of indirect public management with a relatively strong but informal spatial character at the level of city-regions. Critical mass needs to be achieved in research, development and innovation, in order to create economies of scale and to increase the scope of development in the global economy.
3. Conclusion of group discussion on key issues relating to managing the knowledge economy at city-region level

• What is the evidence for the need to tackle the issue of the knowledge economy / creativity, research and education at the city-region level?

These factors are listed by participating partners in priority order, according to the weighting of preference:

- Critical mass
- Mobilisation of public resources
- Human factor – human ecosystem that favours initiatives
- Part of the development strategy
- Availability of land
- Unfair competition in the surrounding area (mutual benefit)
- Quality of life
- Provision of services (education, etc.) / externalities
- Tax / tax systems
- Legal competences

• What types of mechanisms are needed to develop the knowledge economy / creativity, research & education at city-region level and for involvement in city region cooperation?

These factors are listed by the group in priority order, according to the weighting of preference:

- Bringing together players (public, academic, private) – questions of leadership, commitment
- Strategy making (strategy process)
- Project management (common)
- Managing expectations – win-win situations / agreements
- Individual entrepreneurs as "trainers" (ambassadors)
- Competition for public funds
- Networking (open coffee meetings)
- "3 T" of economic development of Richard Florida: Talent, Tolerance, Technology.
In its investigations, the Working Group did not concentrate on public–private partnership (PPP) as such, but rather focused on the role the private sector can play in metropolitan governance, or the management-side of private mechanisms for public purposes at city-region levels. However, in order to be more specific, we should start by differentiating between the various meanings of PPP arrangements in public management.

Partnership can be a framework and / or a method for service delivery at different government levels. 

New Public Management focused very much on business involvement in service provision. At the beginning, cost saving was the key motivation, or ethos of this choice of policy options. In the French system, the delegation of public services has a long tradition of sui generis development, however in a similar direction. Specific forms of public–private contracts, such as concession agreements and others (especially “affermage”, “régie intéressée”, “gérance”) have been working since the 19th century. These public administrative instruments have played a very important role in the French regime to raise awareness of the importance of economies of size, and quality standards in the provision of particular services. It may also be a key element these days in a wider European context, i.e. to find the spatial relevance of any economic involvement in fulfilling, social functions or getting benefits from a higher level of urban-based service provision.

Another aspect is based more on traditional Public-Private Partnerships, which are firmly entrenched as delivery mechanisms for infrastructure projects across many sectors in a number of European countries. Properly structured, PPPs are to deliver value for money to the public sector, acceleration of government investment programmes and a genuine transfer of risk to the party best able to manage it. In its meaning, PPPs are mainly private finance initiatives. Effective management, particularly during the construction phase, can generate significant cost savings. Till now, there is quite a lot of experience in PPP methods to be adapted for particular needs of a variety of different sectors, including transport, health, education, waste management, social
hiring, and even the supply of some local authority functions. PPP is often not only a method but a form of long-term, strategic concept and partnership. It may be implemented either in development or reconstruction projects. The latter are crucial in depressed areas or for revitalizing particular industrial zones and linked urban functions. More recent forms of PPP include alliance partnerships, non-profit distributing models and various “risk-minimising” structures. From the current credit crisis and the related reduction in the availability of funding for projects might result further innovation in PPP structures.

Private and voluntary sectors can also be involved in conducting public tasks in a ‘functional’ way. This means informal methods of problem-solving that enhance local democratic institutions, but avoid typical issues of constitutional legitimacy generated through general elections. Different new forums for citizen representation have been established, especially at city-region levels. Territorial organisations of chambers of commerce and, other bodies of private or non-governmental stakeholders are quite typical. The city-regional level seems to be appropriate to emphasise flexible needs of the global or / and Euro-regional economy.

In some countries, France and Italy in particular, there is also linkage of different sectors where chambers, especially of commerce (there are also Chambers of crafts and Chambers of agriculture) are legally established public bodies representing the private sector. Membership is compulsory for all businesses because they are obliged to pay membership fees (a sort of ‘tax’) to the Chambers.

1. Lessons learned from the case of Kraków

A main lesson learned is that PPP is a sequencing process rather than a category of (high) quality as such. It is clear that quite strong counter-interests are working beside formal institutions. In the case of Krakow and its area, a lot of efforts have been made to face risks and avoid fallacies. As a result many good practical examples prove the existence of opportunities for involving and mobilising business activities. Particular factors could be systematised in the following way.

1.1. The role of formal basics

National regulation was established in two phases in Poland. The first law passed in 2005 focused on forms of cooperation between the public and private sectors. This regulation directly followed the PPP initiative of the European Commission. The Polish law was important from the point of view of harmonisation because it defined different provisions of contracts; however, it was not implemented because of the missing details from the legal environment. Subsequently, mistakes were corrected and a new regulation was approved and started to work from the beginning of 2009. The legal and social background needs to be defined for any efficient realization of linkages between public and private sectors in the context of a market economy.

1.2. Incentives for PPP

Malopolska Agency for Regional Development

In the case of Krakow and its city area, the regional level is an engine to promote private investments for the fulfilment of public tasks. An agency for regional development is maintained by the regional self-government: the Malopolska Agency for Regional Development. The Agency initiates and supports the implementation of different PPP projects in the Krakow Metropolitan Area. This type of project is represented especially by the following development activities: projected construction of congress centres, sport halls, blocks of flats, an underground car park, a swimming pool, etc.
Work in Progress
There are quite significant steps to take in order to clarify conditions of PPP projects. However, there might be threat of crucial counter-interests like: corruption, waste of money. One of the most important aims is that frameworks for competition for procurements and contracts should be clear, transparent and obviously public. In addition, there is a strong motivation on the part of the public authorities to reach a constant win-win partnership through learning by a step-by-step process. In order to guarantee this progress, stakeholders should be brought together: an interesting instrument for this is a centre for PPP training. Another important issue is that PPP projects should be supervised by the public budgetary process, in spite of the partial or total private financing. This is very important from the point of view of transparency.

Role of capabilities
PPP investments need relevant capabilities. The Malopolska Region has about 3 million inhabitants. The Kraków area is attractive enough, for instance because of the 200 thousand students, a source of specific demands. There are informal efforts to develop different types of cooperation between Kraków and 52 surrounding municipalities. Nevertheless it also seems that the existing district (voivodship) level is not very interested in this process. Otherwise, this progress in its formal expression still depends on national legislation establishing metropolitan areas as such.

2. Similarities and differences between partner cities

One should first make the difference between quite different types of involvement of the private sector in the governance of city-regions/metropolitan areas:

2.1. There are more or less formal bodies that associate public and private partners. They are generally created in order to advise or influence the policy-making at metropolitan level. Theses bodies also play often an important role in the promotion of the city-region, inside and outside, among politicians and the wider public.

2.2. There are proper PPPs and other forms of private sector direct interventions in the fulfilment of public tasks, with different forms of governance in their management at city-region levels in partner cities.

The main characteristics that may be focused on:
- development agencies as public clients
- legal regulatory background in the field of contracts, companies, etc.
- good examples as possible models to be followed

2.3. In addition, there are also other forms of semi-public/semi-private organisations acting at metropolitan level:
- private sector organisations created by the public sector in order to facilitate cooperation or other tasks
- the specific case of French and Italian Chambers of commerce, that are public authorities representing the private sector

2.4. And should be also mentioned fully public organisations whose role is to foster the involvement of the private sector.
2.1. Advisory / promotion bodies

2.1.1. Formal co-operations
Conseil de Développement in Lille métropole
The Conseil de Développement is a statutory body to favour consultation and citizens’ participation. It is composed of delegated representatives of civil society (associations, trade unions, business etc.) and personalities from Lille Métropole, but also from the neighbouring international areas. The Conseil promotes specific development projects in such fields as culture, employment, the housing market, etc. At the city region level, eight other councils are working in the different agglomerations around Lille. They work together to promote specific development projects, but have only an advisory role to local authorities.

2.1.2. Initiatives coming from the private sector
There are different Boards based on private or non-governmental interests to foster cooperation in the delivery of specific public tasks, especially future development programmes.

Brnopolis
Brnopolis is an open Brno community of people in creative professions, and interested in international city development. The non-profit apolitical initiative invites and exchange opinions and experience through this moderated weblog, as well as face-to-face informal meetings held through the Open Coffee Club, which meets in over 80 cities around the world.

Committee of Grand Lille
The Committee of Grand Lille is an informal association of civil society members, mainly consisting of entrepreneurs, but with the participation of academics, politicians, artists, civil servants, etc. The activities of this organisation aim, for instance, at applying for the hosting of the Olympic Games or to be European City of Culture. This is a type of non-institution in itself.

Business Route for Metropolitan Brussels
The Brussels Metropolitan Business Route is an initiative from the business sector. With the wish to cope with the Brussels internationalisation, the business sector from the three regions decided together to propose their vision for the future of the city region in a document named “the Business Route for Metropolitan Brussels”. This Business Route for Metropolitan Brussels was promoted by the three organisations representing the business sector of the 3 regions: BECI for Brussels-Capital Region, VOKA for Flanders Region, and UWE f for Wallonia Region with the support and cooperation of the FEB, the National organisation representing the enterprises in Belgium.

2.2. PPPs and private sector interventions

2.2.1. Development agencies promoting linkages among different sectors
There are different bodies and organisations that manage public and private co-operation in development projects for their cities. Among others, a selected format is the agency structures found in Lille Métropole, Brussels Capital Region and, as mentioned before, Krakow.

APIM
The “Agence pour la Promotion Internationale de Lille Métropole” is an association (NGO - Law 1901) created in 1985 jointly by the Lille Metropole Chamber of Commerce and Industry and by Lille Metropole Communauté urbaine. Its missions are:

- to foster the development of Lille Metropole and to promote its image, both nationally and internationally
- to canvass for new businesses in France and abroad and to help investors to develop their projects

Brussels Enterprise Agency
Furthermore, in the Brussels Capital Region, there is a Regional Public Body called the Brussels Enterprise Agency, which supports entrepreneurs
by helping them to find the most suitable partners or formal institutions to consolidate their projects. These types of activities are done by Chambers of Commerce at regional levels in other partner cities or city regions.

2.2.2. Legal background

a) PPP is based on contracts deeply influenced by different historical legal traditions. Some fall under civil law, especially private and company law. Build-Operate-Transfer (BOT), Design-Build-Maintain-Operate-Finance (DBMOF) and other combinations of complex activities make it possible to involve private investors, companies, service providers in public functions while preserving the responsibility of local governments. This Anglo-Saxon tradition is followed by the Eindhoven City Region. Lille has started to experiment it for the building of its new stadium.

b) The other model is based on the French tradition. In our group, this public law solution may be represented especially by Lille and Florence and, to some extent, Brussels.

As far as the French origin is concerned, the Communauté Urbaine is the basic public player as a formal subject of public law. In the framework of the traditional “delegation of public services”, there are examples of concession agreements in public transport (operation of the whole network: metro, trams, buses ...), water supply, waste disposal and the private management of public functions (management of the airport). The next group of legal solutions is that of semi-public or semi-private (mixed) companies, in which private and public stakes are divided. Crucial developments, construction projects and urban development projects (see Euralille) are operated by joint companies in this way (especially for investing in conference and exhibition centres). The management is private, while control can be public by a 51% of stakeholding, for instance (legally a minimum in the French case). This allows local authorities to take part in project developed in other parts of the metropolitan area (as for instance Delta3 in the Lille case). Also, a traditional way of maintaining private management of public services is to manage public services under this legal construction. This type of model works for example in water supply, solid waste collection and disposal, and in other fields of infrastructural public services at local and regional levels.

c) Krakow and Brno: like other representatives of transition countries in Europe, these cities started to follow combined models but gradually built up solutions based on publicly defined private contracts. European regulations keep the right of selection in the hands of national governments.

2.2.3. Some examples

In most of the cases, Local Support Groups such as public bodies are considered as of city-regional public–private contacts between stakeholders and other public clients. Firenze Futura seems to be this type of forum and the technical committee of the Lille Metropolitan Area is a similar public one.

At the same time, some initiatives may be presented as good frameworks for PPP projects, such as Brnopolis (Brno), a good example of a creative approach to international city development based on cooperation with NGOs; Business Route for Metropolitan Brussels (Brussels-Capital Region); development of the tramway system and operation of the airport (Florence), revitalization of Kazimierz Borough, the Old Jewish Quarter (Kraków), “Solvay” Soda Chemical Plant revitalization project (Kraków), activity of Vankovka Civic Association for a similar purpose (Brno), i.e. the construction of highways and recreation grounds (see Eindhoven City Region).

2.3. Other types of semi-public, semi-private organisations

2.3.1. Delegated organizations for promoting cooperation

There are delegated bodies with a “general competence” to promote co-operation among public,
private and voluntary actors on a territorial basis. On the other hand, quite a lot of Boards are working in favour of co-operation with particular motivations and / or for particular purposes.

**General delegated bodies**
The *Lille Metropolitan Area* (Aire Métropolitaine de Lille) works as a formal French association. It is a non profit organisation that brings together only public sector partners in order to represent and manage the co-operation process in the broader city-region. At the same time, another format of such cooperation is a European structure such as the Eurometropole Lille Kortrijk Tournai based on proportional representation of the involved cross-border parties, but this is a full-fledged public sector body (EGTC).

**ADT**
An Urban Development Agency (ADT) has been created in 2008 in Brussels in order to coordinate the development of the projects in the 10 poles indicated in the International Development Plan. Moreover this Agency is also implementing an urban marketing project to foster the image and attractiveness of a specific zone along the Canal. ADT is a formal Belgian law association, whose members are all public authorities.

**Agence de développement et d’urbanisme**
in Lille is quite a similar structure, a formal French association [legally a private body] whose members are mostly public: Lille métropole communauté urbaine, National government, Region, etc. Some private sector organisations are also members: Chamber of commerce, chamber of agriculture, Medef [Union of businesses]. The Agence is in charge of coordinating the metropolitan cooperation process together with Mission Bassin Minier, another similar association created in 2000 by the National government and Region Nord-Pas de Calais.

2.3.2. Chambers of Commerce
Also in the Lille metropolitan area, the role of the Chamber of Commerce is crucial in representing business interests in city-regional development: according to French law, it is a public body that conducts some public tasks and delivers services crucial to the business sector - but which can also serve the general public – such as sea / river ports and airports. The Florence Chamber of commerce is very similar.

2.4. Public organisations fostering the involvement of the private sector

**Société de Développement Régional de Bruxelles - Brussels Regional Development Agency**
The BRDA’s urban regeneration mission consists of producing housing units for middle-class inhabitants in districts lacking residential construction with the goal of keeping inhabitants in the Region or bringing them back to it. At the beginning, the production of housing was totally financed by the Region but soon it appeared that the public authorities were not able to afford it alone. The BRDA was asked by the Regional government to develop projects in partnerships with the private sector. Until 2007 the BRDA was the owner of the land. It cleaned up the ground and called for candidates. It selected the best project and created a semi-public and semi-private company [Société d’Economie Mixte] to implement the project. A convention on the feasibility and implementation of the project was signed and a description of the accommodation was made. The BRDA subsidised up to 30% of the project. The advantage of this PPP was, according to the BRDA, the flexibility with procurement procedures, but in 2007, the Court of Justice of the European Communities in a judgement declared that such semi-public, semi-private (mixed) companies had to comply with the procurement procedure rules, like private ones.
Metropolitan developments can be characterized by issues that arise between different urban poles and inside urban areas. Inter-urban concerns are mainly linked with competition between cities and city-regional development in a spatial sense. On the other hand, intra-urban issues primarily concern the quality of life, such as security and access to basic services. Social inclusion or cohesion versus social exclusion referred very much to the latter context. However, this does not mean that social inclusion and social cohesion are not to be regarded as key issues in policies aiming at strong city-regions. While inter-urban issues are related to spatial conflicts, influenced at least partly by national government decisions, intra-urban challenges refer to social aspects arising mainly in a bottom-up way. Nevertheless, the requirements of competitiveness between cities and social cohesion should be combined. For this purpose, different economic and social actors have to cooperate with governing actors at any levels in different flexible formats.

However, social exclusion tends to acquire a spatial dimension as market pressure leads to the concentration of the more vulnerable people in some neighbourhoods, obviously the less attractive ones. This can be an internal issue for municipalities. However, this is becoming more and more often a metropolitan issue as it is no longer between neighbourhoods in the same municipalities that this unbalanced development can be observed but between different municipalities in the same metropolitan area.

Participation in such network-like cooperation is usually based on mutual interests, exchange of resources and commitment. Different kinds of collaboration can be distinguished. The move to increase the involvement of the private sector is clear. The private sector has resources that could be used for projects. Private companies usually profit from their investments in financial terms, but sometimes only in terms of public relations. It means a willingness to invest might be looked on as a social commitment. For instance, one of the most important private partners is usually the housing association, but also private companies may be involved. Finally, voluntary and community
sectors (neighbourhood organisations, trade unions, religious or non-religious social care organisations) have become involved in the governance of urban social inclusion.

Local communities have themselves sought a greater say in decision-making. At the same time, local and national governments have looked for opportunities to increase the participation of inhabitants. This attitude plays a significant part in much of the recent literature on neighbourhood restructuring. The idea is that the residents of a particular locality should transform themselves from passive to active participants; citizens are to be seen as actors, not objects. Government must not only listen to the people, but also involve them actively in all the stages of policy process. The philosophy is that, by providing such competence, the residents are supposed to be capable of managing their own lives and undertake the necessary actions for improvement. This is empowerment, which has relevance to more or less still informal city-regions.

As far as social inclusion and empowerment are concerned, some fallacies arise. Diverse participants in networks or partnerships are not democratically elected. Therefore the first problem is the lack of legitimacy, which is important from the point of view of necessary functional urban flexibility. A complex urban environment requires substantial governing capacity; urban governance seems capable of providing it. Collaboration between various stakeholders with numerous partners in the governance process engenders knowledge. Secondly, governance structures may also generate tensions and conflicts with respect to accountability, especially in situations where there is devolution of responsibility without proper devolution of decision-making authority, competence, or budgetary power. The third problem is the less and less clear definition of what are the public functions. It is a key problem with respect to urban governance, that the borders between public and private concerns are unclear, hence a big risk of confusion about responsibilities. The same applies to different levels of government, where the further unclear demarcation may also cause problems with respect to who is to take responsibilities for what.

With respect to these complex problems, investigation of the working group focused more on the narrower meaning of social affairs, that is social care at city-regional level. However, flexible forms and instruments of governance at this level remained the centre of our interest in this way also.

1. Lessons learned from the case of Burgas

A main lesson learned is that although responsibility for social inclusion lies mainly with cities, this problem is more than the simple provision of services at city and city-regional level. Special public institutions are working for different target groups, while at the same time the involvement of non-public sector actors is also crucial.

1.1. Institutions involved

Social community-based services are working for different target groups in Burgas, such as the younger generation, elderly people and people at risk. Some of the non-traditional institutions were presented to the working group. An ombudsman has been working for 3 years in order to guarantee equal opportunities for people in need or suffering disadvantages because of their ethnic involvement, handicapped situation, etc.

Interactive training of the Youth Parliament is delivered for the younger generation, such as the youth Forum ‘My rights as a European citizen’ to gain acknowledgement of the practical meaning of equal opportunities at the European level for all member states.

All the other organisational forms with consultative and operational functions at the municipal level work for provision of social services of the best quality. These structures are part of the social inclusion policy at municipal level.
Consultative fora are as follows:

- Public council for social support – mainly consultative functions in strategic planning, planning and management of social services; it controls the quality of services provided, investigates and gives opinions on cases of violations of social rights. Members of the Council are representatives of institutions and key organisations active in the field of social care;

- Permanent Commission for Social Activities to the Municipal Council of Burgas.

Operational organisations are especially:

- the Ombudsman appointed by the municipality;

- “Social Activities and Employment” Department within the municipal administration, managing initiatives for the involvement of active social groups in social cohesion activities.

1.2. Civil and private initiatives for social inclusion

There are quite a few civil and non-institutional forms of work for social inclusion in Burgas. There are especially the following:

- small business initiatives for vulnerable groups

- PPP for implementation of small-scale infrastructural projects to enhance the quality of life in neighbourhoods

- NGOs to develop capabilities for community trust-building and the ability to participate in an active way in the solution of social problems

An example of the latter is the National Centre of Social Rehabilitation for physically disadvantaged people. It is a national network and an important centre is working in ‘Pomorie’ for young people.

There is a 2007–2013 municipal development plan for social sector policy. The essence of it is a shift from the passive support of vulnerable groups, such as elderly, young people and those who are living in poverty, to active participation of interested groups in the provision of social care and social public services. Municipal policy is also dealing with minority problems in a relatively creative way. These issues are dealt with in many forms. Apart from the municipal strategic plan for long-term development the following relate to social inclusion and empowerment:

- the municipal programme for child protection;

- the municipal programme for educational integration of children and schoolchildren from ethnic minorities.

These documents show the efforts made to create a multi-sectoral approach to the issue, while still focusing primarily on certain vulnerable groups such as children and young people, for example.

2. Groups of measures taken by partners

There are different forms of governance in the management of social inclusion in partner cities. Concerning instruments used, most characteristic forms seem to be as follows at city-regional level:

- making sectoral strategic planning to enhance public, private and non-governmental efforts;

- in order to implement strategic goals into this field, formal agreements are made among spatially interested public actors for solving common problems.

2.1. Sectoral strategic planning

Social inclusion is an essential part of the strategic plans cities and regions develop in order to achieve the concentration of resources and required cooperation of the different public sector actors involved. Two very interesting examples were presented by partner cities.

In Brno the complex policy of the city focuses on Community Planning of Social Services, which directly fulfils all the three national priority targets: it promotes the integration of disadvantaged and handicapped people; supports families, especially families with specific needs, in order to prevent family members from social exclusion; strengthens efficiency of decision-making processes in issues of social inclusion.
In Florence either regional or local level welfare planning is an instrument to renew harmonisation of public competences in health and social care services, because the basic responsibility was passed to the National Health Service (NHS) in 1978. Municipalities have kept their competences only in the social sphere since then.

2.2. Formal agreements between public clients

Formal agreements

- are based on coordination of public or public and private efforts. On the other hand, the agreement is supplemented with organisational background;
- working for the same purpose: a relatively strong view of project orientation;
- which characterises both of these formats.

a) Eindhoven and surrounding municipalities made an agreement in 2004 to promote social housing with instruments of coordinated land-use planning. The surrounding villages are now making land-use plans in which there is more space for social housing, while Eindhoven gives space for private homes in higher price ranges. Importantly, social housing can also mean cheap property to buy. The agreement is not really optional. If a municipality builds fewer houses than agreed upon with the city of Eindhoven, the municipality gets a fine for every social house that is not built. The money goes to a regional development fund.

Although in Belgium social inclusion is not a regional task, but that of the (Dutch, French and German) communities, the three Regions (the Brussels-Capital Region, the Flemish Region and the Walloon Region) signed a cooperation agreement in 2005 to promote the learning of the other official language of the country by unemployed people to encourage them to work in another region in order to foster the interregional mobility of workers. Following this cooperation agreement, an action plan was signed in 2007 between the Flemish and Brussels Public Unemployment Offices to deal specifically with Brussels and its metropolitan area.

b) The Florence metropolitan area is divided into three distinct Health Societies. The Health societies (HS) are institutions of governance initially tested in the Florentine area and subsequently extended to all the Tuscany Region. These are public consortiums of municipalities and local health authorities for the full integration of health activities with social-welfare activities, the governance of territorial services and, lastly, the continuity of the trail from diagnostic to therapeutic care. The message with HS is that social health is more complex than recovery from physical disease, but the health of citizens is increasingly understood as physical, mental as well as social wellness.

Two specific bodies of the consortium ensure the achievement of these objectives: first, the Committee of Participation, which brings together representatives of users and territorial units; second, the Committee for Non-Profit Organisations, where NGOs and other stakeholders can have a voice in drawing up the Integrated Health Plan. One of the main activities of the Health Societies is to diagnose the health status of the territory by drafting annual reports in order to promote intervention to equalize most unbalanced target groups in its territory.

c) Project orientation is a typical instrument linked to the public efforts against social exclusion in city-region matters. Some of the selected examples are the following practices of partners in the working group.

- “UVM - PUA” (Florence) that is the “Multi-dimensional assessing Unit (Unità di Valutazione Multidimensionale) – “Single point Access” (Punto Unico di Accesso): the core focus is to give a “personalised programme of assistance” to disabled or non self-sufficient people. The project aims to bring together the health and social care services through the combined participation of doctors,
social workers, civil servants in assessing citizens’ needs. Thanks to this personalised programme of assistance, the disabled or non self-sufficient people go to a Single Point Access where they can get all the information and indications they need in order to receive the services they require.

• “Do not bottle” A survey held in 2005 showed that in the region of Southeast Brabant drinking by young people had grown substantially in recent years. The region scored higher than average in the Netherlands. Alcohol at a young age affects the development of the brain and is harmful to other parts of the body, provides an extra high risk of acute alcohol poisoning and increases the risk of addiction later in life with all the social consequences. On the basis of this initiative Eindhoven City-Region put the prevention policy on its policy agenda.

• “Family Points” in the city of Brno. The central Family Point was opened in May, 2009. It is funded by the city of Brno and has its seat in the Family and Social Care Centre located in the city centre. It provides general counselling – including in the area of equal opportunities, balance between family life and career and help for elderly people and their engagement.

• In the Brussels-Capital Region, it is planned to launch a collective taxi system to allow workers who travel apart from peak hours to have an alternative public transport to go to the industrial zones located in the suburbs of Brussels.
Attractiveness has become a crucial issue for European cities; in a context of global competition, cities try to attract inward investments, tourist flows as well as talented people in order to develop and/or strengthen their economy and their international competitiveness.

Attractiveness of cities is determined by a wide range of factors, such as external accessibility, effectiveness of infrastructure, especially public transport and road networks, quality of housing stock, availability of job opportunities, provision of high-performing services, especially in health and education, public safety in the street. There are also less direct factors, for instance development of local economies and city image. Therefore, policies at city-regional level are often devoted to measures to enhance physical renovation, cultural policies, entrepreneurship friendly environment, etc. Strategies implemented in these areas may make cities and their region more attractive as a whole.

Many former industrial cities and city-regions that once prospered on the economic base of the last centuries, have been faced for years with a rapid decline in the traditional industries and consecutive massive job losses and quickly spreading urban decay. As a recent reaction, new economic sectors and fast developing knowledge intensive activities are generally targeted. This restructuring of local economies is one of the most pressing tasks for urban policy-makers and planners in the EU countries. This process is deeply associated either with threatening the physical environment or with spatial segregation as socio-economic effects. Decision-makers try to attract a highly skilled workforce and innovative entrepreneurs as makers of new progress. Cities and their regions together have a better chance to attract them in order to achieve urban economic growth, restructuring and regeneration.

Another urban issue is the decline of town centres as places that structure the dynamics of spatial economic organisation. One of the most important trends in the functional change of cities is that they are becoming increasingly important as centres of consumption, rather than production. Cities, and
especially city centres, are becoming more and more places for shopping, taking part in social events, making cultural experiences. In short, city centres have been the focal point of citizen’s urban life in the best case. However, this phenomenon does not necessarily mean preserving the competitiveness of the urban economy. If this scenario emerges, it would also lead to erosion of social development. Answers to these challenges are given at the level of entire city-regions rather than at the level of cities as such.

Apart from the economic dimension, urban attractiveness has its roots in environmental sustainability. Urban policies aim at a long-term vision of the living area that should be maintained and strengthened. In this sense, attractiveness is not only determined by the natural and built environment, such as buildings and infrastructure, but also by the social community and particularly people’s relationships. So, physical renovation and the social aspect of urban relations are linked together. With the importance of the social aspect of urban environment, policy approaches to urban regeneration have been considerably broadened and have become increasingly comprehensive by integrating people and place, community and economy. However, recently the driving-force of the above-mentioned social integration has shifted from the city to the wider city-region level. This progress is underlined by the wider scope of policy fields.

Tools of governance are very common to make cities more attractive. First, defining flexible boundaries is necessary. City regions from this point of view cannot be restricted by any territorial administrative boundaries. Therefore, identification is preferred by the public and the wider social and economic environment. The services sector and private actors organise themselves in functional, non-formal but pragmatic frameworks. Networking is preferred at this level because it neglects bureaucratic limits or useless institutions. On the other hand, creating opportunities to meet personally is also important from the point of view of inhabitants and entrepreneurs. Business meetings create opportunities to find options for development and building up new professional connections in the wider urban area.

1. Lessons learned from the case of Brussels

Brussels Capital Region is a good example of understanding attractiveness in a different way in the core city, and at the city region level. For many reasons, the city has to attract investors and real estate developers as well as headquarters of international institutions, multi-national corporations, political and cultural events. There are different actors involved in institutions, non-institutional players or taking part in public or private initiatives.

1.1. Public sector actors

The Regional Government

In order to take much more advantages of the international position of Brussels, the previous regional government (2004–2009) decided to develop an International Development Plan for Brussels. The plan was presented to the members of the Regional Parliament in October 17th 2007. It aims to develop an international positioning strategy thanks to the qualities and forces of Brussels. It focuses on 2 main priorities namely a global city marketing strategy and the construction of international infrastructures in 10 poles of the Region. The involvement of the two other Regions is as well mentioned in the plan. An Urban Development Agency (ADT) has been created in 2008 in order to coordinate the development of the projects in the 10 poles indicated in the International Development Plan. Moreover this Agency is also implementing an urban marketing project to foster the image and attractiveness of a specific zone along the Canal.

The Brussels Entreprises Agency (BEA) is an official body that assists foreign investors and entrepreneurs in several matters such as taxation, registration, legislation and so on. Its main mission is to be a leading public contact organiser for
business people in the Brussels-Capital Region. It has developed a tool called EcoSubsiBru gathering information about the different public subsidies for Brussels’ enterprises and the institutions where they can find concrete assistance. Collaboration at a metropolitan level is on a case-by-case basis.

The Brussels International – Tourism and Congress (BITC) was established by Brussels-Capital Region to improve the attractiveness of the Region through two types of promotion. The first one is targeting visitors, thus promoting local cultural initiatives and activities. The second one is devoted to organising international, national or regional events which could attract foreign visitors or permanent residents.

1.2. Non-institutional actions and actors
With the wish to cope with the internationalisation of Brussels, the business sector in the three regions jointly decided to propose their vision for the future of the city region in a document named “The Business Route 2018 for Metropolitan Brussels”. This document was promoted by the three organisations representing the business sector in the three regions:

- BECI for Brussels-Capital Region
- VOKA for the Flemish Region
- UWE for the Walloon Region

with the support and cooperation of the FEB, the National organisation representing enterprises in Belgium. The “Business Route for Metropolitan Brussels” shows that the business sector is keen on being more involved in the development of a city marketing strategy at the metropolitan level in order to attract tourists and business travellers.

In Belgium, cultural matters are the responsibility of the Communities and not the Regions. Cultural networks of both communities decided in 2004 to work together in order to become a place of dialogue and reflection for cultural actors in the city and stimulate collaboration between cultural actors. Moreover, one of their main aims is to lobby for the recognition of Brussels as an international city of arts and culture. Several actions were implemented such as “prospective days” to make cultural actors exchange information, best practices and sign collaboration agreements to promote collaboration between both Communities in the Brussels-Capital Region in 2007. In 2009, both cultural networks proposed the Cultural Plan for Brussels with 34 proposals for a coherent cultural policy in Brussels.

2. Groups of measures taken by partners
Actions geared to the enhancement of attractiveness are divided among different policy focuses. Economic development and tourism seem to be the most important ones.

2.1. Public actors
In the case of Lille, a foreign investment development agency for Northern France (NFX) helps foreign companies to develop business in the Nord-Pas de Calais Region. It is dedicated to the promotion, prospecting and management of foreign investments. Based on its expertise and its international network, it offers personalised and fully confidential services to investors, free of charge.

The Development Agency for the promotion of Greater Lille (APIM) was created in 1985 by the Lille Metropole Chamber of Commerce and Industry and by Lille Metropole Communauté Urbaine. Its mission is to foster the development of Lille Metropole and to promote its image, both nationally and internationally. APIM assists companies during their implementation and development process in Lille Metropole for the development of new activities or for setting up a representative office in Europe. This assistance takes different forms: information, by providing all data regarding the Lille Metropole market, its stakeholders, its assets and its key economic indicators; analysis and assistance in terms of needs and feasibility, real estate funding and subsidising applications.
and administrative matters; but also catering for the needs of families (local integration, searching for jobs for partners, etc.).

In the field of tourism, the Greater Lille Convention Bureau (MICE) offers advice and service free of charge to organisers of national and international events. It helps them to plan meetings, conferences, product launches or incentive seminars, and puts them in touch with service providers: hotels and caterers, congress sites.

### 2.2. Non-institutional actors and actions

Many efforts are also made by tourist information offices to develop offers for national but also international (mainly British and Belgian) tourists. The recognition of Lille as a place to visit is quite new and was fostered by Lille 2004. The idea that tourist activities is a key aim for the Lille metropolitan area both in terms of economic benefits and their potential for enhancing the area’s image is now shared by many stakeholders. Some joint projects for promoting the territory and attracting visitors are currently being developed.

The “Comité Grand Lille” is an informal body created in 1993, which brings together some 700 business and industrial leaders, academics, artists, NGO representatives and politicians from the Lille Metropolitan area. The idea is to provide civic and business leaders with an opportunity to jointly develop strategic thinking about the future of the city region. Within the committee are discussed and promoted possible actions to improve Greater Lille’s image and position as a major European centre – actions take place in such fields as culture, tourism, education, entrepreneurship and international partnerships.

### 3. Role of strategic planning

Strategic plans deal with the long-term vision of attractiveness in almost all partner cities of the working group. Apart from Brussels, this is the case in Brno, Lille, Krakow and Burgas. Eindhoven is unique, because it has a specific attractiveness strategy at metropolitan region level, with the “brain-port” concept. Nevertheless, most of the partners develop actions in this field either on a policy or management basis. However, metropolitan relations are not necessarily emphasised in general. In the case of Florence, the attractiveness is very evident from the point of view of the cultural heritage. Efforts are also made to widen this effect in a spatial sense and enhance attractiveness in the economic field as well.
APPENDIX

ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF WORKING AT THE CITY-REGION LEVEL IN TERMS OF ATTRACTIVENESS

On the basis of group discussions, the key ideas were as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ADVANTAGES</th>
<th>DISADVANTAGES</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Economy of scale</td>
<td>- What is each actor responsible for? (financing, maintaining)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Stronger image</td>
<td>- More actors make communication more difficult</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Sustainable balanced development</td>
<td>- More actors make management more difficult</td>
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<tr>
<td>(quality of life: city region is nothing in itself)</td>
<td>- We need time to negotiate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Better show the potential of the city-region</td>
<td>- Find a way to make the inhabitants feel concerned</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(inhabitants, GDP)</td>
<td>- Striking a balance between top-down / bottom-up is more difficult at metropolitan area level</td>
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<td>- Better ideas and more resources with more actors</td>
<td>- To define and reach common interests</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Inhabitants are the best advert for the city</td>
<td>- More difficult to focus on a target group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Demographic changes (keep the city lively; take into account the changes</td>
<td>- Dilution of image and identity</td>
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<tr>
<td>in the inhabitants (age structure)</td>
<td>- Competition inside the metropolitan area</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Win-win situation, win-win solution</td>
<td>- What is an advantage for one city is a disadvantage for another</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Cultural diversity and more choices</td>
<td>- The role of the core city: tension between the core city and the surrounding cities</td>
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<td>- Better mobility inside the metropolitan area:</td>
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<td>better attractiveness</td>
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<td>- More choice for location of businesses</td>
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<td>- Bigger critical mass</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Better knowledge of activities inside the metropolitan region</td>
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Agence de développement et d’urbanisme de Lille Métropole
299, boulevard de Leeds
59777 EURALILLE - France
Phone +33 (0)3 20 63 33 50 / Fax +33 (0)3 20 63 73 99

CONTACTS:
Lead Partner: Thierry Baert / tbaert@adu-lille-metropole.org
Mathilde Ballenghien / mballenghien@adu-lille-metropole.org
Lead Expert: Tamás M. Horváth / horvath@puma.unideb.hu

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