### TEN PRINCIPLES FOR THE INTEGRATED MANAGEMENT OF LAND IN TIMES OF CRISIS

**DIEZ PRINCIPIOS PARA LA ORDENACIÓN INTEGRADA DEL TERRITORIO EN TIEMPOS DE CRISIS**

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TEN PRINCIPLES FOR THE INTEGRATED MANAGEMENT OF LAND IN TIMES OF CRISIS

1. Integrated planning policies and Smart Growth versus Sprawl

In time of crisis we need a more efficient territory, promoting territorial efficiency in spending and investment, creating favourable conditions for the receipt of public spending and private investment. It requires the evaluation of resources and their availability, water, clean air, energy, houses, improve sustainability mobility and promote polycentric development and efficient city cores, in short an integrated planning.

Smart growth and integrated planning represent the characteristic way of modern planning spotlighting e.g. ‘concentrated’ or the vision of European ‘eco–metropolis’: high-tech, culturally in the swim, ecologically correct and receptive to participatory democracy (governance), connected by an efficient transport system. All these refer in general to establishing the city development policy that allows different localities to develop their respective qualities as nodes in the polycentric network.

The report, ‘Urban sprawl in Europe - the ignored challenge’, shows that many environmental problems in Europe are caused by rapidly expanding urban areas. The global economy, cross border transport networks, large scale societal, economic and demographic changes and differences in national planning laws are some of the major drivers of change to the urban environment. EU policy to co-ordinate and control planning is required.

Compared with the growth of infrastructure in metropolitan areas arises, in order to avoid fragmentation, the development of biological corridors that provide connectivity between landscapes, ecosystems and habitats, whether natural or modified, ensuring the maintenance of biological diversity and ecological processes between them.

An effective control of the sprawling city with decentralization policies planned activities that contribute to a better territorial balance without abandoning the space built.

1. Políticas integradas de planificación y planeamiento innovador frente a la ciudad difusa

En tiempo de crisis es preciso propiciar la eficiencia territorial a partir de la evaluación de los recursos y su disponibilidad (agua, aire limpio, energía, vivienda, dotaciones), promover la movilidad sostenible y los desarrollos policéntricos, así como la revitalización de los centros urbanos históricos, lo que permitirá crear las mejores condiciones para la optimización del gasto público e incentivar a la iniciativa privada.

El desarrollo innovador y la planificación integrada representan la forma característica de la planificación moderna, poniendo de relieve, por ejemplo, “la redensificación” tomando como modelo la ciudad mediterránea compacta o la visión Europea de “eco-ciudad”: alta tecnología, la difusión cultural, energías renovables, ecológicamente correcta y receptiva a la democracia participativa, conectados por un sistema de transporte eficiente. Todos estos aspectos se refieren, en términos generales, a establecer una política de evolución de la ciudad que permita a las distintas localidades en un marco más amplio desarrollar sus respectivas cualidades como nodos dentro de una red policéntrica equilibrada y funcionalmente eficiente.

El informe, "La expansión urbana en Europa - el reto ignorado", muestra que muchos de los problemas medioambientales en Europa son causados por la rápida expansión de las zonas urbanas. La globalización económica mundial, las redes de transporte transfronterizo, la sociedad a gran escala, los cambios económicos y demográficos, y las diferencias en las legislaciones nacionales de planificación, son algunos de los principales motores del cambio en el entorno urbano. Una Política de la UE para coordinar la planificación y el control es necesaria.

Frente al crecimiento de las infraestructuras en las áreas metropolitanas, se plantea, con la finalidad de evitar la fragmentación, el desarrollo de corredores biológicos, que proporcionan conectividad entre paisajes, ecosistemas, y hábitats, sean éstos natrales o modificados, asegurando el mantenimiento de la diversidad biológica y los procesos ecológicos entre éstos.

Un eficaz control de la ciudad difusa junto con políticas de descentralización planificada de las actividades que contribuyan a un mejor equilibrio territorial sin abandonar el tejido existente.


2. Climate change

It is necessary to introduce measures for mitigation and adaptation into planning both to reduce resource consumption and the emission of greenhouse gases. The planning territorial policies and environmental protection can contribute to environmental and social sustainability of our metropolitan areas.

The EU strategy on the urban environment is confirmed and considers the transport and construction as key areas for policy adaptation and mitigation climate change. Metropolitan areas become the main areas on which coordinately affect the public sector with responsibilities in the urban area, in collaboration with private will, to make our cities sustainable.

The urban design through planning can contribute to the rehabilitation of our cities to promote their recovery and recycling processes of the territory.


Energy infrastructure investments decisions will have long term impacts on greenhouse gas emissions, because of the long life times of energy infrastructure. It is often more cost-effective to invest in end-use energy efficiency improvement than in increasing energy supply to satisfy demand for energy services.

The higher the market prices of fossil fuels, the more modal shifts from road to rail and to inland and coastal shipping and from low-occupancy to high-occupancy passenger transportation, as well as land-use, urban planning and non-motorized transport offer opportunities for GHG mitigation Opportunities for realising GHG reductions in the building sector exist worldwide. However, multiple barriers make it difficult to realise this potential. These barriers include availability of technology, financing, poverty, higher costs of reliable information, limitations inherent in building designs and an appropriate portfolio of policies and programs, depending on local conditions and policies.

Existing waste management practices can provide effective mitigation of GHG emissions from this sector: a wide range of mature, environmentally effective technologies are commercially available to mitigate emissions and provide co-benefits for improved public health and safety, soil protection and pollution prevention, and local energy supply. Waste minimization and recycling provide important indirect mitigation benefits through the conservation of energy and materials.

Changes in lifestyles and consumption patterns that emphasize resource conservation can contribute to developing a low-carbon economy that is both equitable and sustainable. Regulations and standards generally provide some certainty about emission levels. They may be preferable to other instruments when information or other barriers prevent producers and consumers from responding to price signals. However, they may not induce innovations and more advanced technologies.
3. Sustainability

The important thing is not how much you grow, but how you grow, so that the growth of each territory is based on carrying capacity, sustainability must be addressed Economic, Social and Environmental.

Throughout the 20th century, economic development and the exponential increase in private car ownership were the main drivers of urban planning in Europe. Investment in preventing or cleaning up the environmental consequences of economic growth was minimized, and strategies for avoiding such consequences in the first place were rarely explored.

The legacies of this unbalanced development are the traffic congestion, polluted air, deteriorating infrastructure and buildings, urban sprawl, social exclusion, insecurity and criminality to which the 80% of the EU’s citizens who today live in or around its cities are exposed – together with their associated costs.

The European Union has already begun to improve the overall sustainability and coherence of its own policies. Since 2003, the Commission has employed a new impact assessment procedure to evaluate the likely economic, social and environmental consequences of all major initiatives, enabling it to identify essential tradeoffs and exploit synergies.

But it is chiefly by Member States, regions and cities that more sustainable urban and land use policies must be created and carried out, tailored to their own specific situations. The Union’s role is to provide a supportive framework, to promote good practice, and to develop the practical tools and the environmental technologies which local policy-makers and practitioners need.

European research on sustainable urban management and land use is being driven by the EU’s Thematic Strategy on the Urban Environment, currently in preparation (2), and the recently adopted Environmental Technologies Action Plan (ETAP) (3), which aims to stimulate the development and deployment of technologies in order “to reduce pressures on our natural resources, improve the quality of life of European citizens and stimulate economic growth”.

Those responsible for managing urban and regional development and wider land-use planning need to embed sustainability within their strategic policies, and to implement it in their concrete schemes and structures. EU-funded research is providing the conceptual frameworks, the tools and methods, and the technological solutions that will equip them for this vital task.

4. Globalization

The global market does not respond to local interests, regional or national, promoting processes of deterritorialization (the space is blurred in favor of forming long individual time spaces.) The time is the same, but their realization depends on the characteristics of each territory, so that space remains critical. Globalization produces transformation of urban systems and the social organization of cities as well as a redefinition of individual interests, general collective risk a new relationship. Growth is becoming more external and absorbed cities and towns increasingly alienated.

Faced with the favourable effect of economic globalization we must counter the loss of cultural identity that globalization promotes and somehow encourage endogenous development based on our own identity.

4. Globalización

El mundo actual está globalizado y en este mercado global las iniciativas no sólo responden a intereses locales, regionales o nacionales y así propician procesos de desterritorialización (el espacio se difumina a favor del tiempo formándose espacios tiempo individuales). Sin embargo el tiempo es el mismo, pero su materialización está en función de las características de cada territorio y su conectividad, por ello el espacio continúa siendo clave. Pero la globalización produce la transformación de los sistemas urbanos y de la organización social de las ciudades, así como una redefinición de los intereses y colectivos generales y una nueva lectura del riesgo. El crecimiento es cada vez más excéntrico, de modo que se absorben ciudades y pueblos cada vez más alejados no sólo físicamente sino también virtualmente, en una tendencia a la homogeneización derivada de la prestación de servicios demandados por la comunidad global.

Frente a los efectos favorables de la globalización económica, debemos contrarrestar la pérdida de identidad cultural que la globalización promueve, favoreciendo desarrollos endógenos basados en la propia identidad.

The cities and their citizens who will be successful in the 21st century’s economic development will be those that recognize the four realities discussed above, and who respond by embracing five principles.

The first principle is globalization itself. To ignore the reality of a globalized economy, or to recognize it but not respond, will make many cities the victims rather than the beneficiaries of globalization. To adopt globalization as a principle allows a city the opportunity to identify which of its own characteristics can be competitive in the global marketplace and to establish measures that reduce the adverse impacts of a globalized economy. Even such a staunch globalist as Kenichi Ohmae writes, “As the borderless and interlinked economy develops, regional and city-level interests come more and more into play.”

The second principle is localization. The definition of what “economic development” means needs to be localized. It must be specific and measurable. Many local economic development yardsticks in the 21st century will be qualitative rather than quantitative. Localization will always necessitate identifying assets (human, natural, physical, locational, functional, cultural) that can be utilized to respond to globalization. Those assets must first be identified, then protected, and then enhanced. In his book Post-Capitalist Society, business guru Peter Drucker writes, “Tomorrow’s educated person will have to be prepared for life in a global world. He or she must become a ‘citizen of the world’ – in vision, horizon, information. But he or she will also have to draw nourishment from their local roots and, in turn, enrich and nourish their own local culture.”

Diversity is the third of these principles. Biologists were the first to understand the importance of diversity to a healthy ecological system. But the English words “ecology” and “economy” come from the same root, the Greek word oikos, which means “house.” Economic development analysts — based on the models of the ecologists — have discovered that what is necessary to keep our economic house in order is the same as what it takes to keep our ecological house in order, which is, in part, diversity.

The concept of diversity has three different facets in relation to economic development principles:

As populations are more mobile and more diverse — particularly in cities — there will need to be an accommodation of human diversity in economic development and an appreciation of the valuable alternative perspectives that diversity can provide in an economic context.

Cities must have a diverse local economy in order to provide protection from the volatile patterns of demand in the marketplace. Excessive reliance on a single source of employment, production, and economic activity will leave cities inordinately vulnerable.

With economic globalization as a given, the outcome is that potential customers for goods and services will be exceedingly diverse. Successful economic development will specialize and customize to meet the needs of diverse markets rather than standardize and homogenize.
The fourth principle of 21st century economic development is sustainability. Sustainability has for some time been recognized by resource-based industries because they find it necessary to pace extraction or renew resources to keep the economy sustainable over the long term. A broadened principle of sustainability recognizes the importance of the functional sustainability of public infrastructure, the fiscal sustainability of a local government, the physical sustainability of the built environment, and the cultural sustainability of local traditions, customs, and skills.

The final principle is responsibility. While in most parts of the world there will be provincial, national, and international resources that can occasionally be tapped for use in enhancing a city’s economy, the vast majority of efforts will take place at the local level. This, then, requires that each city takes a large measure of responsibility for its own economic future. Certainly local government has a part to play in that process, but so does the private sector, non-governmental organizations (NGOs), and individual citizens. Each should recognize the responsibility at the local level to define and pursue citywide and metropolitan economic development strategies.

In the past the economic fate of a city was largely driven by locational and resource factors. Is it near a port? Is there timber to be cut? Is transportation available by waterway? Is there metal that can be mined? Certainly these and similar factors will continue to play a major role in the economic future for many locations. But in the 21st century there will be a shift from location economics to place economics. Many of the variables that will influence a city’s economic opportunity will not be locationally driven. The most important variables will be qualitative and place-based rather than quantitative and location-based. These are referred to as the Five Senses of Competitive Cities and will, in the intermediate and long term, have considerable impact on the economic health of cities.
5. Governance

Developing administrative structures that allow citizens monitoring and coordination of local policies with a high level of public participation. Information must flow seamlessly and participation at all levels. Vertical and horizontal coordination should be basic in order to avoid duplication of investments. Participatory processes have shown the majority of cases the lack of participatory culture and the difficulty to implement it.

Participation is viable if the individuals in the society share a common language, useful for the construction of the city. Urban concentration without identity, causes the uprooting of native soil and leads to declining interest affected by the landscape and the urban core.

The lack of ownership of land prevents active participation processes, appearing as an expression of strength demonstrations of protest. Lack of training prevents rationalization and calm debate on the issues and misinformation leads to manipulation.

The concept of participatory planning proposed here requires changing the order of the process, and from the beginning, getting the opinions of potential investors and those citizens who can be affected by the changes.

When citizens and investors are included from the beginning of the planning process, they become positive elements within the process and not perpetual opponents of the urban development plans. If this occurs, planning, which is a product of consensus, has a much greater chance of taking place, since from the outset it has the support of both capital and citizens. Moreover, the citizens become key defenders of the policies which they support (for example, a pedestrian zone).

In order to achieve this system of participatory planning, the process needs to be designed so as to encourage honest dialogue among all the actors interested in the area in question. The working groups should always include the state, the owners of the properties, potential investors, and the residents and their representative organizations. To guarantee the effectiveness and attainability of this process, it is critical to design mechanisms which allow progress to continue despite the natural differences in perspective and interest among the different actors.

It is also vital to actively promote consensus among the different groups by addressing the prejudices and mutual distrust that today exist among the state, the private sector, and citizen groups. It is participatory planning’s task to demonstrate to the traditional antagonists of the urban scene that collaboration and agreement can create a more livable and attractive city, both for construction businesses and for citizens.

No planning process will be free of opposition, and a certain degree of dissatisfaction and conflict are a logical reaction to changes which affect people and their daily lives. This is part of any democratic process. However, planning is the only tool that can limit the level of negative impacts on the population, since its purpose is to prevent adverse affects of urban growth on the population. Adequate participatory planning can diminish adverse reactions to plans and projects and transform these elements of resistance into opportunities for cooperation to achieve a better quality of urban life.
6. Innovation and competitiveness. The human capital as development factor

Improving the competitiveness of the territory through optimization of leads and opportunities, leading to improved living conditions of citizens and a better distribution of resources.

It is based on measures of economic and fiscal, but also in proper planning of the territorial organization: proximity and accessibility of the activity centres (employment, distribution, services, leisure and training).

Where the territory is the strategic factor of opportunity in terms of its historical characteristics. This allows you to build territories as a result of organizational processes of local actors and phenomena of collective learning. Improving competitiveness through optimization of human capital and indigenous resources without compromising the quality of the lives of citizens.

The New Competitiveness

As has been well documented, urban regions are becoming more exposed to global forces, as the nation state becomes more open to capital and trade flows (Kaothien and Webster, 2000). This represents both a threat in that market and investment conditions change very rapidly subjecting urban regions to potential negative economic impacts, and an opportunity in that cities now have more scope to develop their own competitiveness strategies and access world markets, global labor and capital.

Of course, urban regions control only some of the factors which determine their competitiveness. National policy frameworks and socio-economic conditions are also very important, e.g., national taxation, human resource development, tariff, macro economic, industrial incentives, policies, etc. In addition, national political stability very much influences the competitiveness of cities. However, in many countries, national factors are becoming relatively less important because of global forces, e.g., trade liberalization which makes tariff policies less important, or because of internal changes, e.g., decentralization which may result in devolution of responsibility for critical competitiveness factors, e.g., education of technical personnel, to the local level. The range of competitiveness factors that are directly or indirectly within the purview of local urban authorities is increasing rapidly in many, probably most, developing urban regions. Urban regions (through local government, public private partnerships, or the local private sector) typically have considerable influence over local infrastructure and amenity, industrial estates, office complex development, community networks / forums, etc. In many urban regions other important competitiveness functions, formerly under the purview of the national government such as technical education, management of airports, are coming under the control of stakeholders in the urban region. The above dynamics mean that sub-national capability, both institutionally and in terms of technical skills, to undertake competitiveness assessment and implement competitiveness policies is needed now more than ever. Unfortunately, most emerging urban regions do not have formal, or even informal, processes to assess competitiveness, let alone act in a coordinated and strategic manner on the basis of that information. Thus although all emerging urban regions enjoy some form of comparative advantage, such competitive advantage is not always well understood by local stakeholders, including local governments.


6. Competitividad e innovación. El capital humano como factor de desarrollo

Mejorar la competitividad del territorio mediante una optimización de los potenciales y oportunidades, que conduzca a una mejora en las condiciones de vida de los ciudadanos y a una mejor distribución de los recursos.

Se basa en medidas de carácter económico y fiscal, pero también en una adecuada planificación de la organización territorial: proximidad y accesibilidad de los centros de actividades (trabajo, distribución, servicios, ocio), disponibilidad de buenos servicios y acceso generalizado a la formación.

El territorio es un factor estratégico de oportunidad en función de sus características históricas. Esto debería permitir construir el territorio como resultado de procesos de organización de los actores locales y de fenómenos de aprendizaje colectivo y mejorar la competitividad mediante la optimización del capital humano y de los recursos endógenos, sin menoscabar la calidad de las condiciones de vida de los ciudadanos.
7. Territorial cohesion

It is important in planning and promoting balanced polycentric metropolitan areas based on their endogenous potential. The desire to strike a balance, through sustainable development and inclusive of the territories by taking advantage of their specific potential in an integrated manner, with a focused partnership basis to organize cooperation between the territories at all levels and coordinate policies for these territories.

The importance of the "new geographical features" within the administrative boundaries do not always fit in given even division levels or potential partnerships, and there is a constant need to define an area more functional and therefore a more relevant limit: groups cross-functional urban regions.

The relationship between urban and rural areas also fit within a model of functional areas: the urban and rural environment come together in new configurations, including peri-urban areas, for example, have assumed considerable importance. In these relationships also highlight governance issues common between neighbours in constant contact with them.

Territorial cohesion can not be seen only in the light of regional policy, it has both horizontal and sectoral concerns to policies that impact on the territory, which highlight the contradictions and conflicts involving different policies need to all European and national levels of coordination between them that give consistency across the planning.


Fifth report on economic, social and territorial cohesion

Summary of the Executive Summary

The analysis of regional economic disparities has been expanded to include issues relating to institutions and a new index of competitiveness is presented. Moreover, analysis of social cohesion, following the Stiglitz-Sen-Fitoussi report, covers both objective and subjective indicators of well-being and several indicators which have never been presented at the regional level before.

Economic, social and territorial situation and trends Chapter 1 provides an extensive overview of the situation and trends in EU regions from an economic, social and environmental perspective. All three perspectives reveal striking regional disparities from differences in productivity, to infant mortality rates and vulnerability to climate change. Many of these disparities have shrunk over the past decade, some quite quickly, but overall there remains a wide gap between the less developed and the highly developed EU regions.

Although some of these regional disparities will never (completely) disappear, many of them are inefficient, unfair and unsustainable. To achieve real progress towards the goals of smart, green and inclusive growth, these regional disparities have to be reduced.
**Promoting competitiveness and convergence**

The EU is not alone in facing significant regional development disparities. Many large countries such as China, India, Brazil and Russia also have wide differences in regional GDP per head and have turned to EU Cohesion Policy to learn how to reduce them.

Differences in GDP per head between the US States are relatively narrow, but the differences within the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA), which also includes Canada and Mexico, are much larger than those in the EU. These regional disparities in NAFTA have not diminished over time. This implies that belonging to a large free trade zone alone is not sufficient to enable less developed regions to catch up, especially when the gap in infrastructure, institutional efficiency and innovation is wide.

The main source of growth in all EU regions was higher productivity. Productivity growth was particularly high in Convergence regions fuelled by both increases within sectors (linked to innovation in the broad sense) and shifts in employment to sectors with a higher value added (restructuring). In Competitiveness regions, higher productivity came almost exclusively from innovation. Productivity growth came mostly from innovation in Transition regions, but, true to their name, was partly due to restructuring.

**Innovation**

To become more productive, the EU needs more innovation (in a broad sense) and more investment in education, training and life-long learning. Europe 2020 emphasizes the need for more innovation. For example, only one region in ten has reached the Europe 2020 target of investing 3% of GDP in R&D.

Innovation is important for all regions, whether or not they are at the forefront of research. In regions that are not, i.e. most regions, the focus should be more on absorbing and spreading innovative practice developed elsewhere, than on radical innovations.

**Infrastructure**

Innovations lead to more growth if they can easily reach a large market. Despite the growing importance of digital networks, the capacity to move people and goods by rail, road, air or water remains critically important. Transport infrastructure, however, is unevenly distributed across the EU.

Cross-border cooperation can enhance welfare, but it may involve relatively high transaction costs due to different institutional systems, cultures and languages. EU support can help overcome such obstacles to bring untapped resources into use.

**Institutions**

Strong institutions are crucial for sustainable economic growth and social welfare. This is increasingly recognised by policy markers and researchers alike. The crisis has highlighted the need for stable macroeconomic conditions, but the strategies for recovery should balance the need for fiscal consolidation with the need for sufficient levels of public investment. Wider availability and use of e-government services can also help to increase the transparency and efficiency of public administrations, and cross-border and inter-regional cooperation can help to strengthen institutional capacity.

**Improving well-being and reducing exclusion**

**Life expectancy and health**

The EU has one of the highest life expectancies in the world. The average age and share of population of 65 are also among the highest in the world as a result. This has consequences for both health services and the labour force. An increase in the share of older people implies an increased demand for health and related services. As the average age of the labour force increases and people continue in employment until later in life, the demand for re-training will increase as may the demand for more flexible working arrangements.

**Living conditions**

Unemployment fell substantially between 2000 and 2008. Nevertheless, regional unemployment rates remained high in Southern Italy, Eastern Germany and Southern Spain, even before the crisis. Nevertheless, regions with high unemployment have experienced larger outward migration, though the pattern of migration differs between the EU-12 and the EU-15. In the EU-12, migration has tended to be into predominantly urban regions, especially capital cities. In the EU-15, there has been more migration to predominantly rural regions than predominantly urban ones. Migration from outside the EU was until recently the most important source of population growth in EU regions, but the successful integration of the people concerned remains uneven and they have considerably lower employment rates than average in many Member States.
**Poverty**

Europe 2020 aims to reduce poverty and exclusion. The indicator used to monitor this combines two absolute indicators (severe material deprivation and living in low work-intensity households) and a relative one (income below the at-risk-of-poverty threshold).

Promoting active inclusion and reducing poverty means investing in education, training and skills, modernizing labour markets, training and education systems and social and health services to help people anticipate and manage change and to build a cohesive society.

**Enhancing environmental sustainability**

**Adapting to climate change**

Adapting to climate change will be most difficult in southern cities and regions and coastal and mountain areas. At the same time, floods are likely to increase in other regions with many cities being particularly vulnerable.

**Limiting climate change**

The private sector will largely be covered by the emissions trading scheme, but the public sector will still need to make substantial changes and investment to reduce emissions and energy consumption. Increasing energy efficiency will require investing in the insulation of buildings, different heating systems, more efficient modes of transport and perhaps promoting urban living and more compact cities.

**Improving environmental quality**

Air quality is poor in many regions, especially in city centres and in the south, with detrimental effects on health and the quality of life. Reducing ozone levels and particulate matter in the air will require increased efforts at local and regional level.

Moreover, both the Natura 2000 areas and green infrastructure in the wider countryside need to be properly managed and protected.

**National policies and cohesion**

National governments have implemented various regional development policies to further economic, social and territorial cohesion. While some Member States give priority to tackling regional disparities, others focus more on national competitiveness or on specific territorial features. Irrespective of the approach pursued, the emphasis is increasingly on stimulating endogenous development by providing support to areas of comparative advantage, rather than compensating regions for disadvantages.

Public investment is critical to improving the competitiveness of less developed regions, especially in those less well endowed with infrastructure. A number of recent studies have concluded that public investment boosts growth under certain conditions, among which good institutional governance is critical. Cohesion Policy support ensures that less developed countries and regions can maintain the rates of public investment required to increase their growth potential and equally helps them strengthen their institutional capacity.

Higher rates of public investment in Cohesion countries have mostly gone to improving infrastructure, notably transport networks, and Cohesion Policy has played a crucial role in helping to narrow the gap with more advanced parts of the EU in this respect. Unlike in the case of their entitlement to EU funding under Cohesion, the relative prosperity of regions is not a major determinant of their access to national funds for investment, except in Germany and, to a lesser extent, in France. Other factors such as geophysical features, the extent of fiscal and political autonomy or the attraction of capital cities seem to be at least as important as cohesion objectives in determining the regional distribution of public investment.

Cohesion Policy in the current period includes conditions linked to the macroeconomic situation only in respect of the Cohesion Fund (apart from administrative requirements on financial management and control systems). For the next programming period, the issue of whether this kind of macroeconomic conditionality should be extended, and if so how, should be explored. Whether other conditions, such as incentives for reform in areas closely linked to the operation of Cohesion Policy and which might increase its impact, and value for money, might also be usefully examined.

**Other EU policies and cohesion**

According to the EU Treaty, the design and implementation of all EU policies should take account of their effect on economic, social and territorial cohesion. Currently some policies have a clear territorial dimension, like transport or environment policy.

Other policies have a partial territorial dimension, such as research, information society or health policy. Some policies do not or cannot distinguish in their implementation between different parts of the EU, for example the single market or trade.
Infrastructure improvements, for example, do not lead automatically to higher growth and, in fact, might even result in a net reduction in economic activity in less developed regions (‘leaking by linking’). Investment in infrastructure needs to be combined with investment in education, enterprise, and innovation to ensure not only that it has a positive effect on development but that this effect is maximized by taking account of the complementary effects of this other investment. Similarly, innovation may be spatially concentrated, but its benefits are not. Investment in R&D and businesses therefore need to be complemented by investment in human capital, not only to foster the efficiency of the regional innovation process, but also to ensure that the benefits of innovation are distributed widely in spatial and social terms.


Quinto informe sobre la cohesión económica, social y territorial

Resumen del resumen

El análisis de las diferencias económicas regionales se ha ampliado para incluir los temas relacionados con las instituciones y se presenta un nuevo índice de competitividad. Además, tras el informe de Stiglitz, Sen y Fitoussi, el análisis de la cohesión social abarca, tanto indicadores de bienestar objetivos como subjetivos, y varios indicadores que nunca antes se habían presentado a nivel regional.

Situación y tendencias en las esferas económica, social y territorial

El capítulo 1 presenta una amplia descripción de la situación y las tendencias actuales desde las perspectivas económica, social y ambiental en las regiones de la UE. Estas tres perspectivas revelan la existencia de diferencias regionales sorprendentes en términos de productividad, tasas de mortalidad infantil y vulnerabilidad ante el cambio climático.

Muchas de esas disparidades se han reducido de forma notable a lo largo de la última década —incluso algunas de ellas lo han hecho con relativa rapidez—, pero en general persiste una amplia brecha entre las regiones menos desarrolladas y las regiones altamente desarrolladas de la UE.

Pese a que algunas de esas diferencias regionales nunca desaparecerán por completo, muchas de ellas son ineficientes, injustas e insostenibles. Para conseguir avances reales en pos del objetivo de un crecimiento inteligente, sostenible e integrador, es necesario reducir esas diferencias regionales.

Fomento de la competitividad y la convergencia

La UE no es la única que se enfrenta a diferencias significativas en términos de desarrollo regional. Muchos países de gran tamaño, como China, la India, Brasil y Rusia, presentan también diferencias importantes en el PIB regional per cápita y han acudido a la política de cohesión de la UE para aprender a reducirlas.

Las diferencias existentes en el PIB per cápita entre los distintos estados de los EE.UU. son relativamente reducidas, pero las que se observan en North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA), que incluye también a Canadá y México, son mucho mayores que las de la UE. Además, las diferencias regionales en el seno del NAFTA no se han reducido con el tiempo. Esto implica que la pertenencia a una extensa zona de libre comercio no es suficiente por sí sola para posibilitar la convergencia de las regiones menos desarrolladas, sobre todo cuando existe una brecha amplia en lo tocante a la infraestructura, la eficiencia institucional y la innovación.

La principal fuente de crecimiento en todas las regiones de la UE fue el aumento de la productividad. Éste fue particularmente elevado en las regiones de convergencia, impulsado tanto por el incremento en el seno de los diversos sectores (asociado a la innovación en sentido amplio) como por los cambios en el empleo hacia sectores con mayor valor añadido (reestructuración). En las regiones de competitividad, el aumento de la productividad provino casi exclusivamente de la innovación. Lo mismo ocurrió en las regiones de transición, si bien, haciendo honor a su nombre, se debió en parte a la reestructuración.

Innovación

Para ser más productiva, la UE necesita más innovación (en sentido amplio) y una mayor inversión en educación, formación y aprendizaje a lo largo de la vida. La estrategia Europa 2020 hace hincapié en la necesidad de fomentar la innovación. A modo de ejemplo, solo una región de cada diez ha alcanzado la meta fijada en dicha estrategia de invertir un 3 % del PIB en I+D.

La innovación es importante para todas las regiones, con independencia de si ocupan o no una posición de vanguardia en cuanto a actividad investigadora. En las regiones que no se encuentren «en la cresta de la ola» en este ámbito —es decir, en la mayoría de ellas—, el enfoque debería centrarse fundamentalmente en absorber y difundir las prácticas innovadoras desarrolladas en otros lugares, en vez de aspirar a lograr innovaciones radicales.
Infraestructuras

Las innovaciones se traducen en un mayor crecimiento si pueden llegar fácilmente a un mercado extenso.

A pesar de la creciente importancia de las redes digitales, la capacidad para desplazar mercancías y personas por tren, carretera, agua o aire continúa revistiendo una importancia crucial. La infraestructura de transporte, sin embargo, presenta una distribución desigual en la UE.

La cooperación transfronteriza puede mejorar el bienestar, pero también puede conllevar unos costes de transacción relativamente elevados debido a las diferencias institucionales, culturales y lingüísticas. La ayuda de la UE puede contribuir a superar estos obstáculos para posibilitar la utilización de recursos inexplotados.

Instituciones

Para lograr el crecimiento económico sostenible y el bienestar social es fundamental contar con instituciones sólidas. Así lo reconocen, cada vez más, los responsables de la formulación de políticas y los investigadores. La crisis ha puesto de manifiesto la necesidad de contar con unas condiciones macroeconómicas estables, pero las estrategias de recuperación deben conciliar la necesidad de consolidación fiscal con un nivel suficiente de inversión pública. La mayor disponibilidad y utilización de los servicios de administración electrónica pueden contribuir asimismo a mejorar la transparencia y la eficiencia de las administraciones públicas, y la cooperación interregional y transfronteriza pueden ayudar a fortalecer la capacidad institucional.

Mejorar el bienestar y reducir la exclusión

Salud y esperanza de vida

La esperanza de vida en la UE se encuentra entre las más altas del mundo. En consecuencia, la edad media y el porcentaje de población mayor de 65 años también se sitúan entre los más elevados del planeta. Este hecho tiene repercusiones tanto para los servicios de salud como para la mano de obra. Un incremento en el porcentaje de población de edad avanzada implica una mayor demanda de servicios de salud y otros servicios conexos. Dado que la edad media de la población trabajadora aumenta y que la vida laboral se prolonga, la demanda de formación (y reciclaje) también crecerá; asimismo, es posible que se demande una organización más flexible del trabajo.

Condiciones de vida

El desempleo disminuyó notablemente entre 2000 y 2008. Sin embargo, a escala regional las tasas de paro continuaban siendo elevadas en el sur de Italia, el este de Alemania y el sur de España, incluso antes de que estallara la crisis. No obstante, las regiones con altas tasas de desempleo han experimentado unos importantes flujos migratorios, si bien puede observarse un patrón diferente entre la UE-12 y la UE-15. En el primer caso, la migración se ha producido hacia las regiones predominantemente urbanas, sobre todo hacia las capitales. En la UE-15, en cambio, la migración se ha dirigido en mayor medida hacia las regiones predominantemente rurales que hacia las predominantemente urbanas. La migración procedente de fuera de la UE era hasta fechas recientes la mayor fuente de crecimiento de la población en las regiones de la UE, pero la integración adecuada de las personas afectadas continúa siendo heterogénea y los inmigrantes presentan unas tasas de empleo considerablemente inferiores a la media en muchos Estados miembros.

Pobreza

La estrategia Europa 2020 aspira a reducir la pobreza y la exclusión. El indicador utilizado para supervisar los avances logrados combina dos indicadores absolutos (privación material grave y residir en hogares con baja intensidad laboral) y uno relativo (ingresos por debajo del umbral de riesgo de pobreza).

El fomento de la inclusión activa y la reducción de la pobreza exige realizar inversiones en educación, formación y desarrollo de capacidades, la modernización de los mercados de trabajo y de los sistemas educativos, de formación y de salud a fin de ayudar a las personas a anticiparse a los cambios y a gestionarlos adecuadamente, así como para construir una sociedad cohesionada.

Mejora de la sostenibilidad ambiental

Adaptación al cambio climático

La adaptación al cambio climático resultará especialmente difícil en las ciudades y regiones del sur, así como en las zonas costeras y montañosas.

Al mismo tiempo, se prevé que las inundaciones aumenten en otras regiones, en las que además hay muchas ciudades especialmente vulnerables.
Limitación del cambio climático
La meta consistente en reducir la emisión de gases de efecto invernadero en un 20 % es ambiciosa y requerirá inversiones tanto del sector público como del privado. Este último estará cubierto en gran medida por el régimen de comercio de derechos de emisión, pero el sector público deberá introducir cambios importantes y realizar fuertes inversiones para reducir las emisiones y el consumo de energía. El aumento de la eficiencia energética requerirá inversiones en el aislamiento de edificios, en sistemas de calefacción diferentes, en modos de transporte más eficientes y, quizás, en la promoción de la vida urbana y el diseño de ciudades más compactas.

Mejora de la calidad ambiental
La calidad del aire es deficitaria en muchas regiones, especialmente en los centros de las ciudades y en el sur, lo que tiene efectos nocivos para la salud y la calidad de vida. La reducción de los niveles de ozono y la presencia de partículas sólidas en el aire requerirán mayores esfuerzos tanto a escala local como regional. Además, es necesario gestionar y proteger adecuadamente las zonas de la red Natura 2000 y la infraestructura verde en el resto de zonas rurales.

Políticas nacionales y cohesión
Los gobiernos nacionales han puesto en marcha diversas políticas de desarrollo regional dirigidas a fomentar la cohesión económica, social y territorial. Mientras algunos Estados miembros dan prioridad a la reducción de las diferencias regionales, otros se concentran en mayor medida en mejorar la competitividad nacional o sus características territoriales específicas. Con independencia del enfoque adoptado, el acento se sitúa cada vez más en la estimulación del desarrollo endógeno mediante el apoyo de aquellas áreas en las que las regiones cuentan con ventajas comparativas, en lugar de ofrecer compensaciones por las desventajas.

La inversión pública es crucial para mejorar la competitividad de las regiones menos desarrolladas, especialmente en aquellas que cuentan con una menor dotación de infraestructuras. Varios estudios recientes han concluido que, bajo determinadas condiciones, la inversión pública impulsa el crecimiento; entre esas condiciones, una adecuada gobernanza institucional se considera absolutamente imprescindible. El apoyo de la política de cohesión garantiza que las regiones y los países menos desarrollados puedan mantener las tasas de inversión pública necesarias para aumentar su potencial de crecimiento y les ayuda a fortalecer su capacidad institucional.

Las mayores tasas de inversión pública en los países de cohesión se han dedicado principalmente a mejorar las infraestructuras, en particular las redes de transporte, y en ese sentido la política de cohesión ha desempeñado un papel crucial en la reducción de la diferencia con respecto a las regiones más avanzadas de la UE.

A diferencia de lo que sucede en el caso del derecho a recibir financiación comunitaria en el marco de los fondos de cohesión, la relativa prosperidad de las regiones no influye de forma decisiva en su acceso a los fondos de inversión nacionales, salvo en Alemania y, en menor medida, en Francia. Otros factores, como las características geográficas, el grado de autonomía fiscal y política o la atracción de las capitales parecen ser como mínimo tan importantes como los objetivos de cohesión a la hora de determinar la distribución regional de la inversión pública.

En el periodo actual la política de cohesión incluye condiciones asociadas a la situación macroeconómica únicamente en lo que respecta al Fondo de Cohesión (aparte de los requisitos administrativos relacionados con la gestión financiera y los sistemas de control). Para el próximo periodo de programación, debería explorarse la cuestión de si sería necesario ampliar este tipo de condicionalidad macroeconómica y, en caso afirmativo, de qué manera. Asimismo, sería útil examinar otras condiciones, como los incentivos a la introducción de reformas en zonas estrechamente vinculadas a la actuación de la política de cohesión y que podrían incrementar los efectos y la rentabilidad de ésta.

Otras políticas comunitarias y política de cohesión
De acuerdo con el Tratado de la Unión Europea, el diseño y la aplicación de todas las políticas comunitarias deben tener en cuenta sus efectos sobre la cohesión económica, social y territorial. En la actualidad algunas políticas presentan una clara dimensión territorial, como sucede en el caso de la política de transporte o en el de la política medioambiental. Otras políticas tienen una dimensión territorial parcial, como las políticas en materia de investigación, salud o sociedad de la información. La aplicación de determinadas políticas no distingue (o no puede distinguir) entre las diferentes partes de la UE, por ejemplo las que tratan sobre el comercio o el mercado único.

La mejora de las infraestructuras, por ejemplo, no se traduce automáticamente en un mayor crecimiento y, de hecho, podría provocar incluso una disminución neta de la actividad económica en las regiones menos desarrolladas (efectos no intencionados o «leaking by linkings»). La inversión en infraestructuras debe combinarse con inversiones en educación, empresa e innovación con objeto de garantizar que tenga consecuencias positivas para el desarrollo, pero también que dicho efecto sea el máximo posible teniendo en cuenta los efectos complementarios de esta otra inversión.
8. Public private partnership (PPP)

Constrain the functions of public administration, promoting public private partnership but also including control functions and ensuring the public good and the need for fairness in public administration about their managed / citizens.

Both legislation and planning must ensure equal rights, avoiding discretion.

Limiting the role of government to work on the development and enforcement of regulations, with the direct and exclusive only in those fields that apply to public services defined. Enhancing public participation at all levels and groups.

8. Partenariado público privado (PPP)

Delimitar las funciones de la administración pública, promoviendo la colaboración público- privada, pero sin olvidar las funciones de control y garantía del bien público, así como la necesaria equidad de la administración pública respecto a sus administrados/ciudadanos.

Tanto la legislación como el planeamiento han de garantizar la igualdad de derechos, evitando la discrecionalidad.

Limitar la función de las administraciones a las labores de desarrollo y control del cumplimiento de la normativa, con la intervención directa y exclusiva solo en aquellos campos que correspondan a los servicios públicos definidos. Potenciar la participación pública a todos los niveles y de todos los colectivos.


Institutional and Strategic Barriers to Public–Private Partnership: An Analysis of Dutch cases Erik-Hans Klijn and Geert R. Teisman

Public–Private Partnerships (PPPs) are becoming popular in Europe, but does the reality match the idea of co-operating actors who achieve added value together and share risks? An analysis of three PPPs in the Netherlands suggests that, in practice, PPPs are less ideal than the idea. Partners have difficulty with joint decision-making and organization and tend to revert to traditional forms—by contracting out and by separating responsibilities.

The Problem of Co-operation

For the past two decades, a large number of countries have been investigating and promoting Public–Private Partnerships (PPPs).

The Dutch Knowledge Centre on PPP, set up in the late 1990s by the Dutch Ministry of Finance, has stated that ‘International experiences demonstrate that a faster and more efficient implementation of infrastructure projects is possible through public– private partnership (PPP). Both public and private actors in the Netherlands have displayed an interest and willingness for PPP’ (Kenniscentrum, 1998).

PPP can be defined as ‘co-operation between public and private actors with a durable character in which actors develop mutual products and/or services and in which risk, costs, and benefits are shared’. These are based on mutual added value. Actors foresee additional benefits and expect that these will outweigh the (extra) cost of co-operation.

Benefits can take a variety of forms, for example financial/material (profits, working space, and increased transport capacity), or more intangibly (image and knowledge development). The costs of co-operation can be one-time only (preparation, adaptation of the internal organization), or recurring (organizational co-ordination, adaptation and tuning of substantive objectives). But what is important is the added value of synergy, i.e. being able to develop a product with characteristics that would not have been available without a PPP.

Co-operation, however, implies an increase in the number of participants. Also, in partnerships, the actors are usually dependent upon each other. These two basic conditions create problems (see, for example, Emerson, 1962; Scharpf, 1978; Rogers and Whetten, 1992; Klijn and Teisman, 2000).

Network Governance

This problem of co-operation can be explored through the network perspective on governance, which assumes that policy is developed and implemented in networks of organizations (see, for example, Kickert et al., 1997; Klijn and Koppenjan, 2000). Policy networks can be defined as hanging patterns of social relationships between interdependent actors which take shape around policy problems and/or clusters of resources that are formed, maintained and changed by an ecology of games. Networks emerge and continue to exist because actors are dependent on each other.
Actors cannot achieve their objectives without resources which are possessed by other actors. Thus, networks are characterized by a limited substitutability of resources, which ensures that sustainable social relations are created between actors. Within these policy networks, actors conduct themselves strategically in policy processes. This theoretical framework sees policy processes as a series of games (see Scharpf, 1997 for an explanation of the game concept).

The multiplicity of actors and their various (and often conflicting) perceptions, interests and strategies, make these games complex (see, for example, Teisman, 2000). Games are played in arenas—some games are played out in several arenas at once (Klijn et al., 2000). Arenas are the action context in which the games take place. Arenas can be characterized by a specific set of actors, the decision-making situation in which they find themselves (constellation of preferences and positions), and the organizational arrangements according to which decisions are made. Arenas are ‘activated game fields’ and can be located within one or more networks. Some of the actors in a network will not be involved in all the games and arenas.

Games are likely to become complicated if they take place in arenas that are located in different networks—this makes it more difficult to connect the various interactions. Also, in these cases, it is more likely that different rules of behaviour will be needed (Klijn, 2001).

**Actors, Networks, Arenas and Strategies**

PPPs include actors from different networks, each with their own history and practices, and they are constantly influenced by decisions made in other arenas. A PPP is created by a game that involves more than one arena (for instance central and local government), and more than one network (for instance a traffic and transport network and a public housing network). At the same time, a game surrounding a PPP project can be influenced by decisions taken in other games and arenas.

In these games, each of the actors chooses their own strategy. This can make decision making in PPPs extremely complex, because decisions are faced not only with an institutional complexity, but also with a strategic complexity.
9. Urban rural balance

Finding a new relationship between metropolitan area and surrounding rural areas, understanding integrated in its territory and as providers of services to all of it.

Strengthen a structure and core networks to revitalize and incorporate rural settings without forgetting its support function in terms of both production of natural resources (air, water and food) and their lung function and overrun and public recreation.

Evaluate and enhance the features of the landscape, wildlife conservation (wildlife corridors) for renewal of air and water regeneration.

Quantify their supply capacities and their natural behavior to avoid or limit possible destructive actions (earthquakes, floods, landslides, volcanic emissions) that could affect the immediate population.

http://www.nordregio.se/filer/north002art.htm

Urban-Rural Partnership in Europe by Keneva Kunz

The European Spatial Development Perspective (ESDP) aim of achieving balanced development across the EU territory certainly sounds a lot like traditional regional development policy. What is new about the ESDP, however, as compared to the traditional model, however, is its policy approach to distribution of resources together with its tools. As far as policy is concerned, the ESDP clearly states that development on the periphery is not to be achieved at the cost of the core: the twin policy aims of development and balance are to be pursued by promoting the "development of a polycentric and balanced urban system and strengthening the partnership between urban and rural areas". This is the first of three development objectives for the territory of the EU and was one of three central themes of the recently completed Study Programme on European Spatial Planning, a European-wide undertaking involving all 15 EU members plus the Commission and co-ordinated by Nordregio.

What partnership, one might ask? At first, and even second, glance it scarcely seems as if the interests of rural and urban areas overlap to any great extent. Quite the opposite seems often to be the case, often giving rise to mutual distrust, if not animosity. And if the trends of recent years are any indication, European integration, and perhaps more precisely European economic integration, has tended to promote the interests of urban areas (referred to as the "engines of economic development") at the cost of rural ones. The ESDP, however, emphasizes the concept of polycentric development at European level, advocating the development of a number of integration zones. At present only one large geographical zone could be described as being fully integrated in the global economy: the core or "pentagon" area of the European Union, with its five points defined by the metropolises of London, Paris, Milan, Munich and Hamburg. As is claimed, there is a potential for developing a number of dynamic zones of global economic integration within the EU territory, this would create a network of internationally accessible metropolitan regions (and their linked hinterlands) that could play a key role in improving spatial balance in Europe. Taking this one further step backward, it is only logical that fostering well balanced relationships between urban and rural areas - through partnership - could support this overall aim of polycentric development.

The SPESP report, and naturally the report of the working group upon which it is based, examines in considerable detail what is meant by the notion of urban-rural partnership, looks at typologies of "rural" and "urban" settlements, and surveys what successful examples can be currently found in various areas of Europe. Linking the interests of urban and rural areas is promoted as a key mechanism for spreading the benefits of dynamic growth zones to their hinterlands, mitigating the adverse effects emanating from these growth zones, and strengthening local initiatives in rural areas. "The objective is not necessarily to find a balance between interests but, instead, to evaluate and pass on experiences gained in co-operation between towns and countryside on specific projects or initiatives. The notion of urban-rural relationships on which these partnerships are based emphasizes promotion of an integrated conception of town/city and countryside/rural corresponding to actually operating functional linkages. This challenges the dualism between city and countryside which still dominates current policy approaches, especially at the European level."
Although cities have been around for quite some time, the urbanization process we generally refer to today is results mainly from post-industrial migration from the countryside to the cities. People moved seeking employment, first in the industrial and later in the service sector. Especially after WW II (in the UK the process began even earlier) the kernels of population density in Europe grew into large urban areas, starting in the northwest of Europe and spreading to all corners of the EU. Rapid transportation has helped to shrink communication space and allow urban areas to encompass a time radius of about 30-60 minutes' travelling time. Residential functions led the way out of the cities, followed promptly by manufacturing and, most recently, back-offices. Congestion in core urban areas also served as a "push factor". Concurrent to the urban spread, however, there was also a selective re-concentration in the core of specific functions, including high quality commercial and residential functions.

In more recent times, the processes of European integration, internationalization and economic globalization have all contributed to considerably changing the relationships between major metropolitan areas, on the one hand, and medium-sized and small towns, as well as rural areas, on the other hand. Traditional producer-consumer links between urban and rural areas were exemplified by agricultural production, with (rural) towns serving as market locations for products and attracting the spending of consumers living in the rural areas. "In a traditional hierarchical model rural products were conceived of as flowing to urban markets, in an 'urban hierarchy'. Large towns derived their economic strength and their 'respectability' from their relationships with the surrounding rural areas, including a number of medium-sized and small towns. In many European regions agricultural land was, in fact, in the hands of land owners living in towns, with the resulting rent therefore serving as an source of income for urban areas."

Those were the days, a rural dweller could wryly comment, today the picture is quite different. Rural areas have for some time now been regarded as marginal, or even problem, spaces. They may suffer from any number of difficulties, including a declining population, a lack of entrepreneurs to develop, enhance or market their endogenous resources, and weak support for those who do strive to initiate any actions. Their relationship to urban areas has become one of much greater dependence than in the past.

In today's global economy, metropolitan areas have plenty of growth options. They can, for example, increase their competitiveness through co-operation with other metropolitan areas on a global scale, which can make them less dependent upon their immediate surroundings. They may expand into those surrounding areas as needed, and on their own terms. Yet the powerful metropolises are far from independent: although they may have less need of products for their markets, new forms of dependency have emerged, for instance, for natural resources (such as growing needs for fresh water and fresh air) and for recreational amenities for urban dwellers. So the relationship between metropolitan centres and their surrounding areas, and with it the interdependency, is definitely changing.

To quote the SPESP report, the picture is a motley one: "Looking at the whole EU territory from this perspective reveals a highly varied picture, because the process of metropolitan redeployment is more or less advanced from one country to another and from one region to another. While redeployment is quite far advanced in northwest Europe, it has hardly begun some countries of southern Europe - where even recent decades were characterized by significant migration flows from rural areas to cities." Which produces a wide variety of types and shades of interdependency.

Getting a clear picture of the needs and strengths of the partners involved is clearly an important first step in investigating how they can co-operate with one another. But what do urban and rural settlements look like in the Europe of the new millennium?

"Not only have urban-rural relationships changed in nature and intensity, but new types of areas have emerged which are both rural and urban, or neither urban nor rural, in terms of morphology and functionality. The emergence of intermediate areas is also largely the result of the changing nature of relationships between urban and rural areas. Intermediate areas are to some extent a territorial compromise between the attractiveness of towns in terms of employment and services and the amenities of rural zones. This third form of territorial organization is anything but uniform throughout Europe. Nevertheless, it is progressing in urbanized tourist areas (non-urban, but no longer rural) along coastal belts, mountain valleys or wide hilly areas endowed with good natural amenities. The formation of wide suburban areas with low-density settlements (still belonging to an urban environment) and the formation of "rurban" settlements through the spacious urbanization of some rural areas can be added to this list. In numerous regions, however, the former dichotomy still has a certain degree of validity."

A typology of urban-rural relationships presented in the report, even though it is highly simplified, reveals a complex, and perhaps more worrying, a very uneven balance between the two partners. "Sometimes the development of rural areas limits urban development, but more often the development of rural areas depends on economic activities and facilities located in cities and urban areas. It is those parts of the rural areas which are most firmly linked to the growing parts of the national economy, i.e. those which lie geographically closest to them or attract visitors, which receive the strongest positive developmental impulses. Clearly the spatial and ecological footprint of urban areas extends well beyond the city limits."

The SPESP report makes a further important distinction: "Furthermore, it is important to distinguish between urban-rural relationships, which refer to the actually operating, functional linkages between urban and rural areas, and urban-rural partnerships, which refer to initiatives to formulate, adapt and implement such an integrated policy."
A typology of urban-rural relationships:

- home-work relationships
- central place relationships
- relationships between metropolitan areas and urban centres in rural and intermediate areas
- relationships between rural and urban enterprises
- rural areas as consumption areas for urban dwellers
- rural areas as open spaces for urban areas
- rural areas as carriers of urban infrastructure
- rural areas as suppliers of natural resources for urban areas

The relationship is constantly changing: new, perhaps more indirect, forms of exploitation are edging out some previous and more distinct forms of exploitation. Rural areas can be transformed into landscapes for consumption of urban dwellers and lose much control of their own destiny. If their relationship is to be redefined it will require a redefinition of the potential of each, and how that potential can be achieved better through co-operation - partnership - than competition.

The ESDP itself points out a series of preconditions for a successful urban-rural partnership, stating that "practical partnership expresses itself through co-operation and co-ordination." Among them are: the equality and independence of the partners; their voluntary participation in partnership; a co-operative structure that takes into consideration different administrative conditions; and sharing responsibility and benefit.

It also indicates some implications for urban-rural partnership: "partnership means sharing costs and benefits, for example, of the provision of high-quality and expensive infrastructure facilities or the protection of areas for water supply to the urban population." The exchange of services between towns and countryside needs to be re-evaluated from a sustainable spatial development perspective, aimed at the creation of a regional "service pool" for local government services, for instance.

The ESDP emphasizes the need to involve different actors in urban-rural partnerships: "in addition to the partnership between administrations, partnership-based networks between companies in towns and the countryside play a major role in the regional economy. Potential synergies can be exploited and learning processes established, to provide companies in spatial proximity with knowledge and information".

So if now we are convinced that the idea is a good one, the next question becomes, How do EU policies encourage the urban-rural partnership process? Not nearly well enough, the Study Programme concludes. "The picture emerging from an overview of recent developments in EU rural and urban policies is one of two policy domains operating side by side. Although agricultural policy is gradually changing into rural development policy, the economic system of rural areas, based to a large extent on their fabric of smaller and larger urban centres, is still hardly targeted. Policies aimed at urban areas, on the other hand, do not view cities and metropolitan areas as part of complex regional systems which include rural areas. From a partnership point of view, policies targeted at rural and urban areas, which do not take into account the complex linkages between these two categories of areas, are hardly likely to be fully effective."

During the first phase of the SPESP an attempt was made, under the heading of urban-rural partnership, to identify and describe different regional contexts of urban and rural patterns which could then be further mapped out and serve as a basis for developing specific policy options aiming at improved and intensified partnerships. To be successful, however, such policies have to be adaptable to regional situations: the same treatment cannot be applied to an isolated metropolis in a deserted rural environment as to a set of medium-sized towns located in an area with highly productive agriculture. Flexible policies, suited to the specific development paradigm, are what is needed.

Both sides clearly have much to gain: rural areas can regain stalled initiative and open new areas for development, while partnership can promote sustainable development in metropolitan and other highly urbanized regions. Which is no less important: increasing suburbanization in and around metropolitan areas consumes large amounts of land resources and has high social costs in terms of infrastructure provision, mobility and energy.

Again, behind the desire to replace competition and conflict between urban and rural areas with co-operation and partnerships lies the wish to promote more balanced settlement structure. This is needed to prevent both greater polarization and concentration in metropolitan areas and more urban sprawl in the suburban areas. It means concrete planning initiatives: "utilization of undeveloped or green land areas should be orientated towards public accessibility and leisure activities to a greater extent. Incentives should contribute to new forms of management of open spaces and nature areas with a view to the needs of urban dwellers. In particular, neglected forest areas should be transformed into an attractive environment. Agricultural use, which is important to resist against land-use transformation, should be supported, provided the cultivation methods are not detrimental to the environment."

The resulting, more polycentric settlement patterns should benefit the development of medium-sized and small towns as well as protect open spaces and, in particular, valuable natural areas. Creating functional diversification in municipalities far from urban cores can provide a "city effect", reducing pressure on those cores. Integration of metropolitan public transportation with the development of new urban settlements is highly important in this respect as in so many others: rethinking transport should be a planning priority. Many of these concerns are highlighted in reports of the European Environment Agency as of central importance for meeting EU environmental objectives."
As usual, economic concerns are closely linked, not just to environmental ones but also to social ones. Urban-rural partnerships in metropolitan and other highly urbanized regions can prove an important tool in promoting better social integration. Because social diversification has a discernible spatial dimension, more balanced settlement systems are likely to be less conducive to social exclusion than are large concentrations of economic deprivation and ethnic minority populations.
10. Cross borders

Promoting globalization and free markets require balancing the maximum legal conditions and relations of the peoples on its territory. The necessary territorial balance and the need for integrated planning in metropolitan areas lead to the necessary joint planning of the surrounding space. Therefore there is need for greater collaboration and cooperation among the different administrations of the territory.

The extent of reliance on different functional areas is forced to have a broader view of it than mere administrative limit.

The disappearance of borders and boundaries requires increased collaboration and intergovernmental cooperation overcoming traditional boundaries.


Living areas, employment areas, urban areas or metropolitan areas, rural districts, etc. Such “lived spaces” do not fit in with established political and administrative processes. These spaces cross national borders, a process that European integration can only encourage. Reflecting the debate on the future of the Union, the challenge today is to know what cross-border territories we want to build for tomorrow. Are we moving towards simple free trade areas (free movement of persons, goods, services and capital) or towards genuine territories formed within defined perimeters, backed politically and managed technically by cross-border governance?

While the territorial (and in particular urban) dimension of the cohesion policy is asserted, and territorial cooperation is now one of the Stated objectives of the cohesion policy, neither the objectives of this cooperation in terms of territorial development nor the territorial concepts that it uses (euroregions, eurodistricts, etc.) have been defined precisely at Community level. The economy (productive, residential) of cross-border territories also remains a field in which practically no research has been done. Concepts, typology and scales of cross-border territories… there is an urgent need to propose suitable methodologies and obtain recognition of the completely specific position that such territories occupy in the construction of Europe.

10. Límites administrativos

El fomento de la globalización y el libre mercado exigen equilibrar al máximo las condiciones legales y las relaciones de la población en su territorio. El necesario reequilibrio territorial y la necesidad de una planificación integrada en las áreas metropolitanas, conducen a la necesaria planificación conjunta del espacio circundante. Por ello, se hace necesario una mayor colaboración y cooperación entre las distintas administraciones del territorio.

La extensión de la dependencia en las diferentes áreas funcionales obliga a tener una visión más amplia del mismo más allá de los meros límites administrativos.

La desaparición de límites y fronteras requiere un aumento de la colaboración y cooperación interadministrativa superando los límites territoriales tradicionales.