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METREX Thessaloniki 2002
third biennial Conference
THURSDAY 16 MAY

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   Conference Chair
   Professor Mercedes BRESSO
   President, Provincia di Torino
   President of METREX

2 Welcome addresses
   Organisation for the Planning and Environmental Protection of Thessaloniki
   Organisation for the Planning and Environmental Protection of Athens
   Ministry for the Environment, Physical Planning and Public Works
   City of Thessaloniki
   Prefecture of Thessaloniki

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3 Unity, solidarity, diversity for Europe, its people and its territory
   Wolfgang PETZOLD
   Directorate General for Regional Policy (DG Regio)
   European Commission

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European policy on Employment and Social Affairs

4 Jean LAMBERT, MEP
   Member of the Committee on Employment and Social Affairs
   European Parliament

5 Professor Mercdese BRESSO
   Member of the Commission for Economic and Social Policy (ECOS)
   Committee of the Regions (COR)

6 Dimitrios DIMITRIADIS
   Member of the European Economic and Social Committee (ESC)

7 Conference Directions
   Professor Grigoris KAFKALAS
   Department of Urban and Regional Planning and Development
   Aristotle University of Thessaloniki
   Joint Rapporteur General for the METREX Thessaloniki Conference

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8 The Social Face of Sustainability
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   Professor of Social Policy, The London School of Economics
   Member of the UK Commission on Sustainable Development
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Roger READ
For the SocioMETREX project Expert Group

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John THOMPSON
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<td>Stuttgart</td>
<td>Dr. Bernd STEINACHER</td>
<td>Director</td>
<td>Verband Region Stuttgart</td>
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<td>Birmingham</td>
<td>Martin EADE</td>
<td>Team Leader</td>
<td>Strategic Planning, Birmingham City Council</td>
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<td>Rapporteur</td>
<td>Marcin LEWINSKI</td>
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<td>Municipality of Szczecin</td>
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<td>European</td>
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35 Dr. Gerald McGRATH
Honorary President of METREX
Good morning colleagues and welcome to the third METREX biennial Conference here in Thessaloniki. It is my great pleasure to open the proceedings and to introduce you to the Conference theme and sub themes.

The Conference theme The Social Face of Sustainability

The theme of "The Social Face of Sustainability" was chosen by our Greek colleagues in Thessaloniki and Athens and it has proved to be a timely issue for discussion. Social cohesion is a key issue as the European Union faces enlargement. Social sustainability is a wider issue that involves the longer term relationships between the European space and those who live in it.

Sustainability began as an environmental concept concerned about the capacity of planet earth to absorb the impact of human activity on its ecosystems. It has now moved beyond this to the more encompassing concept of how human life can be sustained without diminishing the prospects of future generations. Sustainability has taken on the more complete concern for human life, the planet and future generations.

This means taking a holistic longer term approach to social, economic and environmental sustainability. There is now a considerable amount of documentation on how to achieve this but everyone acknowledges that social, economic and environmental decisions are related and have to be considered in an integrated way if a more sustainable approach is to be achieved. The question for us is what this means for metropolitan governance and the spatial planning and development processes that take place within its administrative framework.

An Integrated Regional Strategy

Firstly, it means having a form of metropolitan governance that is inclusive and embraces sectoral and local community interests. It means including those responsible for health, education, security, welfare, employment, transportation, infrastructure and the environment. It also means including groups with more local interests in these functions. These "stakeholders" are the partners through whom a metropolitan authority will have to work if its strategy is to be effective and sustainable. An integrated regional strategy of this kind will provide the holistic framework within which spatial planning and development can play its part.

The four Conference sub themes

You will know from the Conference Brochure that colleagues from twelve European metropolitan areas have been considering, specifically, the contribution that spatial planning and development can make to social sustainability within the SocioMETREX project. We will be considering their interim findings and conclusions in Workshop 1 this afternoon. The SocioMETREX project has been looking at four sub themes, which we will also be considering at our Conference here in Thessaloniki.

1 Urban migration and social sustainability including issues of housing need and provision and community development

We know that cities are ever changing. Population and households and the economy and employment are growing, declining or changing their structure. People and jobs are moving into and out of metropolitan areas as well as within them. The spatial planning and development process has to foresee and anticipate the social needs that arise from such changes, particularly for housing and community development. We will explore this issue in Workshop 2.

2 Urban deprivation including issues of urban renewal and regeneration priorities and action

We also know that change requires the urban fabric to be constantly renewed and adapted to accommodate the new demands being placed upon it. European metropolitan areas now have a wealth of experience in regenerating inner areas and the peripheral housing estates of the post war period. Physical renewal is only one aspect of this process. The bigger issue is how to reintegrate such areas into the social and economic life of the metropolitan area. We will consider all these matters in Workshop 3.

3 Economic inclusion including issues of education, skills and economic development

A key aspect of integration and inclusion is "life long learning" to give all citizens in metropolitan areas the education and skills they need to remain as economically active as they choose to be. Communities within metropolitan areas need to have the capability to foster and develop local social and economic activity. However, metropolitan spatial planning and development also needs to have the capability to relate labour markets to wider economic opportunities and development. These issues will be the subjects of Workshop 4.
4 Inclusive accessibility
including issues of urban form and public transport

One of the key issues in any metropolitan area is the transport system and its capability to facilitate the movement people to employment and social activities. Without an inclusive transport system no metropolitan area can be socially and economically inclusive. We know that the European form of metropolitan area has traditionally been compact and centralised rather than spread out and decentralised, public transport orientated rather than car orientated. This has been changing and Workshop 5 will explore how inclusive accessibility can be sustained in our urban areas.

Polycentric metropolitan regions and areas

All of the four key issues seem to lead to us to support the concept of polycentric metropolitan areas as the model that is most appropriate to European needs and to social sustainability. However, it would be wrong to leap to this conclusion before the Conference has begun! Let us use our short time here in Thessaloniki to reflect on the positive role that spatial planning and development can play, within a wider integrated metropolitan strategy for social, economic and environmental sustainability.

The Conference Programme

You will see from your updated Conference Programme that there have been some changes from the Conference Brochure but that the basic form and content of the Conference remains as was intended.

We will begin this morning with some words of welcome from our hosts, the Organisations for the Master Plan and Environmental Protection of Thessaloniki and of Athens, and from other colleagues from the Greek Government, the Region of Macedonia and the Prefecture of Thessaloniki. There are special arrangements in Greece for metropolitan planning in Athens and Thessaloniki and we will learn more about these during the first session tomorrow morning.

We are then fortunate to have a series of speakers from the main European institutions who will explain their positions on European policy for cohesion and for employment and social affairs. It will then be my pleasure to introduce you to Professor Grigoris Kafkalas who is our Rapporteur General.

After lunch we have a Keynote Address on the Conference theme from Professor Anne Power, who advises the UK government on sustainability and who has kindly helped to facilitate the SocioMETREX project.

The Workshop programme

At previous METREX Conferences we have had more Workshops and more speakers in each Workshop. Colleagues found that there was almost too much choice and not enough time for the discussion of issues within Workshops. Here in Thessaloniki we have only four Workshops tomorrow with generally three speakers in each.

The success of this more focussed approach will depend on Workshop speakers keeping to their allotted time and highlighting key issues for discussion. I do appeal to all speakers and delegates to help the Workshop Chairs and Rapporteurs by being succinct and to the point in their contributions.

One Friday we will also have the added pleasure of a Plenary Address on “New Life for Old Cities” from our new colleague, the Minister for territorial planning in Catalunya, D. Felip Puig i Godes.

Unfortunately the new date for the Thessaloniki Conference coincides with a Plenary Session of the Committee of the Regions and for this reason I have asked our Honorary President, Dr. Gerald McGrath to take over the Chairmanship of the Conference from me on Friday and Saturday.

Saturday is always an important day because the Rapporteur General will present the findings and conclusions of the Conference and we have important Keynote Speakers on “The Way Forward” from the OECD and from the Work Foundation, which are organisations that have a central interest in the issue of social sustainability. As an innovation we will also have special contributions on “The view from the Conference delegates”.

This then is the framework for our third METREX Conference and I wish you success in your deliberations. The most that any Conference can hope to achieve is the transfer of knowledge and understanding that is of practical use and value. We are a network of practitioners and I am sure that the speakers that we will enjoy over the next three days will offer us valuable insights into the issue of “The Social Face of Sustainability”.

It is now my pleasure to give the floor to our colleagues from Thessaloniki and Athens. I am sure that you would all wish me to say at this point how delighted we are to be in Thessaloniki and how grateful we are to the Organisations of Thessaloniki and Athens for being our hosts.
The title of my presentation is not purely coincidental. It is the title of the 2nd Report on Economic and Social Cohesion, which the European Commission published in January 2001. This report, which has been meanwhile updated by its First progress report in January 2002, launched the debate about the future of EU’s structural policy beyond 2006 in a then possible Union of 25 Member States. I will draw your attention on the main findings of the two reports and the likely roadmap to reform of the Structural Funds.

With its overarching policy goal of ensuring economic and social cohesion in the Community and between its regions, the EU became since the 1990s not only one, but in some Member States the actor in the field of structural policy. The increase of regional disparities following southern enlargement of the EC led to a rise of the Structural Funds’ share between 1990 and 2000 from 21% to 36% of the Community budget (in absolute figures: Euro 9.6 to 36.7 billion p.a.). Compared to the EU average Greece, Portugal and Ireland could increase their GDP per capita from 63.5% in 1989 to over 70% in 1999. The 2nd Cohesion Report estimates that one third of this increase could be related to Structural Funds’ interventions through their cumulative effects. However, the effects are smaller in regions, where the interventions are not that much concentrated.

**Structural Funds**

The Structural Funds can cover support for transport, environmental and educational infrastructure and private investments (in “Objective 1” regions, which are defined by a capita GDP of 75% of the EU average). Funding is as well available for start-up programmes and centres, qualification and employment measures, programmes for cross-border and interregional co-operation or projects in favour of deprived urban areas. These measures have to be designed as integrated development programmes to overcome fragmented policy approaches. The programmes are managed at regional or national level and usually combined with existing regional and employment policies of the Member States and regions. The latter request more simplified management arrangements for the future, while the European Commission has to secure a sound and efficient management of the funds.

The Commission’s 2nd Cohesion Report and its update, the First progress report on economic and social cohesion, outline the challenges in the enlarged EU27, respectively EU25, since it became clear at the EU summit in Laeken in December 2001, that the first wave of accessions will not include Romania and Bulgaria. These challenges are enormous both, for the EU15 and for the accession countries. The EU’s surface and population will increase by around a third whereas the GDP will only rise by 5% (1999 figures). The Union will be confronted with differences in levels of regional development, which it never faced before.

For an enlarged EU27 the reports differentiate three groups of countries:

- countries with a GDP per capita of 120% and above (all Member States of EU15 except E, P and GR). Approximately 70% of the population in an EU27 live in these Member States;
- the "cohesion countries" E, P and GR plus Slovenia, Malta, the Czech Republic and Cyprus, with an average GDP per capita of 87%. This group would cover 13% of the EU27 population;
- the remaining accession countries have a GDP of about 40% of the Community’s average. 16% of the EU27 population live in these countries.

The population living in regions with a GDP per capita below 75% will rise from 19% (EU15) to 26% (EU27), i.e. from 71 to 125 million inhabitants (115 million in EU25). Statistical effects will lower the community average of the GDP per capita by 18% (13% in EU25). 24 regions of the EU15, which receive funding through Objective 1 today, would exceed the threshold of 75% without having their situation improved. The ratio between the richest 10% of regions and the last developed 10% in EU27 would rise to 5.8 (5.4 in EU25) compared to 2.6 in EU15.

**Capital expenditure**

Capital expenditure in the CEECs is expected to be high in the fields of transport and environment. It is estimated that transeuropean networks in the accession countries would cost altogether Euro 90 billion and meeting of EU’s environmental standards in these countries would need further expenditure between Euro 50 and 100 billion. The annual expenditure for both areas is estimated between Euro 15 and 20 billion.

Answers to the challenge of enlargement have to start from this situation but they must also find consensus in the current Member States. The problems of the current regions lagging behind in the EU15 will remain for many of them. Abrupt absence of Structural Funds could interrupt their catching-up process. These and other questions, which go beyond the context of structural policy, have to be answered. The Commission has committed itself to submit a package of proposals in 2004.
Reform beyond 2006

The 2nd Cohesion Report contains a number of topics for structural policy’s reform beyond 2006. Out of 10 priorities 6 are related regional development and planning, while 4 concern employment and social issues.

- the regions with the greatest development needs should be at the center of support
- the cities can become the starting point of a strategy for solidarity and sustainable development
- the diversification of the rural areas should be further accompanied
- cross-border, transnational and interregional co-operation can ensure and spread the value of structural interventions
- areas in structural change need support as well
- areas with serious geographical or natural disadvantages are affected in a special way by concentration processes
- more and better jobs
- promotion of the new economy and the knowledge-based society
- promotion of social integration
- equal opportunities.

Questions

The following questions remain to be clarified for the reform of the Structural Funds:

- the question of the role of structural policy in the enlarged Union. It is the question by which interventions the best added value can be achieved, but also a question for the concept of structural policy in an EU27;
- the question about future priorities;
- the question of the definition of eligible regions and their design;
- the question of the extent and the allocation of Structural Funds capital between Member States;
- the question of how to improve and decentralise management and administration of the interventions.

At the heart of the discussion on the future reform of cohesion policy is the question of Community added value. This concept is based on the idea that Community assistance is provided when the measures carried out by the Member States are not sufficient (criterion of necessity) and that its effect is beneficial for the whole Union (criterion of efficiency). Structural policies are based upon shared responsibility between the European Union, the Member States and the regions. This allows the identification of a number of elements of added value, which serve to justify these policies. There are four broad types of criteria:

- Community goals, i.e. economic and social cohesion, balanced and sustainable development, Community priorities;
- The Community resources mobilised and their impact (redistribution, concentration, multiplier effect);
- The way the Structural Funds are implemented based on common rules and principles.
- Cooperation and networking.

Roadmap to reform

The roadmap to reform of EU structural policy is likely to be as follows: the Commission will in 2002 and 2003 continue the debate concerning different aspects of structural policy beyond 2006, e.g. through a number of seminars about the relevant topics and questions. Based on the 3rd Cohesion Report at the end of 2003 the Commission will probably present in spring 2004 a package containing proposals for other policy areas as well, e.g. for the Common Agricultural Policy. Council and Parliament will discuss the regulations in 2004/05. The European Council will probably decide in spring 2006 on the new financial forecast for 2007 until 2013. It can be assumed that the majority of the accession countries will then be Member States of the EU.

The cited reports and other studies and papers can be found at: www.europa.eu.int/comm/regional_policy

The views expressed in this text do not necessarily reflect the ones of the European Commission.

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I very much regret that I am unable to be with you at this Conference, which I really wanted to attend as it is dealing with an important subject. However, as the date clashes with the plenary session in Strasbourg, Members are unable to undertake the official representation of the Parliament at this time. We are also due to be debating and voting on two reports in Parliament this morning (Thursday) on the issue of sustainability, so I feel I am acting in solidarity with you.

I am aware that many local and regional authorities have already been very active on the subject of sustainability and have already been working together to prepare their input to governments in the run-up to the Sustainability summit in Johannesburg in August this year.

Your authorities bear an important responsibility for the delivery of services affected by policies on sustainability. Many of you will provide transport services, which have a direct social and environmental impact, will affect the development of your area and can be a crucial factor in supporting the local economy.

You will be responsible for a range of social services such as housing, which has a direct effect on health, quality of life and the stability of the community and the ability of business to recruit and retain employees.

You will probably be some of the EU's largest employers: you will have a direct interest in the quality of the delivery of essential services, the existence of a skilled workforce and all the EU's Directives and programmes concerning conditions of employment. For those of you from Member States, I hope you have been fully involved in the development of your annual National Action Plan on Employment. Unfortunately, the evidence suggests that many Member States may involve the Social Partners in these, but not their partners in government, despite the best efforts of the Committee of the Regions.

With the Convention on the future of the European Union currently in existence, I am sure that you will want to contribute your views as to how the regional tier of government should be involved within the EU in the future. It seems at times, that for many member states, subsidiarity stops at the national level.

The place of sustainability in the future role of the EU has also to be seen, yet it is possibly the most important decision to be made. Is the EU of the future to be truly committed to sustainability or do we want to have sustainability alongside "business-as usual", as is the current situation in my view?

We have no Treaty definition of sustainability, and we need one. The Conclusions of the Barcelona Summit in March this year stated that:

*Development which meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs...*  

But as so often within the prose of the EU it hangs on to the old language of economics, which was challenged in last year's Blockland Report on Environment and Economic Growth.

Until we begin to define growth in qualitative terms, we will not have sustainability. That is why the development of indicators which look at the relationship between the social, economic and environmental areas are so important. Yet, we know from the discussions on Social Inclusion over the last few months that member states barely measure anything in the same way. I remember the EU starting work on a range of indicators after the Rio Summit in 1992 - progress is evidently slow.

The Lisbon process aims to co-ordinate, rather than integrate, the economic and social fields of EU policy. The aim of the 2000 Lisbon Summit is often expressed as Europe becoming:

*"...the most competitive knowledge-based economy in the world."*

This is how Prime Ministers often quote it and, I have to say, the European Parliament itself. Yet the whole statement is more complex as it aimed for the EU to become:

*"... The most competitive knowledge-based economy in the world capable of sustained economic growth with more and better jobs and greater social cohesion..."*

Now, while this still begs the question as to what happens to those economies and people who do not win this competition, it does set a tough challenge for the EU.
Parliament welcomes the increased attention to the social dimension, yet the Lisbon process needed the Swedish presidency to introduce the environment, and provide a coherent approach to sustainability. Has that been maintained?

The social dimension has long seemed to be the poor relation in terms of EU competencies. Most of the activity in that field has been related to working conditions as an adjunct of economic and business policy. There has been little formal link between the environment and the social: it is not often that the Employment and Social Affairs Committee is asked for an Opinion on a Report in the Environment Committee and vice versa.

However, we are now seeing an increasing interest and activity in terms of social issues, partly as a result of changes introduced in the Treaty of Amsterdam which have widened the EU's competencies with regard to social inclusion and anti-discrimination, for example. This wider concern is also being driven by the changes in demography, as our population ages and shrinks in numbers. Alongside this, there is a concern about the rising costs to the state of social security, pensions (National Strategy Reports are due in September 2002) and access to health care (on the agenda for the Spring Summit of 2003). All of these areas will be dealt with under the increasingly popular method of open co-ordination, in which there is no clear role for the European Parliament or sub-national levels of government: something else for the Convention and InterGovernmental Committee to look at.

Last year saw the first National Action Plans on Social Inclusions: as you know, the next are due in 2003. The active consultation of all actors is required in these, so I hope you are already planning your input. After all, participation is also an important element of sustainability as Local Agenda 21 made clear. The European Parliament has welcomed the plans and the accompanying Action Programme - even if we did manage to win only an additional 5m euro to give a total of 75m euro.

We recognise that it is destructive for individuals and society alike to have such large numbers of people in poverty, or at risk of it, in one of the world's richest areas. We agree that the best path to social inclusion for many may well be through employment but we are concerned that those who are not able to follow this path are not forgotten or ignored. There are also implications for social sustainability if voluntary work is made more difficult, or if people feel they can no longer choose to care for their children or other dependants, or are pushed in to low-paid work, rather than the quality work that the Lisbon process aims for.

We are also concerned that the importance of strong, local economies is not always recognised: we have still not succeeded in gaining a separate budget line for this area. It can sometimes appear that the current emphasis on a flexible, mobile workforce and the increase in global markets is at the expense of maintaining strong local businesses and diverse economies. As energy and raw material costs rise and we seek to reduce our ecological footprint, the local economy becomes ever more important. The revision of the Common Agricultural Policy will also have a role to play here, in a new commitment to rural development.

So, what will the social face of sustainability look like?

According to the outcome of the Rio Summit, it will need to be more equitable, both within and between regions. It will be diverse, in terms of culture, ethnicity, age, religion, etc. The EU is an area of immigration, and migration and enlargement will also bring greater diversity. The Directives currently in preparation under Article 13, and others which are to come, dealing with anti-discrimination will mean fairer societies, willing to use all the talents available.

There will be a better work-life balance, so that people (men and women) can sustain both their private and their working lives, hopefully with time for civic involvement, too. Better occupation therapy and different working patterns, supported by strong social security systems, mean we will have more older people in the workforce. Lifelong learning, greater worker consultation, investment in the third sector, and new technologies should mean that we will be better able to cope with changes brought on by increasing environmental constraints and the development of new, ecologically sound industries run by companies who will be required to demonstrate their commitment to corporate social responsibility.

There are currently initiatives planned or already in process in all the areas I've just touched on.

The challenge for those of us committed to social justice and a sustainable future is to get these ideas into practice and to integrate them with environmental and new economic policy.

It is a fight at times to achieve this challenge in areas such as public procurement, market liberalisation and international policy. If we want a world where all people feel they have a stake in the future and a future worth having, we have to make such policy integration work and work fast.

I wish you a very successful conference. I look forward to reading the papers from it, and experiencing the results.

Jean Lambert, MEP (London,UK)
Vice-President, Greens/European Free Alliance Group
Member of the Employment and Social Affairs Committee and Group Co-ordinator

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The Social Face of Sustainability

Anne POWER, MBE, CBE Professor of Social Policy, The London School of Economics
Member of the UK Commission on Sustainable Development

1 Key Questions
• Can cities help sustainable development?
• Why do cities damage environments?
• What divides and damages a city?
• Can we improve a city without creating greater environmental pressures?

2 Sustainable Development
a) meeting today’s needs without jeopardising our children’s future
b) 4 conditions
   basic needs, particularly for poor
   quality of life
   human potential
   Earth’s life support systems

3 Linkages
• life support systems central to basic needs and quality of life of poorest
• progress in poor communities help us all
• sustainability is common human goal – survival strategy
• sustainable objectives v. reality

4 UK Goals
• social progress in meeting everyone’s needs
• protection of environment
• prudent use of natural resources
• high / stable economic growth / employment
• RECONCILABLE?

5 Six principles of Sustainable Development Commission
• sustainable development at centre
• valuing nature
• fair shares
• polluters pay
• governance matters
• adapting a precautionary approach

6 Social Challenge of Sustainability
• rapid change
• abandonment of inner cities by better off
• loss of civic pride
• cities “colonised” by poor
• social and economic polarisation
• jobs, families, education always top

7 Environmental polarisation
• and is finite natural resource
• closely linked to energy use
• more congested :: more spread out
• MOST urban decay is linked to sprawl

environmentally
socially
economically
The Flaws in Sprawl Europe is Strongly Sprawling

- economic growth
- inner city problems
- greater wealth
- smaller households
- income gap
- car dominance

Environmental Impacts of Sprawl

- green field homes
- low density – below 50 per hectare
- road access and congestion
- new infrastructure

Impact of car culture etc

- car access to shops, schools etc
- closure of small, local businesses
- selective migration
- out of town shopping, universities, business
- fuels further sprawl
- social exclusion and insecurity

Social Costs

- vulnerable new groups move in
- FEAR of abandonment
- space for crime
- social and physical decay go together

Learning from US experience

- costs of ghettos and abandonment
- costs to business and government
- costs to communities
- strong anti-sprawl protests

Learning from Britain

- extreme environmental degradation
- massive brown field legacy
- urban abandonment
- white flight / incipient segregation
- congestion and crowding
- low urban / high overall density

Environmental Costs of Sprawl

- impact on landscape / loss of tranquillity
- fuel consumption / global warming
- environmental decay of cities
- energy costs of abandoned housing
- energy costs of new housing
- investment = ENVIRONMENTAL DAMAGE
- subsidised double-funded social polarisation

Compact Cities

- best European cities are compact
- communities in reach of each other
- critical mass / proximity
- need / demand for services
- informal contact
- shared social / public spaces

How?

- maximise value of city centre
- access by walking, cycling, public transport
- mixed uses, mixed incomes, mixed communities
- high density is CHOICE of very rich / elderly / young / alone
17 Essential steps
- work from where we are
- moderate density – not high rise
- Georgian terraces, Victorian house, squares, streets and pavements

18 Green Urban Environment
- New York: green streets; pocket parks;
- Islington: Tree for a Tree
- school playgrounds
- Home Zones
- cycle and foot routes
- community responses
- balconies, tubs, courtyards

19 Regeneration has Huge Green Potential
- existing estates and streets
- embodied energy
- public transport
- environment and crime
- equalisation

20 Core Sustainable Regeneration
- bring to life again
- make new again
- make last
- create a viable future
- reuse

21 So, 3 R’s
- RECYCLE – buildings, materials, infrastructure, rubbish
- REPOPULATE – cities and towns
- REVITALISE – streets and small enterprises
- Can we recycle carbon 60%?
- Can we cohere?
- Can we green cities?
- And help poor?

21 Action - Recycle
- public transport, foot, cycle
- smaller, better designed houses
- shared open space
- attractive old buildings
- manage waste
- low carbon future

22 Action - Repopulate
- households v. people
- changing lifestyles and needs
- family barometer
- world population and urban trends
- migration

23 Action - Revitalise
- neighbourhood management
- pro-active policing
- community threads
- urban pioneers
- new uses and skills
The development of Quality of Life Indicators in the UK

Stephen HALL Department for Environment Food and Rural Affairs UK national government

Abstract

In preparing the UK Sustainable Development Strategy, indicators formed an integral part in the thinking. These include 15 headline indicators making up a quality of life barometer, measuring everyday social, environmental and economic concerns.

For some of these indicators the government has targets. More generally there is a commitment that where a trend is unacceptable, the government will adjust policies and will look to others to join it in taking action.

The UK has also established a core set of national indicators, ‘Quality of Life Counts’, to focus on specific issues and identify areas for action. These 150 quality of life indicators provide a benchmark against which future progress can be measured, and cover the main themes of the UK Strategy: a sustainable economy, building sustainable communities, managing the environment and resources, sending the right signals and international co-operation and development. Where possible the indicators have been analysed to identify the main stories behind the trends.

‘Regional Quality of Life Counts’ provides the headline indicators at a regional level. These were developed to help raise the profile of the headline indicators and inform regional sustainable development frameworks.

A handbook, ‘Local quality of life counts’, has also been produced. This contains a menu of 29 indicators which local authorities are recommended to consider for monitoring their own Local Agenda 21 Strategies and Community Strategies.

Since the UK produced the first ever set of Indicators of Sustainable Development in 1996, indicators have become a key component of government policy and are helping to change policies. We hope the UK experiences in indicator development and in bringing them to the heart of policy may provide a valuable insight for others trying to do the same.

Keywords: headline, indicators, quality of life, regional, local

Introduction

In May 1999, the UK Government published A better quality of life: a strategy for sustainable development for the United Kingdom. The strategy included ‘headline’ indicators, to give a broad overview of trends, described as a “quality of life barometer”; and outlined a national set of about 150 indicators, to focus on specific issues and identify areas for action. The national set followed and substantially revised the first set of 120 Indicators of Sustainable Development for the United Kingdom, produced in 1996.

The indicators, described as ‘Quality of Life Counts’, were developed as an integral part of the UK Sustainable Development Strategy, to provide a baseline assessment and benchmark against which progress can be measured. As such, it was not an academic exercise that was carried out by back-room statisticians, but one that brought statistics and indicators to the heart of policy making, and that involved a broad spectrum of key players across government.

The headline indicators in particular play a key role, some have been linked with relevant policy targets and for others the government’s aim is for them to move in the right direction over time. The headline set was at the core of the first annual review, Achieving a better quality of life – review of progress towards sustainable development.

Framework

From the experiences of developing the first national set of indicators, it was clear that any set of indicators needed to be inextricably linked to objectives in order to be useful and resonant. The new set of Quality of Life Counts was therefore developed to link with the objectives being set by the sustainable development strategy. However the objectives came first and were not determined on the basis of the availability of indicators.

Since sustainable development covers a very wide range of objectives, an organising framework was found to be helpful. The UK strategy and the indicators were structured on six main themes, expanding on the recognised three overarching themes of sustainable development (economic, social and environmental issues):

- Assessing overall progress and priorities using the headline indicators
- Sustainable economy efficient use of resources, economic stability and competitiveness, education and skills of the population, employment and equal opportunities, ethical trading, action by producers and consumers in priority areas (e.g. the home, personal transport, tourism and leisure)
• Building sustainable communities
  local economic vitality and equity between communities in the UK, health, access to services, culture and sport, housing, planning and design, local environmental quality, crime, institutional arrangements and participation

• Managing the environment and resources
  persistent pollutants, climate change and energy, air quality, fresh water, seas oceans and coasts, soil, landscape and wildlife, forests, minerals extraction and use

• Sending the right signals
  mechanisms by which sustainable development can be put into practice, through government setting an example, through policy instruments like taxes and regulation, through information and campaigns to change people’s behaviour

• International co-operation and development
  measures of global population and global poverty, aid to developing countries, implementation of international agreements, comparison of UK resource consumption with that of other countries.

The objectives and hence the indicators were established within a clear hierarchy. At the top are four broad objectives: maintenance of economic growth, social progress, effective protection of the environment, prudent use of resources. Below these are key objectives, for example reducing crime and meeting targets to cut greenhouse gas emissions – these objectives led to the selection of the 15 headline indicators.

Below the headline indicators are the national core set, which are linked to more specific objectives and were intended:

• to describe whether we are achieving sustainable development
• to highlight and monitor key policy initiatives, commitments and targets
• to educate the public and businesses both about sustainable development and the actions required
• to report progress to international fora, particularly with indicators recommended internationally
• to help make transparent the trade-offs and links between sustainable development objectives.

Certain scientific and technical criteria were applied to the indicators before their adoption. The indicators had to:

• be representative
• be scientifically valid
• be simple and easy to interpret
• show trends over time
• give early warning about irreversible trends where possible
• be sensitive to the changes they are meant to indicate
• be based on readily available data or be available at reasonable cost
• be based on data adequately documented and of known quality
• be capable of being updated at regular intervals
• have guidelines or targets against which to compare it.

However, by applying these criteria it was not always practical or appropriate to produce an indicator linked to each objective. In some cases a commitment was given to produce an indicator in due course, with some idea of what it might be.
Headline Indicators - a Quality of Life barometer

The 15 headline indicators (listed in Table 1) were intended to focus attention on what sustainable development means, and to give a broad overview of whether we are achieving a better quality of life, now and for generations to come. They were developed with the intention that they should sit alongside traditional measures such as Gross Domestic Product and employment as a means of communicating progress towards sustainable development, and be a powerful tool for simplifying and communicating the main messages for the public.

| TABLE 1  The headline indicators in the UK sustainable development strategy |
|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| **Maintaining high and stable levels of economic growth and employment** |
| H1 | Total output of the economy (GDP and GDP per head) |
| H2 | Total and social investment as a percentage of GDP |
| H3 | Proportion of people of working age who are in work |
| **Social progress which recognises the needs of everyone** |
| H4 | Indicators of success in tackling poverty and social exclusion |
| H5 | Qualifications at age 19 |
| H6 | Expected years of healthy life |
| H7 | Homes judged unfit to live in |
| H8 | Level of crime |
| **Effective protection of the environment** |
| H9 | Emissions of greenhouse gases |
| H10 | Days when air pollution is moderate or higher |
| H11 | Road traffic |
| H12 | Rivers of good or fair quality |
| H13 | Population of wild birds |
| H14 | New homes built on previously developed land |
| **Prudent use of natural resources** |
| H15 | Waste arisings and management |

The 15 headline indicators were intended to make up a ‘quality of life barometer’, which would be used to measure overall progress. As an integral part of the Strategy, a statement was made that: “the Government’s aim is for all the headline indicators to move in the right direction over time, or, where a satisfactory level has been reached, to prevent a reversal. Where a trend is unacceptable, the Government will adjust policies accordingly, and will look to others to join it in taking action.”

Monitoring the headline indicators

With this commitment, the headline indicators have become established as key policy and communication tools. They are updated on the government sustainable development website as and when new data become available, referred to in policy statements, and are also included in the annual review of progress towards sustainable development. The crime (Figure 1) and climate change (Figure 2) headline indicators are given as examples.

FIGURE 1 Crime headline indicator
Commentary on trend: The level of recorded crime increased substantially since 1970. Recorded levels of burglary in dwellings and theft of or from motor vehicles declined more recently since 1993, but violent crime continued to rise over most of this period.

FIGURE 2 Climate Change headline indicator

Commentary on trend: The 1999 estimates of emissions of the 'basket' of six greenhouse gases show that they fell by 14.5 per cent between the 1990 baseline and 1999. There was a 6.5 per cent fall between 1998 and 1999.
Assessing overall progress

To give a broad overview of progress, a tick and cross (Table 2 below) and traffic light approach to communicating progress was established, where for each indicator changes are judged in relation to the objective and the longer-term trend (since 1970), and more recent trends (since 1990).

### Table 2: Overall assessment of headline indicators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Economic output</th>
<th>Investment</th>
<th>Employment</th>
<th>Poverty / social exclusion</th>
<th>Education</th>
<th>Health</th>
<th>Housing</th>
<th>Crime (violent) (vehicle/burglary)</th>
<th>Climate change</th>
<th>Air quality</th>
<th>Road traffic</th>
<th>River water quality</th>
<th>Wildlife (farmland birds) (woodland birds)</th>
<th>Land use</th>
<th>Waste (household) (other)</th>
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**Key:**
- Significant change, in direction of meeting objective
- No significant change
- Significant change, in direction away from meeting objective
- Insufficient or no comparable data

Aggregated indicators or indices

The headline indicators have not been aggregated into indices as an attempt to further summarise progress. The view was taken that whilst some of the ideas proposed by various organisations to create indices from indicators may be useful as tools for raising awareness, they are not yet scientifically valid or technically robust, and so could not be used reliably to monitor change year on year. The choice of components and the weightings applied to them in such indices were regarded as largely subjective - as indeed was the choice of the headline indicators – and different choices would give different results. Furthermore, such indices could mask important underlying trends in individual components. Ultimately requiring such indices to be disaggregated to determine what is really happening.

Perhaps most importantly, such indices are not transparent or clearly understood by the public. They did not therefore meet the objective of helping people to understand the concept of sustainable development, nor enable them to identify the actions they could take to influence progress.

The headline indicator approach was considered to provide a more transparent and comprehensive barometer of quality of life issues, than any aggregated measure.
Making headlines and taking action

On their introduction the headline indicators caught the imagination of government ministers, policy makers, outside organisations and the media. They now serve as the main vehicle for communicating the concept of sustainable development and in reporting progress, and in identifying the need for additional policies. The strongest example of this has been the wildlife indicator on farmland birds (see Figure 3).

The media initially made much of the novelty of the government measuring people’s quality of life by counting birds, but the messages it conveyed demanded action. Whilst over all the population of birds has not changed significantly from what it was in 1970, the populations of farmland species have fallen dramatically, by 40 per cent or more.

FIGURE 3 Headline indicator – wildlife (farmland birds)

Such a significant loss in bird populations has been attributed to the intensification of farming, the increased use of pesticides and the loss of hedgerows. As a result of the choice of this indicator, there has been a policy response to redress the decline.

Public perceptions about Quality of Life and the barometer

A survey of public attitudes to the environment and quality of life has recently been undertaken. As well as updating previous environmentally based surveys, the survey asked people about their quality of life, what affected them, and how important they felt the 15 headline issues being monitored were.

Results (not yet published) suggest a strong correspondence between what people regarded as factors affecting quality of life and the choice of the headline indicators. Furthermore when prompted the vast majority of respondents regarded each individual headline issue as fairly or very important.
The national core set of indicators

The national core set of 150 or so indicators is not updated as frequently as the 15 headline indicators – to do so would be impractical. A comprehensive volume, Quality of Life Counts, of all the indicators was last published in December 1999. The indicators were distributed into 19 sub-themes (Table 3), following the structure of the Sustainable Development Strategy.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 3 Sub-themes covered by the core set of indicators</th>
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<tr>
<td>The headline indicators</td>
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<td>H The headline indicators</td>
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<tr>
<td>A sustainable community</td>
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<td>B Doing more with less: improving resource efficiency</td>
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<td>C Economic stability and competitiveness</td>
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<td>D Developing skills and rewarding work</td>
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<tr>
<td>E Sustainable production and consumption</td>
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<td>I Shaping our surroundings</td>
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<td>J Involvement and stronger institutions</td>
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<td>Managing the environment and resources</td>
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<td>O Shaping our surroundings</td>
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<td>P Involvement and stronger institutions</td>
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<td>International co-operation and development</td>
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<td>Z Shaping our surroundings</td>
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The practical task of producing the indicators involved the examination of hundreds of potential data sources and indicators. The UK Government Statistical Service is devolved within each individual government department, which made this task all the more challenging as it involved a large number of departments.

The exercise involved considerable consultation across government departments and with non-governmental organisations. Consultation papers were produced, which were followed by seminars and workshops including advisory groups of experts and public focus groups. In many cases the use of the particular indicators required careful negotiation with policy and statistical colleagues. Where possible the indicators chosen were linked to other government initiatives for which indicators or at least statistics were already required, which helped in establishing ownership of the indicators by the department responsible for the policies affecting the objective. Where practicable the indicator chosen also took account of the experiences of organisations such as the United Nations Commission on Sustainable Development, the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development and the European Environment Agency.

Clearly an exercise to compile a national set of indicators was to some extent data driven, however, where data were not available the intentions of an indicator still to be developed were identified.

In presenting the indicators a sustainable development objective was clearly identified for each. The indicator was then represented graphically if possible, followed by a short commentary on the trends shown. This was followed by text on the relevance, targets and goals, trends and background. Each indicator could therefore stand alone as measure of progress towards the associated objective.

However, the section of the indicator volume found to be most useful and resonant was a chapter providing further analysis that demonstrated the integration of issues across and within sectors and how in some cases economic development has been decoupled from environmental degradation.

This section examined in detail how households, industry, services, transport, agriculture and poverty and social exclusion all affected progress towards the objectives of sustainable development, with a particular focus on the sectoral energy consumption, emissions, waste etc. An example of this analysis is given below on the environmental impacts of households (Figure 4).
Commentary on trends: Water consumption, energy consumption and waste generation have risen in line with the increase in the number of households. CO$_2$ emissions have fallen owing to the switch from coal to gas both domestically and in electricity generation.

In addition the sustainable development website version of the indicators publication provides a full list and links to all the indicators which relate to particular sectors, i.e. business users, individuals, transport sector, energy sector, agricultural sector, water, resource use, international dimension.

Regional and local indicators

Once the headline and core indicators had been released there were demands for indicators which were more local and more relevant to local experiences. Regional Quality of Life Counts were therefore produced, which are now updated annually, providing regional versions of the headline indicators, where data are available. These were intended to help raise awareness of sustainable development still further to provide a useful input into regional sustainable development frameworks, and also to help to direct policies where there are regional disparities. A regional indicator is given as an example (Figure 5).
There are various initiatives relating to sustainable development at the local level. Local authorities are preparing Community Strategies and have formed Local Agenda 21 Partnerships. It was felt that *Local Quality of Life Counts* should also be established to help link these initiatives with the national and regional programmes.

A menu of 29 indicators was developed which local authorities are now encouraged to consider using for their strategies and other local monitoring. The menu was developed jointly by central government, local government bodies, the audit commission, Local Agenda 21 groups, and tested in 30 local authorities.

The authorities that piloted the local indicators found that the exercise of developing the indicators was an important as the indicators themselves, as it stimulated debate and helped people to understand what sustainable development means.

Some of the indicators selected mirrored those in the national set; others were linked to those services and activities that are under the direct control of the authorities. The latter indicators, in particular, highlighted issues that are equally applicable to the development of national indicators. That is that care must be taken to insure that the choice of indicators does not distort priorities, with too much attention focussed only on those policy areas covered by the indicators. Additionally indicators need to focus on outcomes rather than the amount of effort or resources used to tackle a problem, which although potentially easier to monitor may not reflect the true extent to which an objective is being achieved.

**Conclusions**

The UK experience suggests that

- It is important to develop quality of life indicators, even if not all pieces of the puzzle are in place.
- Indicators provide a key tool in raising awareness about sustainable development and getting people to think about the impact they have.
- Indicators need to be driven by objectives, preferably as an integral part of policy development.
- Indicators should be developed within a clear framework.
- The coverage of the indicators needs to be as comprehensive as possible, ensuring that the key economic, social and environmental quality of life issues are represented and monitored.
- A headline set of indicators is highly effective in communicating progress and raising awareness, without overburdening people with large numbers of indicators.
- At this stage, headline indicators are a sufficient summary of progress and aggregated indices are not sufficiently advanced to be effective communicators.

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www.sustainable-development.gov.uk
England’s East Midlands Integrated Regional Strategy (IRS) – Our Sustainable Development Framework

Tony AITCHISON Director of Regional Strategy East Midlands Regional Assembly

Introduction

The approach adopted in England’s East Midlands in developing an Integrated Regional Strategy (IRS) has been commended as a model that puts sustainable development at the heart of integrated policy development at the regional level. This short paper therefore outlines a) the factors which prompted the development of the IRS Model and b) the overall approach. The full IRS document can be accessed on the East Midlands Regional Assembly’s website, www.eastmidlandsassembly.org.uk.

Background

England’s East Midlands is one of 8 regions and has a population of about 4.2 million. The major settlements include Nottingham, Leicester, Derby, Lincoln and Northampton. The Regional Assembly was formed in 1999 as a voluntary regional partnership, at the time that Regional Development Agencies were created to lead on economic regeneration. It is not regional government but is comprised of 105 members, 70% being local government elected representatives with 30% made up of partners including business, the voluntary sector, trade unions, education, health, environment etc.

The Regional Assembly has developed a collaborative style, working closely with a wide range of regional and other partners. It has a scrutiny role in relation to the Regional Development Agency and this was strengthened in 2001. The Assembly works closely with the Government Office (who represent central government in the region) and with other government agencies e.g. the Environment Agency, English Nature, cultural agencies, the health sector etc. It is seeking to develop similar working relationships with the emerging strategic sub-regional partnerships and the local strategic partnerships.

The Assembly is managed by a Steering Group (or Executive Committee). The IRS Policy Forum co-ordinates the development of the Integrated Regional Strategy and has the lead role on promoting sustainable development. The recently established Economic Review Group takes the key role in co-ordinating the Assembly’s economic scrutiny role. The IRS Policy Forum is supported by a number of task groups with topic responsibilities including transport, housing, social inclusion, environment, lifelong learning, public health and energy. These task groups are set up on a fit for purpose basis and membership does not follow the 70% - 30% split of the full Assembly but also takes account of specialist knowledge, interest and expertise.

Why did the region decide that it needed an integrated Regional Strategy (IRS)?

The Assembly undertook research in 1999 to establish the overall position on regional policy development. The research concluded that regional partners did not have an agreed vision about the kind of region they wanted. There was no agreed set of objectives covering all aspects of sustainable development i.e. social, spatial, economic and environmental issues. It certainly did not have a clear set of regional strategies that addressed the key regional issues. Those strategies that had been developed had not taken account of each other, were not linked, and were certainly not integrated. Strategies had often been prepared by single sectors or organisations without adequate involvement or consultation of other key players. Many were called similar names, causing confusion, had not gained regional ownership and were for different time periods. There was no mechanism for assessing the contributions that strategies and their policies could make to the achievement of regional aspirations or objectives.

Not surprisingly, there were no regionally agreed indicators and no basis for achieving this. Any regional targets that existed were handed down from the national level and were related to the achievement of national policy objectives. Any review of progress within the region would be ad hoc, partial and usually in response to a specific request or need. This position reflected the highly centralised form of government with many regional agencies and bodies created by and responsible to central government rather than the region.

The development of the IRS Model

At its first meeting in January 1999 the new East Midlands Regional Assembly resolved to co-ordinate the preparation of the Integrated Regional Strategy (IRS). This decision was a direct response to the above analysis of the state of strategic policy development. The overall approach was developed by the Assembly’s Integrated Regional Strategy (IRS) Policy Forum. The IRS approach can be briefly summarised as follows:-

The IRS framework has as its starting point an overall regional vision and a set of 18 economic, social, environmental and spatial objectives. Policy-makers are encouraged to assess how the policies and proposals in their strategy will contribute to the achievement of all 18 regional sustainable development (SD) objectives throughout the policy development. They know that their strategy will be appraised against the regional SD objectives at the end of the process. The economic, social, environmental and spatial strategies are all developed as component parts of the IRS driven by the common set of SD objectives. Strategy developers are encouraged to ensure that all key linkages with the other strategies are identified and addressed to achieve horizontal integration.

The IRS model also stresses the importance of regional objectives and policies taking account of and being influenced by sub-regional and local issues and strategies. The importance of delivery through the implementation of
a set of action plans, which set out what needs to happen at the sub-regional and local levels, is fully recognised. Figure 1, summaries the overall approach.

The Regional Assembly has developed guidance for all policy-makers which outlines an overall process (illustrated in figure 2). At each stage a key question needs to be answered. In defining the vision and objectives for the region we are answering the question “what kind of region do we want to achieve?” A number of “viewpoints” documents have been developed which seek to answer the question “where are we now?” For example, we have viewpoints on health, viewpoints on housing, and social viewpoints. At the strategy and policy development stage we are seeking to explain “how can we ensure we get there?” The next stage of developing Action Plans seeks to set out the key actions that will achieve policies and to define who needs to take the actions. This is a crucial stage to ensure that strategic policies are turned into action on the ground. The involvement and commitment of key government agencies and other partners is crucial to this stage.

During the development of strategies and action plans we need to ensure that indicators are prepared that identify “how we know we are going in the right direction”. From the full set of indicators that measure performance on all issues we need to draw out a set or regional “high level” sustainable development indicators. These indicators and targets are essential components of periodic “State of the Region Reports” which enable us to review “what is happening”.

Benefits of the IRS approach

In England’s East Midlands regional partners have developed and agreed the approach outlined above and are implementing it in a progressive manner. It would be wrong to suggest that all pieces of the jigsaw are in place. However, the benefits of the integrated approach in influencing hearts and minds and changing the traditional “silo – based” ways of working are very encouraging. The benefits can be summarised as below and can be contrasted with the analysis by consultants in 1999, summarised above. The aim has been to turn the negative assessment into a very positive one.

In 2002 the region now has an agreed vision. It has agreed 18 regional sustainable development objectives. The vision and objectives together provide the sustainable development framework within which all regional strategies are developed as component parts. The region has a clear and regionally owned Economic Strategy, a Regional Spatial Strategy including a Transport Strategy, a Regional Environment Strategy and a Cultural Strategy. A number of other strategies are under development including energy, housing, public health and community safety.

Together the 18 sustainable development objectives and the desire to achieve an integrated approach provide the key drivers of policy development. Although the Assembly does not have the power to force this approach on regional organisations support for it and wide ownership of strategies have been achieved by voluntary and collaborative working and co-operation. The Regional Assembly has been able to endorse all key strategies developed within the IRS framework. Each strategy is assessed for the level of integration and its contribution to the achievement of the regional SD objectives through an agreed appraisal process. Draft regional indicators and targets have been developed as part of this process and a clear approach for reviewing progress has been agreed through the development of a consistent approach to the preparation of a set of state of the region reports.

Conclusion

The benefits of the IRS can therefore be summarised as follows. It provides a basis for agreeing a set of sustainable development objectives which drive the development of an integrated set of regionally owned strategies. It enables these to be appraised in a consistent and rigorous way and provides a mechanism for these to be implemented through a series of Action Plans. It provides a clear basis for defining indicators and reviewing progress against regional objectives and policies.
Economic Objectives

Social Objectives

Environment Objectives

Spatial Objectives

Horizontal Integration

Regional Vision

The East Midlands will be the most progressive region in Europe, recognised for its high quality of life, vibrant economy, rich cultural diversity and sustainable communities

Regional Economic Strategy (emda)

Regional Social Strategies (Task Groups)

Regional Environment Strategy (Env Task Gp)

Regional Planning Guidance (EMRLGA)

Action Plans

Research & Monitoring

Sub-regional & Local Strategies

THE IRS MODEL

VISION AND OBJECTIVES

“where do we want to be?”

VIEWPOINTS

“where are we now?”

STRATEGIES/POLICIES

“how can we ensure we get there?”

ACTION PLANS

“what actions will achieve our policies and who needs to act?”

INDICATORS

“how do we know we are going in the right direction?”

TARGETS

“how will we know we have achieved definite improvements?”

STATE OF THE REGION REPORTS

“how do we review what is happening?”

England’s East Midlands Integrated Regional Strategy

Figure 1
A Climate change and sustainability

It is recognised that sustainability involves integrated social, economic and environmental action if the needs of the planet and future generations are not to be compromised.

The objective of the SocioMETREX project is to identify the contribution that can be made by spatial planning and development at the metropolitan level to the social face of sustainability.

By this we mean the spatial planning and development action that can contribute to sustainability as a whole and thus to social sustainability.

The cumulative effect of these actions will also be to make urban areas more energy efficient and thus contribute to a reduction in the effects of climate change by, for example, reducing energy consumption and the generation of greenhouse gases.

B Presentation of interim findings and conclusions

1 What the function of spatial planning can contribute to an Integrated Regional Strategy

2 The components of a sustainable spatial planning and development process

3 The essential components of a sustainable metropolitan spatial planning and development strategy

- Maintenance of high and stable levels of economic growth
- Social progress which recognises the needs of everyone
- Effective protection of the environment
- Prudent use of resources

4 A sustainable approach

1 What the function of spatial planning can contribute to an Integrated Regional Strategy

- Preventing unsustainable development
- Safeguarding sensitive areas or resources
- Exercising foresight by taking a longer term view of development prospects
- Presenting possible futures for public consideration and debate
- Enabling the realisation of chosen spatial planning and development options
- Sustaining a chosen spatial planning and development strategy

This is positive planning.

What the Integrated Regional Strategy does that spatial planning and development can not do

- Manages and operates infrastructure networks including transportation
- Delivers services such as health, education, training and public transport

2 The components of a sustainable spatial planning and development process

Spatial planning and development strategy
- Objectives and the indicators through which progress in achieving them is assessed
- Policies, programmes and major projects
- Monitoring, review and update as necessary to sustain the strategy

Sustaining a polycentric strategy that emphasises compact development, mixed use, public transport orientated development focussed on centres means identifying and maintaining a portfolio of urban development opportunities of all kinds.

This will enable a sequential approach to be taken to planning decisions starting with the resuse of urban land and buildings and only releasing non urban land for development where this accords with the chosen strategy and its objectives.

3 The essential components of a sustainable metropolitan spatial planning and development strategy

- Maintenance of high and stable levels of economic growth

• Ensure accessibility to metropolitan interchanges for the modal transfer of goods in order to reduce the need for road travel and to facilitate the efficient import and export of goods
• Ensure an effective primary transport network in order to minimise congestion and facilitate the efficient movement of goods
• Ensure good public transport to the main centres of employment in order to widen their accessibility to the labour market
• Ensure adequate economic development opportunities in order to accommodate business needs

3 cont The essential components of a sustainable metropolitan spatial planning and development strategy

Social progress which recognises the needs of everyone
• Ensure the balanced distribution of population, housing, employment and services in order to facilitate accessibility between activities
• Where there is an unequal distribution of employment and services, take action to reduce disparities in order to make the urban area more equitable
• Where there is poor accessibility to employment and services, take action to improve this in order to make the urban area more equitable
• Identify areas that suffer from multiple deprivation in order to focus integrated remedial action
• Ensure acceptable environmental standards within urban areas in terms of noise and air pollution in order to protect and improve the health of residents and workers
• Ensure the provision of a linked network of open space in order to provide access to recreational opportunities for all

3 cont The essential components of a sustainable metropolitan spatial planning and development strategy

Effective protection of the environment
• Safeguard and enhance the quality and character of the landscape in order to protect the setting of metropolitan areas
• Safeguard and enhance the quality and character of the urban heritage of buildings and public spaces in order to make metropolitan areas more attractive places in which to live and work
• Safeguard and enhance biodiversity in order to contribute to better ecological balance
• Safeguard and enhance water catchment areas in order to maintain and improve the quality of water supplies
• Safeguard the capacity of flood plains from development in order to reduce the risk of flooding

3 cont The essential components of a sustainable metropolitan spatial planning and development strategy

Prudent use of resources
• Maximise urban development capacity through the reuse of urban land and buildings in order to reduce the need for urban expansion
• Protect high quality agricultural land from development in order to sustain this resource for future generations
• Ensure the planned development of mineral extraction in order to reduce the consumption of minerals from primary sources (optimise recycling)
• Within a waste management strategy of waste reduction, recycling, treatment and disposal, enable the development of waste management facilities, in order to facilitate a more sustainable approach

4 A sustainable approach

Advocate the preparation of Integrated Regional Strategies which should define the
• Key issues for sustainability
• Integrated sectoral and community action, and resources, required to address these issues effectively
• Indicators of sustainability for assessing progress in achieving objectives
• Procedures for monitoring and review

4 cont A sustainable approach within an IRS

Adopt a polycentric approach to the restructuring and renewal, and expansion as necessary, of metropolitan urban areas

City and town centres need to be sustained and rejuvenated as the preferred locations for core metropolitan functions such as retailing, entertainment, culture, education and business to enable them to act as the local points for a polycentric approach to urban spatial planning and development

A polycentric approach to the restructuring or planned extension of metropolitan areas based on compact development, mixed use, public transport orientated development focussed on centres will assist in achieving balanced urban renewal and development, economic competitiveness, social cohesion and accessibility

It will provide the strategic framework for local community programmes and projects
Contextual problems for promoting socially sustainable strategies for urban development
The case study of Athens

Thomas MALOUTAS Professor in the Department of Urban Geography University of Thessaly

Introduction

The concept of social sustainability: Problems of context and context

Sustainable development literature and politics originated in the confrontation of environmental problems accumulated and exacerbated by unregulated economic growth. Although these problems seem—and to a large extent they are—ecumenical, they are also socially and geographically divisible and divided in terms of their mechanisms of production and of their impact as well as in terms of the ways they are perceived and of the political projects that are devised to combat them. The dominant interpretation of sustainable development remains limited, particularly in terms of the scope of action for promoting social sustainability.

Moreover, this limited version of concern about sustainability, dominant in the European Union, has some inherent difficulties in its dissemination throughout Europe because of its context dependent character. Greece is one of the less developed regions of the European Union, where the debate on sustainability did not spring endogenously and where relative initiatives—and particularly those concerning social sustainability—originated almost exclusively in the context of wider European programs that have more or less imposed their rationale for social action through the specific canalization of funds.

Sustainable development is a rather recent concept that originated in the environmental sphere, gained credibility since the publication of the Brundtland report and was enriched with economic, social and cultural dimensions in subsequent occasions such as the Rio Summit, the Local Agenda 21 or the World Summit in Copenhagen. Sustainable development is defined as the one that does not compromise the foundations for future development and should be achieved through economic activity that does not impede the regeneration of natural resources as well as through the development of social equity, since inequity is argued to be detrimental for the sound management of natural and human resources by corroding social cohesion and solidarity.

The wide acceptance of sustainability as a development objective is either attributed to its self-evident validity in the context of managerial approaches or, in a more critical perspective, to its very flexible content that can accommodate many different meanings. Ideas, concepts, objectives and slogans need to be relatively loosely defined in order to be accepted and endorsed by different and often oppositely positioned social groups. The looseness of such concepts is then limited through their interpretation in different realms following the rapports des forces they create as stakes. However, a relatively fuzzy content is certainly not enough for creating consensus around a concept.

The political success of sustainability is based on the dreaded exhaustion of natural resources standing as the legitimating cornerstone for a development model that seeks to avoid such a doomsday perspective. Thus, social relations and references are overwritten by relations to nature, and although the latter are first of all social relations, the legitimacy of sustainability is heavily dependent on the prominence of relations to nature in the widely accepted form of the need to preserve natural resources. Pursuing a goal that appears of an evident importance for humankind, sustainability loses its socially conflictual character by the de-legitimation of any (social) goal that can be successfully treated as unsustainable. In this process what happens in fact is an inversion between society and nature. The emphasis is withdrawn from social goals per se—where nature would stand as a wide set of contextual parameters—and placed instead on the preservation of nature standing as a socially invariable benefit. Following this inversion, social objectives are reintroduced, but as subordinate to the prime goal, which they must serve. The limited content of sustainability is a by-product of this subordination: promoting social equity is justified as a means to a more sustainable resource management rather than as an end in itself.

The limited content of sustainability runs parallel to the general withdrawal from radical objectives relative to social equality and justice in favor of the less ambitious objectives of social cohesion, solidarity and inclusion, which are justified by their positive role in sustainable growth. In fact their justification is negative, since it is their lack, which is feared to be an impediment to growth.

Sustainability acquires a more precise content through the specific political and economic projects in which its discourse is incorporated. The content of sustainability is more a stake rather than a given body of ideas, arguments and instructions. Consequently, “strong” or “light” interpretations, dominate depending on the power of the social groups and political formations that specify its content through the particular use they make of it.

Although the content of social sustainability remains rather evasive, its dominant interpretation constitutes a discourse, and a program, which has been developed in compatibility with the profile of the European Social Democracy as well as to that of the bureaucracy of the European Union. The ecological movement has gained political momentum through coalition and merging with social democratic parties, that also paved the way for its infiltration to the European bureaucracy. There are several characteristics of this dominant interpretation marking its suitability to the broader European Social Democrat political profile / project:
• First of all, sustainability legitimates public intervention. Sustainability needs planning and, in this sense, it promotes and legitimates public intervention. Legitimation of public intervention has been needed by the Left discourse since the traditional welfare provision approach was effectively discredited by the neo-liberal critique as ineffective and authoritarian. Sustainability can thus figure as an alternative to traditional forms of public intervention legitimation.

• Second, it legitimates and promotes a kind of European development model. Public intervention is legitimated as a means against the perverse environmental and social effects of uncontrolled market mechanisms. Thus it remains in the broad Social Democrat tradition and, at the same time, it becomes "un-American" in not letting the market to do its kind of reintegration of the social margin. Thus it offers a distinctive trait for the European pole of the globalizing world, a kind of compensation for its lacking economic competitiveness, political cohesion and military power.

• Third, it is an element that can create new types of socio-political consensus contained in the social democrat political space. Sustainability is often accompanied by an inflated discourse, which is reduced however by the scope of the social objectives to be implemented. This reduction is performed through the perception of social ills as the effects of a particular conjuncture (economic restructuring leading to unemployment through the mismatch of labor demand and supply) and through the exclusive focus on the most acute expression of its impact (social exclusion). The reduction in scope creates a large space for sociopolitical consensus, as reformism usually did, and as catchall parties' survival requires.

• Fourth, it can be socially and politically mobilizing and it can run against destabilization that could result from the challenges to traditional and unsustainable forms of governance. Sustainable development demands a participatory attitude. Participation enhances legitimacy and political efficiency, and reduces the social cost of action through the mobilization of inert socio-political resources, especially among the targeted groups. Promoting the new forms of governance required in times when 'tax and spend' models become problematic, legitimate rather than challenge or compromise the power and efficiency of traditional governing parties.

However, sustainability is not a Machiavellian device. Its dominant form is the outcome of the adoption and adaptation of ideas and concepts related to sustainable development by specific social and political forces in more or less specific contexts. This does not imply a definitive appropriation of these ideas and concepts by the specific forces, since the former retain a certain autonomy and a mobilizing power that can eventually transgress and reshape their current political meanings.

Sustainability in Greece

The discussion on sustainable development has been weakly developed in Greece and only among small groups of environmental activists and academics. But even this low level of awareness has not been endogenous, since most of these groups were related to some international organization, like Greenpeace, and most of their leading members had international experience in these matters. Today the green movement in Greece is much more institutionalized, with one minister from the ranks of the former activists (who lost his post in the last reshuffling) and the Ministry of Public Works formally dealing with the environment and having been re-titled accordingly (Ministry of the Environment, Planning and Public Works). However, public awareness remains reduced.

The area in which the discussion on sustainable development is almost untouched is social sustainability. Sensitization in these matters originates exclusively outside Greek institutions and movements. European programs to combat social exclusion are the main vehicles bringing social sustainability to the fore, but they are perceived more as a chance for increased European funding and/or as an obligation to comply to European models and rules in order to accede to more European funds, rather than as responses to real local problems. A number of such programs have been clumsily received / implemented as a result. Job re-training and re-orientation programs from the European Social Fund have painstakingly found some alternative uses after a lot of ineffective spending, since the problem of the Greek urban labor market was not that of a mass of jobless industrial workers with unemployable skills. The URBAN initiative (aiming at the regeneration of deprived areas after de-industrialization) equally met with the problem of difficulty in finding such areas in Greek cities that would present an over-accumulation of all possible social ills. The areas that were finally chosen were deprived, but mostly for different reasons than those implied by the program and their revitalization will probably not be effective through the dominant kind of “best practices”.

This mismatch is somehow mainly due to contextual difference. Social sustainability efforts aim at confronting problems related to social polarization and eventually to marginalization and exclusion produced in most West European cities under the impact of economic restructuring leading to job loss and redundancy in the labor market and followed by a cohort of problems for the victims and their families in welfare models that are also under stress that are endangering the cohesion of the social fabric and thus are perceived as socially unsustainable.

The situation in Athens does not seem to comply with either the model of the socially polarised global city or with that of the (simply) de-industrialized city. In respect to the former, Athens does not present any significant accumulation of high-end producer services that contribute heavily in polarising the job market, since it is not one of the global or even regional management centers of the world economy. In respect to de-industrialization, Athens has undergone a rather quick phase of industrial development during the post war period that never made of industrial employment the backbone of its occupational profile, since it predominantly contained unskilled jobs held by very recent rural migrants with no working-class tradition, and it started loosing out to service employment before it became an established and long reproduced social reality. Moreover, the very small average size of the industrial units as well as their orientation to the local market has led to a gradual decline rather than to an abrupt crisis. During the 70s and the 80s industrial employment in Athens stagnated rather than slumped.
Problems at the lower part of the social scale in Athens were, therefore, not due to a destitute work force following de-industrialization but to the reduced level of general economic development, reflected in the non-competitive and steadily shrinking primary sector—fueling internal and external migration—as well as in the belated and limited industrial development using part of the work force recently liberated from the primary sector. In this sense, it was poverty rather than polarization, marginalization or any other form of social destitution that mainly characterized any quantitatively significant segment of the Athenian society.

However, poverty can be perceived as destitution and marginalization if it appears to be permanent for the groups that experience it while the rest of society is progressively distanced. In post-war Athens there were a number of reasons that prevented poverty from appearing inescapable and socially delimited, and therefore reduced the visibility of problems related to social sustainability:

- **First, the high social mobility.** In the post-war years an important mobility in the Greek society was produced by the transformation of large numbers of rural migrants to urban homeowners with the feasible aspiration, at least for their offspring, to escape from manual labor and salaried work. The positive and feasible mobility perspective made poverty appear as an interim rather than a permanent situation, while the move from rural areas to the city was experienced—and in fact was—a move towards increased opportunity.

- **Second, the exclusion from mobility chances for certain groups was politically organized rather than inflicted by market mechanisms.** Following the civil war (1946-49) and for a long period, an important part of the population was restricted from access to employment in the public sector, from having a passport or a driver’s license, from obtaining the required papers to put up a business etc. on the grounds of political belief or of belonging to a potentially “dangerous” ethnic minority. This type of authoritarian state regulation of mobility chances never led to the victims’ permanent exclusion—except for minorities. It led rather to massive derogatory exceptions through the clientelist political system, since the governing parties were unable to do without the electoral support of the politically dangerous and their families. The major outcome was therefore not the exclusion of the social groups at point, but the loss of legitimacy of the state and the party system, combined with the development of a sense of complicity in the wider society that entered massively in this kind of transaction.

- **Third, the limited development of the welfare state in relation to the role of the family in social reproduction.** The post-war development model did not consist of a fordist profile neither on the production nor on the consumption side. Not facing a mass of working class jobs in big and spatially organized units, but rather a multitude of petty employers, self-employed and salaried workers in small units with family ties and resources, and with rural mentality and reflexes, the state opted gradually for a lighter version of welfare provision. This version entailed the mobilization of family resources in order to circumvent the shortcomings of state provision, the development of quasi entrepreneurial skills and often the use of illegality (in housing production for instance) in order to organize the self-provision of the required services at a lower cost. The state encouraged this public fund saving form of self-regulation in social reproduction by tolerating (and often rewarding) illegality—through the clientelist system—and thus reinforced the derogatory and individualistic aspirations as well as the sense of complicity with a de-legitimated state.

These factors have attenuated pressures that would lead large social groups to marginalization and bring poverty and social division to the fore, but their effect is progressively reduced. Athens is actively taking part in the globalizing world. Being in the EU and organizing the 2004 Olympic Games reinforce the pressure inflicted on its social structure and social division to the fore, but their effect is progressively reduced. In post-war Athens there were a number of reasons that prevented poverty from appearing inescapable and socially delimited, and therefore reduced the visibility of problems related to social sustainability:

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abandoned central area in a path of quickly declining social status, while the working-class periphery of the city remained stagnating in a period when growth rates for Athens were substantially reduced. This process has created two main types of segregated areas with negative effects for the population entrapped and reproduced under the low standards they offer.

The above-mentioned phenomena and processes are added to a number of other problems, inherited from the post-war urban growth model, that are obstructing the city’s sustainable development. Such problems include the accumulated lack of infrastructure, especially in transport, that has largely contributed to the overwhelming supremacy of the car leading to traffic problems and air pollution; the overbuilding of most areas around the center that has literally destroyed the much lighter pre-war building stock as well as the urban landscape and replaced it with congested low standard condominium buildings whose divided ownership, combined with the dropping or stagnating property prices, render their replacement improbable and their maintenance very difficult; the unplanned expansion outside the city limits that has been severely detrimental to agricultural land and forests; the very limited public space in the city that complicates the effort and rises the cost for constructing the lacking infrastructure and the physical supports for the provision of the insufficiently developed social services etc.

Athens is therefore a city with serious impediments to its social and environmentally sustainable development. In this sense, even if the concept of sustainability was generated in a different context, there would be no serious obstacle in applying its principles to the Athenian context, provided that symptoms—and their generating mechanisms—were sufficiently analyzed in order to avoid inappropriate measures.

However, a major obstacle in promoting sustainability, and social sustainability in particular, in the Greek context stems from characteristics deeply embedded in the local political culture. Sustainability being a political project, the odds for the city’s future depend on the political forces that will embrace such a project and on the social forces that will support it. The modernizer and Europe oriented segments of the two major political parties (the PASOK [socialist] and the New Democracy [conservative]) are favorable to the general concept and to the principles of sustainability. Nevertheless, their sensitivity is limited by traditional populist and clientelist reflexes and practices, that used to guarantee political support to their parties during the post-war period. The main problem, however, does not lie with the sensitivity of the political personnel, but with the limited awareness of sustainability issues and the individualistic approach to social problems that impedes society at large to reflect and act in terms of social (and environmental) concern.

Post-war Athens has seen the formation of a “society of inhabitants” and not one of citizens following the rapid internal migration of the 50s and 60s. The new inhabitants did not develop the feeling of belonging to the city, neither did they feel that the city belonged to them. They never cut off their link to political networks in their place of origin, since it was through these attachments that they tried to solve problems related to their integration to urban society. The city’s political framework was too impersonal for the recreation of practices in the traditional rural-clientelist mode, where the role of families and politicians was mutually reinforced through the exchange of derogatory favors for electoral support. A large part of the Athenian population continues to vote in their native villages (or those of their parents) and the Greater Athens Area continues to be seriously under-represented in the Greek parliament. The subsidiary role of a modern political system, affected by clientelist practice and morals, has not been able to alter the self-centered family interest characterizing the Greek political culture.

Following this mentality and its corollary in familist structures of social reproduction, the city has evolved as the outcome of a multitude of uncoordinated individual choices and actions without any broader social concern and coordination: the poor rural immigrants of the 50s and 60s used illegal construction as a way to solve their housing problems in complicity with the state and with the moral excuse of the absence of alternative solutions; the large masses of petty urban landowners used the opportunity of enrichment and improvement of their housing conditions in the 60s and 70s by overbuilding the areas around the city center following incentives given by the state; the upper and upper-middle social strata chose to escape from the overbuilt and congested areas of the city center in the 70s and 80s to secure a better living in the suburbs.

Although these choices seem collective, they are not but the aggregation of individual and individualistic options. There has never been a socio-political framework where individual options would be taking in account the wider social interest. On the contrary, since many options were illegal or illegitimate, and for that matter derogatory becoming possible with the complicity of a clientelist state of reduced legitimacy, the dominant mentality was individualism against the wider social interest, since one should secure opportunities before someone else did. A long apprenticeship in antisocial individualism is definitely not a positive asset for the city’s sustainable future.

Conclusion

The difficulties in implementing social sustainability initiatives in Greek urban areas, and in Athens in particular, are related to the limited visibility of socially unsustainable situations, since the dominant shape of social unsustainability in the post-industrial city of the advanced capitalist countries (divided/dual city, social exclusion) are not easily recognizable in the Athenian context. This low visibility is due both to certain important local socioeconomic characteristics—and primarily to the relatively belated and reduced industrial development—as well as to the dominant political culture whose individualist/familist character impedes the perception of social problems in terms of social concern and the development of participatory attitude out of such concern. In spite of their low visibility, social problems increase at least in the sense of more inequality and segregation, and challenging them—even with relatively low expectations—cannot do without their serious analysis and the development of a wider social awareness.
I would like to approach my subject, "Economic Integration", in two steps:

- First step: Let me talk about the four challenges that the Stuttgart region is facing: globalisation, rationalization, tertiarisation of production, and aggravated demographic change.
- In a second step, I would like to describe some exemplary answers to those four challenges.

First step: The four challenges in the economic integration of the Stuttgart region

1 Globalisation

Car manufacturers operating worldwide (DaimlerChrysler, Ford, GM) have developed a global strategy in order to secure favourable conditions from suppliers. A joint Internet platform allows them access to the offerings of suppliers all over the world. The purpose of this strategy is cost reduction or the "economy of scale". The Federation of German Suppliers for the Automotive Industry estimates that suppliers worldwide will have "excess capacities" of 40% by the year 2005. You can image what this could mean to Stuttgart as a automotive industry region.

2 Rationalization

Gross value added in the Stuttgart region has increased from some 60 thousand billion Euro in 1990 to some 75 thousand billion Euro in 2000. In the same period, the region has lost more than 80,000 jobs. The old theorem of "jobless growth" has become, even worse, "job killing growth". Human work is replaced by machines, from the metal press to the computer. The floor space required per job rises continuously. So are the demands on the workforce.

3 Tertiarisation of production

Globalisation and rationalization create constantly increasing demands on the products of our industry. Traditional distinctions between production and service in the economy become less important. Sectorially speaking, 45 % of jobs in the Stuttgart region are in production and 55 % are in the service sector.

Nowadays, however, such figures are less and less meaningful. Every new product requires more research and development. Products become more complex. Twenty years ago, a car just had to be safe and reliable on the road. Today, it is expected to find its destination (GPS), alert the driver when he gets out and leaves the light on, help him get into a parking space.

There are, consequently, an increasing number of jobs in development, planning and control. Functionally speaking, 72 % of jobs in Stuttgart, a pronounced industrial region, are service jobs.

4 The challenges of demography

The present population of the Stuttgart region is 2.6 million inhabitants. Demographers forecast a 16 % decrease by the year 2050. Within the next ten years, they say, the share of persons over 55 in the total workforce will double from the present 12 % to 24 %.

I am rather doubtful about the validity of such forecasts. From a nationwide image survey, we know that Stuttgart and Frankfurt are rated first as "economic regions that have a future". Immigration may well alleviate our demographic problems. However, we must also ask ourselves what this means in terms of inner-German or European locational solidarity.

Second step: The answers - a few examples

1 Regionalisation as a response to globalisation

The answer to the worldwide Internet platform of DaimlerChrysler, Ford and GM is: "Locational dialog of the components supplying industry in the Stuttgart region". Together with the chambers of industry and commerce, the chamber of handicrafts, the trade unions and other partners, we want to network the regional competency of the suppliers for the automotive industry in order to maintain the value added in our region.

More than 600 companies participate regularly in workshops, plant visits, and benchmark events. These activities shall help companies present their offerings to car manufacturers in a concerted complex effort whenever possible.
Let me use a metaphor: An exhaust pipe is easier to replace than the entire exhaust gas system. In other words, it is easier to replace a manufacturer of exhaust pipes than a consortium of companies that together offer a complete exhaust gas system. This is our objective: Turning single companies into system providers.

We want to get our whole economic location into good trim so that it cannot easily be replaced with other locations in worldwide competition. This includes activities of domestic marketing, enhanced domestic mobility by improved short-distance passenger traffic but also better international accessibility by rail.

And it includes an opening to the outside world - active cooperation in the Metrex network and the opening an office with the European Union in Brussels.

2 Regional networks, our answers to rationalization

Rationalization in industry comes along with keywords such as “reduced depth of manufacturing”, “concentration on core competency”, “outsourcing”.

An example: In the Stuttgart region, they make cars that take less than 3 seconds to accelerate from 0 to 100 KPM. These cars are powered by rear engines. American pop singer Janice Joplin has sung about them. You will appreciate that I cannot name them. No product placement by civil servants!

It is interesting that only 20 % of this car are made by the manufacturers’ themselves, while 80% of all its components are produced by suppliers.

The same development can be found in mechanical engineering, in the media, in biotechnology. This is also the general trend in industry, handicraft, and services.

Our ambition is to reverse this fragmentation of forces through networks from industry, science and public authorities. We want to strengthen and develop regional clusters.

We have already done this in recent years by a variety of activities, both in our classic fields of competency and by introducing new topics hitherto unknown to our region.

In our “Mobilist” project, we have brought together a consortium of 44 partners from industry (such as Daimler Chrysler, Bosch, HP, Siemens, and IBM), outstanding academic institutes at the Stuttgart universities and scientific colleges, and not least local authorities. In a nationwide competition, we have won public grants worth some 13 million Euro Mio Euro, to which were added some 10 million Euro from the companies’ own funds.

We have set ourselves the target of developing new mobility services and products. This is our contribution to turning Stuttgart from a “automotive region” into a “mobility region”. The subjects of this cooperation include: improved timely information about the mobility situation in the region, especially traffic jams, enhanced interfaces between public transport and private motorcar traffic, but also a better response of settlement and housing policies to the requirements of mobility than in the past.

In recent years, we have opened up a number of new fields for the economy of our region. We have created a network for the promotion of biotechnology. The following are taking part in this network:

- More than 120 research institutes
- More than 75 small and medium-sized enterprises (SME’s)
- More than 30 service providers (local government, associations, public authorities, banks, ...)

The purpose behind this network is to speed up the road from a scientific idea to an economically viable product, thus creating new jobs.

Last year, much to our own surprise, this network won a nationwide competition for the promotion of biotechnology. Our new concepts on “regenerative biotechnology” were awarded a grant of 18 million Euro. Industry will contribute another 18 million Euro.

Comparable networks were created for issues like start ups, media, and fuel cell. At the moment, we are making plans for networking all resources on the subject of mobility in our Stuttgart region. We want to unite an incredible variety of coexisting activities in order that - an ambitious target, I admit - Stuttgart may be placed worldwide as a mobility region.

In a certain sense, we are following the appeal from the Symphony No. 9, when Beethoven calls upon us to “overcome the artificial divisions brought about by custom and fashion”.

3 The answer to the tertiarisation of production

The networks described above are the first part of our response. However, constantly rising demands on the quality of our work must also be met by further qualification of our workforce.

The Stuttgart region has a large number of eminent educational institutions at all levels of our social and economic system. Universities, technical colleges, professional academies, vocational training in the German dual system.
Nevertheless, some 20% of all people currently employed in our region, i.e. more than 200,000 persons, have no vocational education or are just semi-skilled. This figure holds a certain ambivalence:

- **Positive:** The rate of unemployment in our region is very low so that many people of little or no professional education do find jobs.

- **Negative:** In the Stuttgart region, there are more jobs at risk that anywhere else in Germany. Those "jobholders" would seem rather unfit to cope with the rising demands of industrial tertiarisation.

Therefore, the Stuttgart region together with partners from industry and the trade unions has initiated a project called "Mentoring for women with low professional qualifications". With the assistance of the European Social Fund, we shall implement a model project by the year 2004.

With about 200 female participants, we want to prove that there is some potential in the large number of girls and women with little or no professional qualification in the Stuttgart region. We want to remove barriers to advanced training and motivate companies to satisfy their need for qualified female staff from within their own workforce. Mentoring will be a three-stage process:

- **Basic qualification, e.g. mathematics and language**

- **Workshops to teach "learning how to learn"**

- **Finally, professional qualification as such, e.g. skilled worker's certificate**

Activating the "human resources" of our region, that is what this project is about. Industry needs skilled people. People need an opportunity.

### 4 The challenge of demographic development

The decreasing population and the increasing number of elderly people are problems that the Federal Republic attempts to encounter with a number of measures. The "green card" and an immigration act are meant to pave the way for capable committed persons from outside the European Union who want to work in Germany, especially in the Stuttgart region.

The freedom of movement within the European Union with its common economic territory and labour market is a joint European opportunity.

Naturally, the strong economic regions of Europe must ask themselves whether it is legitimate to recruit capable labour from poorer European regions. Ultimately, I am sure that there is no alternative to a common industrial and labour market.

Even the proposed enlargement of the EU towards Eastern Europe and the resulting inflow of highly qualified people from Poland or the Baltic States to our high-tech region in Germany, Italy, France, Great Britain, Spain ... is going to be an opportunity for the new member states. There will be "joint-ventures". Many people educated and trained in our high-tech regions are going to return to the "European regions of the future".

Last summer, our regional program for promoting the economy initiated a very promising action under the title of "Move back". The purpose of this action was to bring back to the Stuttgart region IT experts who had gone to the United States of America for their professional future. We appealed to their feelings about their Swabian home country, no less than to their sound Swabian sense of business.

Our goal was that urgently needed IT experts should return to our region for their professional future. For this purpose, Dr. Rogg, head of our regional promotion program, sent aeroplanes to circle over Manhattan, displaying the banner "Move back to Germany!"

Within the first few weeks, the action produced hundreds of inquiries from well-trained IT experts with our promotion program. emigrants from Germany as well as American IT experts. I have before me a photo of this campaign.

An aeroplane, a banner, the twin towers of the World Trade Center in New York. It was only natural for us to discontinue the action after the 11th of September last year. We did not want to benefit in any way from an act of terrorism.

Our main concern must be a reinterpretation of our demographic development. We are not prepared to accept that a rising number of elderly people are considered a locational disadvantage. We are no followers of the cult of youth presented to us in commercials everywhere in Europe.

We stand up for a "Renaissance of experience". In fact, the odds are rather good in the Stuttgart region. In 2002, 12% of all persons employed in our region are over 55 years of age. In the Federal Republic as a whole, it is only 9%.

That so many more elderly people than elsewhere in Germany still find jobs is due to our excellent economic situation. From this peak share of elderly people in working life, we want to develop a competitive edge for the future.

We believe: The region in Europe that best succeeds in winning qualified motivated persons of advanced age for committed professional activities will enjoy a competitive advantage.
Industry in our region shares that view. At present, we are jointly working on concepts for an organization of work that shall integrate elderly persons into advanced training concepts, thus turning the theory of "life long learning" into reality.

**Third step : A final request**

Those were just a few points and examples to outline the prospects of the Stuttgart region. However, we do not want to push ahead with this development just on our own behalf.

We believe that our ideas are a contribution to Europe as a whole. I would be delighted to share these ideas with European partners. Partners from all over Europe will be most welcome to those projects: in mobility technology, biotechnology, setting up business, on the subject of media, but also for the integration of low-qualified people or the "Renaissance of experience".

I would like to invite you to join us for the advancement of those projects. Let us approach the European Union together and speak up for those ideas. The Stuttgart region is ready to be your partner.
Twenty-five years ago, Birmingham, the city that I represent at this Conference, was one of Britain’s most successful and prosperous manufacturing centres, with a strong economy, based on engineering and in particular the automotive industry. Within a few years, that prosperity had been blown away by the oil crisis and the recessions which followed. From being one of the most prosperous city regions in the UK, Birmingham dropped almost to the bottom of that particular league table. So, like many other industrial cities in Britain and Europe, Birmingham’s story in the 1980s and 1990s has been about economic recovery and urban regeneration.

In the short time available to me this afternoon, I want to identify what seem to me to be some of the more significant features of our experience in Birmingham and to relate them to the theme of economic inclusion. Since this is a workshop session, I should also warn you that it is not my intention to provide pre-packaged solutions. Instead, my presentation will end with some questions which I hope will serve to stimulate further debate.

By way of introduction, I should perhaps provide you with a little background information on Birmingham. We are Britain’s second city, with a population of around one million, located at the geographic heart of England. Birmingham is also the ‘capital’ of the West Midlands region of England. Unlike most English regions, the West Midlands is a fair approximation to a classical ‘city region’ with a metropolitan area, including the City of Birmingham at the centre, surrounded by a rural hinterland with a number of free-standing towns. Communications to the rest of the country are good - by which I mean that the basic road and rail links exist, although they suffer from the problems of congestion and under-investment which are common to transport networks in Britain. Finally, I should draw attention to the diversity of Birmingham’s population. Over 25% are from minority ethnic groups, in particular the Indian sub-continent and the Caribbean, and this proportion is rising, mainly because of the relatively young age structure of these sectors of the population.

A few statistics demonstrate the scale of the economic change which affected Birmingham in the 1970s. Between 1971 and 1983, 190,000 jobs were lost, overall employment within the City rose to over 20%, and for young people aged below 20, unemployment levels reached as high as 40%. Given this history, the challenge for Birmingham in the 1980s was clear - how to restructure the City’s economy in order to restore its economic fortunes.

The theme of this workshop is economic inclusion, and it is important at the outset to make clear what I understand this term to mean. For me, economic inclusion means that no-one should be prevented from playing a full part in the economy of the City, or in benefiting from the wealth it generates because of avoidable barriers, such as poor education, poor transport or poor perceptions about the area in which they live. Put slightly differently, the process of restructuring the economy of a city like Birmingham should not be seen as an end in itself, but as something undertaken for a purpose - and ultimately that purpose must be to secure the quality of life of all the people who live in the city, and of future generations.

It is within this context that I now intend briefly to review Birmingham’s experience over the past two decades.

The first point to emphasise is that this has been a partnership approach. The City Council has sought to provide a strategic lead, as the main mouthpiece for Birmingham, but has worked in partnership with a wide and varying range of other organisations responsible for delivering particular services, such as health, education, training and economic development.

Over the years, partnership working has gradually become more formalised. Recently, this has culminated in the creation of the City Strategic Partnership, which brings the main organisations responsible for delivering public services in Birmingham together with representatives of the business, voluntary and community sectors, in an attempt to ‘join up’ service delivery and make it more effective and responsive. Inevitably, these different organisations sometimes have their disagreements - but the benefit of this approach is that there has been agreement and commitment to the main strands of the City’s approach to urban regeneration across a range of agencies.

Birmingham’s approach had a number of clear objectives and the first of these was to diversify the City’s economy. This meant in particular moving the area away from its dependence on manufacturing, by developing a more extensive service sector. The route chosen to achieve this was a bold one and involved developing Birmingham as a centre for business tourism.

The two keys to this were the expansion of the National Exhibition Centre, which is located on the edge of the City close to Birmingham airport, and the development of an entirely new International Convention Centre in the heart of the City Centre. These facilities are now the largest of their type in Britain and taken together they account for over 40% of the UK’s conference and exhibition trade. They have succeeded in dramatically increasing the number of visitors to Birmingham, and have helped to stimulate significant investment in new hotels, restaurants, shops and leisure facilities.

There was a second aspect to diversification and this was to modernise Birmingham’s industrial base - to improve the quality of the City’s stock of industrial floorspace, much of which dates from the first half of the twentieth century or...
earlier; to assist Birmingham’s existing firms to modernise and become more competitive; and to attract new firms in a wider range of industrial sectors to invest in the City.

Performance in this area has been more patchy. There are certainly successes, and the West Midlands region has become one of Europe’s most successful regions at attracting foreign inward investment. However, a continued shortage of good quality investment sites, made worse by Birmingham’s tight Green Belt, has limited the City’s ability to benefit fully from this. Despite the successes, the West Midlands still has the second lowest manufacturing productivity of any region in the UK, and its GDP, although rising, remains below the national average.

The third aspect to the approach was to realise the full potential of Birmingham City Centre. We recognised that to capitalise on the full benefits of world class conference and exhibition facilities, Birmingham also needed world class hotels, shops, restaurants, leisure and cultural facilities, and that these needed to be provided in a high quality environment. The transformation of Birmingham City Centre over the past 15 years has certainly been our most visible success story. Our market research tells us that it is something which most Birmingham residents are proud of. Perhaps more importantly, the City Centre also provides a growing number of jobs (well over 100,000) in a highly accessible location.

These initiatives have all been primarily about creating new sources of employment to replace those that were lost. However, this type of approach, pursued in isolation, is open to criticism that it does not necessarily benefit those in greatest need. The new jobs may be taken by newcomers or commuters, rather than those displaced from older industries. It was therefore accompanied by a major emphasis on training and re-skilling the existing workforce to equip them to compete for jobs in the new economic sectors. This has involved a cultural change. The City’s traditional industries tended to rely on apprenticeships and the acquisition of a ‘trade’. Less value was placed on the acquisition of more formal qualifications and transferable skills. The emphasis on training has therefore been expanded into a broader commitment to raise educational standards generally throughout the City. There are solid examples of success in this area, and in particular the performance of Birmingham’s schools is improving rapidly. However, skill gaps still exist, and the West Midlands region remains below the national average in relation to skill levels.

Accessibility is also an important factor in ensuring fair access to job opportunities, and so we have also consistently placed great importance on the need to modernise our transport infrastructure. This is an area where it is much more difficult to point to success stories. Birmingham’s international accessibility has improved, mainly as a result of the expansion of Birmingham’s airport, and this is obviously important given our intention to develop business tourism. However, progress on improving our internal transport networks has been slow - after 20 years of trying, we still have only one light rail route. This means that moving around the City, and in particular journeys not involving the City Centre, is more difficult than it should be.

The final piece in this policy jigsaw has been area-based regeneration - a commitment to focus public resources and action on the most deprived areas. Over the last 20 years there has been an almost bewildering array of locally-based initiatives, often responding to nationally inspired programmes which it would take far too long to describe. Again, there are examples of success - for example, a major transformation of the Lee Bank area, which adjoins the City Centre, is currently taking place. However, there are always problems of maintaining such successes in the long term, once the area programme has come to an end, and difficult issues of competition for resources between areas also arise.

To sum this up, Birmingham’s approach has led to real progress. Again, a few statistics help tell the story. Overall, unemployment within the City is now down to 7.3%, total employment has increased by 9% since 1992 and economic activity rates are rising. After 40 years of population decline, people are beginning to move back to the City, and the population is stabilising. This is a very real achievement, given the starting point 20 years ago, and it owes much to the clarity of the vision which Birmingham developed and the consistency with which that vision has been pursued.

However, the story of Birmingham’s regeneration is by no means complete. If we are serious about economic inclusion, we also need to ask how universal the benefits of economic recovery have been. Perhaps the most telling statistic here is the national index of deprivation, which shows that one-third of Birmingham’s residents still live in areas which are amongst the 10% most deprived in Britain. Unemployment in the worst of these areas still exceeds 20%, skills levels and educational attainment are often low, and problems of dereliction and a poor living environment persist. These areas also include a disproportionately high number of the City’s black and ethnic minority residents. The inescapable conclusion is that although a regeneration process is well-advanced, not all communities have shared in the process to the same extent, and for some the benefits are hardly visible.

In responding to this continuing challenge, we are working towards a more comprehensive and coherent approach to the issue of neighbourhood renewal. An important step in this direction was taken at a conference held in Birmingham in February 2001, and known as Highbury 3. This produced the concept of ‘Flourishing Neighbourhoods’ - the idea that a city like Birmingham is not a single entity, but is actually made up of a diverse range of distinctive neighbourhoods, each with their own character, but each contributing to, and sharing in, the success of the whole. This approach sees neighbourhoods as being assets and opportunities rather than problems, and it emphasises the need to foster and support all neighbourhoods and not simply those with the greatest needs - although it still encompasses the need to continue to target resources at the most deprived communities.

One of the ways in which we are beginning to put this concept into practice is by developing a strategy for improving local centres throughout the City. In part, this responds to public pressure for the very visible renewal of the City Centre to be repeated in the suburbs, but it also seeks to realise the potential of local centres to provide locally accessible shops, services and employment at the heart of local communities.
A second way forward is an increasingly serious commitment to move towards decentralising control over some aspects of service delivery and to provide greater local control over local regeneration budgets. The Council is working towards the creation of a series of local strategic partnerships which will bring together the key agencies from the public, private, voluntary and community sectors, to provide a more coherent and ‘joined up’ approach at the neighbourhood level. We are very much at the beginning of this process, and there are many challenges ahead - for example, in terms of deciding what services can most effectively be devolved, and how central budgets can be disaggregated. The reality is that the capacity of communities in different parts of the City to take on this task varies and so it is unlikely that progress will be even across the City. However, the principle which underpins this approach is an important one - that we are unlikely to be successful in tackling the problems of economic inclusion without the active participation of communities in developing solutions at the local level.

I said that my intention would be to end with questions rather than answers.

Firstly, how do we know when a neighbourhood is flourishing? Is it possible to identify some objective measures which would enable us to chart the progress of different areas? In particular, is it possible to include within this, a meaningful method of assessing some of the less tangible factors, such as community spirit and involvement?

Secondly, is it possible to transfer the success of the City Centre to the suburbs? Birmingham City Centre has been transformed through a radical process of redevelopment and renewal. Is this model appropriate for suburban centres or is a process of more gradual and incremental change likely to be more sustainable?

Finally, how far should local management be taken? What services and what budgets can most effectively be devolved? Birmingham has benefited from being able to pursue a clear strategic approach across the whole City. Can this be maintained if control is increasingly delegated to neighbourhoods?

I hope these thoughts will help to stimulate the debate.
Economic Inclusion in Amsterdam

When in 1998 national elections were held in the Netherlands it was clear that all efforts were directed to Work-Work-Work. That became the motto of the new national government. But also in the Amsterdam City Programme it became the most important issue. Economic inclusion (i.e. every citizen should play his/her part in the economy of the city) still is an important goal of the local authorities, even after the recent local elections.

In the last 5 years 75,000 new jobs were created in Amsterdam. But despite its economic growth, Amsterdam still has a high unemployment rate. More than 50,000 people (with a high percentage of ethnic minority groups) don't have a job at this moment. Certainly the unemployment figure has halved from 16% to 8% in recent years, but this is still the double of the national average.

On the other side of the coin, like many other cities in the west, Amsterdam has a shortfall in certain categories of personnel, notably the higher trained as technicians, teachers and people working in the health care. Unfortunately, many of the unemployed don't match with the demands of the market. This problem is being addressed energetically.

Economic inclusion can be stimulated by two major kind of measures:

1. Economic and socio-economic policy.
2. Investments in physical planning and infrastructure.

It will be clear to you that these two approaches (you could call it the software and the hardware) are strongly interdependent.

First the economic approach: the investment in people and work.

The four main goals are:

1. People for work: enhancing the interface between supply and demand in the labour market.
2. Work in the neighbourhoods; the regeneration of the city economy, notably in the older neighbourhoods.
3. Ready for the future: boosting the economic resilience.
4. Sustainability (see the motto of this conference) and diversity: intensifying the use of space and multimodal accessibility.

The next few years Amsterdam needs strong growth in jobs due to continuing high demand for employment, particularly among the unskilled and semi-skilled, plus the increasing number of women returning to work after a break. The number of job seekers is presently a total around 50,000. Meanwhile there are thousands of vacancies with no matching candidates. Improving this shortfall in the labour market is a top priority for the city authorities and other stakeholding organisations and companies.

Not surprisingly Amsterdam's economic policy also focuses on attracting new businesses from abroad. This is also designed as "future insurance" as foreign companies generate additional jobs. Included here are employees with lower levels of schooling, as the new companies need cleaning, catering, security advertising/printwork etc. The emphasis is on foreign companies because attracting domestic players merely shifts jobs nationally.

There is a substantial investment in the development of the socio-economic infrastructure in Amsterdam. That means business sites, accessibility and accommodation for employees, professional training, employer networking etc. Meanwhile Amsterdam must sustain existing businesses activity and see that entrepreneurs can go on developing in Amsterdam. The city and other stakeholders have created dozens of shared facilities designed for start-up companies.

Meanwhile, there is heavy investment in trade training for the tourism industry and other sectors with a high element of work for the lower-educated personnel. Older shopping centres and commercial sites are being refurbished. Unemployed people receive intensive coaching and debt counselling. This support includes childcare. Thereby dedicated centres have been set up to encourage first-time entrepreneurs.

Amsterdam is investing heavily in Information and Communications Technology (ICT), the Bio/Medtech and multimedia sectors. The city council has targeted these as crucial for the future development of Amsterdam’s economy. The same priority applies to small and medium enterprises, which are the backbone of the city economy, and provide 90% of the jobs.

A city corporation (NV Werk → Work Unlimited) and a city service (Maatwerk → Tailor-made jobs) are proactive in seeking to match employers with the unemployed and vice versa. The city also involves private temporary employment organisations and
coaching agencies. They provide training and other flanking measures like child minding, debt counselling etc. All this is designed to remove the special thresholds between the unemployed and a new start. Yet another approach is here in the form of salary grants to employers- and even the hiring of unemployed people by the city that are then seconded to employers, for a fee. More then 10,000 subsidised jobs have been created for the unemployed during the past two years. The aim here is for people to flow through to unsubsidised work. In the next few years all sights are set on getting another 25,000 people involved in work experience or as volunteers.

So far the socio-economic policy of the city of Amsterdam. The second way to stimulate the city’s economy in the near future and to solve the problem of economic exclusion comes from the field of the physical planning. In the next few minutes I will give you a bird’s eye view of the major projects in Amsterdam.

After this presentation you might ask: “Aren’t there any major problems left in Amsterdam”? Let me reassure you: there are.

Our major problems are:

1. The infrastructure (and especially the public transport) stays behind the growing need for mobility, inside and outside the city. The accessibility of the city centre and the working areas is a serious problem.

2. The unemployment is still unacceptably high, especially under the low-skilled workers. Special attention should be paid to the integration of ethnic minority groups in the Amsterdam community in order to stimulate their inclusion in the labour market.

3. Urban problems should be solved –more then today- in regional co-operation. City and region are complementary functions within the same urban system. It is important to focus on co-operation, not on competition. The regional network should be improved. In the new Masterplan of Amsterdam important steps are being made in this direction.

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Access to green urban areas as an indicator of urban sustainability

The Directorate General Joint Research Centre (DG JRC) of the European Commission (EC) is performing a pilot project named MOLAND (Monitoring Land Use / Cover Dynamics) the aim of which is to measure of the extent of urban areas and regional developments, as well as of their progress towards sustainable development, through the creation of land use and transport network databases for various cities and geographical areas in Europe. The project covers wider issues linked to sustainable development, and also aims to create a network of partners and collaborators within and outside Europe. Currently the project is analysing 40 urban areas and seven extended regions in Europe.

MOLAND addresses specifically the issues mentioned in the European Spatial Development Perspective (ESDP) that are related to urban and regional development, and those linked to sustainable land use management. Consequently, MOLAND is also of direct relevance to several environmental topics at the EU level, such as the actions on sustainable urban development and related communications, and the initiatives on Environmental Impact Assessment and on Strategic Environmental Assessment. In particular, MOLAND contributes to the preparation and definition of the Thematic Urban Strategy of the 6th Environmental Action Plan of the European Union, following the guidelines set by the EC General Directorate on Environment.

Access to green urban areas is an important indicator of urban sustainability and quality of life of the citizens. Green urban areas offer recreational possibilities free of charge for all population groups regardless of the age or income level. Urban areas differ very much from each other as to the proportion of green areas of the total urban area, the size of green areas and their distribution in relationship to residential areas.

In the MOLAND project the accessibility and availability of green urban areas have been studied in selected European cities by using the same methodology. The analysis has been carried out to support the European Common Indicators Initiative. Due to historical and geographical reasons but also to varying spatial planning policies and objectives, the differences in availability and accessibility in studied cities are quite big. The proportion of the residential areas within a walking distance from a larger than 1 ha green area ranges from 50 % to 90 %. On the other hand in the availability of green recreational areas per inhabitant the differences are even greater. The smallest area/per person is 0.2 acres and the highest more than 4 acres/per person.

In addition to accessibility studies MOLAND can be used for analysing and simulating the impacts of different planning options and scenarios on various urban features linked to land use, transport network and demographic developments from the point of view of sustainable development.

Keywords: Spatial planning, accessibility, green urban areas

Introduction

The Directorate General Joint Research Centre (DG JRC) of the European Commission (EC) is performing a pilot project named MOLAND (Monitoring Land Use / Cover Dynamics) the aim of which is to measure of the extent of urban areas and regional developments, as well as of their progress towards sustainable development, through the creation of land use and transport network databases for various cities and geographical areas in Europe. The project covers wider issues linked to sustainable development, and also aims to create a network of partners and collaborators within and outside Europe.

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In particular, MOLAND contributes to the preparation and definition of the Thematic Urban Strategy of the 6th Environmental Action Plan of the European Union, following the guidelines set by the EC General Directorate on Environment.

The aim of MOLAND is to provide an integrated methodology based on a set of spatial planning tools that can be used for assessing, monitoring and modelling the development of urban and regional environments. The main feature of the project is that it allows quantitative and qualitative comparisons at pan-European level, among areas subject to transformation due to policy intervention. A further characteristic is that it adopts a methodology that simultaneously addresses the EU perspective on the one hand, and the regional / local dimension on the other. Currently, a total of 40 urban areas have been analysed in Europe and a wider network of links is being created in collaboration with existing organisation such as EUROCITIES and others.

Project overview
The overall aim of the JRC’s MOLAND Project is to provide a spatial planning tool for assessing, monitoring, and modelling the development of urban and regional environments. MOLAND was initiated in 1998 (under the name of MURBANDY – Monitoring Urban Dynamics), in support of the preparation of the European Spatial Development Perspective (ESDP). The aim of MURBANDY was to monitor the development of urban areas and to draw some conclusions on trends at a European scale. This work was subsequently extended (under MOLAND) to the computation of indicators (following the requirements of EUROSTAT, European Environment Agency and others), and to the assessment of the impact of anthropogenic stress factors (with a focus on expanding settlements, transport and tourism) in and around urban areas, and along development corridors.

The primary role of the MOLAND Project is to provide scientific and technical support to the European Commission’s various Directorates-General (DGs), services, and associated bodies, that are responsible for the conception, development, implementation, and monitoring of EU policies related to urban and regional development. At present, the main EU policy areas that are supported by MOLAND include the following: the 6th EC Environment Action Programme’s proposed Thematic Strategy on the Urban Environment, for DG ENV (Environment); Indicators for Sustainable Urban and Regional Development, for DG ENV, EUROSTAT, and the EEA (European Environment Agency); the ESDP, for DG REGIO (Regional Policy); Impacts of the Structural and Cohesion Funds, for DG ENV; Strategic Environmental Assessment (SEA) of the Trans-European Transport Networks (TEN-T), for DG TREN (Energy and Transport).

The study areas currently under examination in MOLAND are shown in figure below:

![Study areas in Europe](image)

Figure 1: Study areas in Europe.

From a technical point of view, MOLAND has three specific aims:

- to produce quantitative information on the evolution of land use and transport networks, from 1950 onwards, in study areas subject to infrastructural changes (e.g. urbanisation, construction of transport links);
- to develop methods for performing a harmonised analysis of historical trends, including socio-economic aspects, impact of legislation, landscape fragmentation, etc.;
- to develop models for the harmonised simulation of future European-wide scenarios, at local and regional scales.
The implementation of MOLAND is divided into three phases, corresponding to the above specific aims. Central to the methodology is the creation of detailed GIS databases of land use types and transport networks for the study areas, at a mapping scale of 1:25,000. The databases are typically for four dates (early 1950s, late 1960s, 1980s, late 1990s), or for two dates (mid 1980s, late 1990s) in the case of larger areas. For each study area the reference land use database (late 1990s) is created from interpretation of satellite imagery, most commonly from the IRS (Indian Remote Sensing) satellite (pixels of 5.7x5.7 metres), and in a few cases from the IKONOS or SPOT satellites. The three historical databases are created from the available data (aerial photographs, military satellite images, etc.) for these dates. MOLAND adopts the CORINE land cover legend, with a fourth, more detailed level of nomenclature added for artificial surfaces.

In the second phase of MOLAND, various spatial analysis techniques are applied to the land use and transport databases, and associated socio-economic data, in order to compute different types of indicators of urban and regional development. These indicators are used to assess and compare the study areas in terms of their progress towards sustainable development. Analysis of the fragmentation of the landscapes is also carried out. The land use and transport databases have also been used for a strategic environmental assessment (SEA) of the impact of transport links on the landscape.

In the third phase of MOLAND, an urban growth model is applied. This model, which is based on spatial dynamics systems called “cellular automata”, takes as input the MOLAND land use and transport databases, as well as maps of land use suitability and zoning status, and simulates future land use development under the input urban and regional planning and policy parameters. Here, the aim is both to predict future land use development under existing spatial plans and policies, and to compare alternative possible spatial planning and policy scenarios, in terms of their effects on future land use development.

**Territorial indicators in the analysis of urban and regional development**

Key objectives in MOLAND are to quantify the changes in land use patterns, to explain the trends of growth for the selected urban areas, and to help in identifying strategies for sustainable urban and regional development. The extensive data set created within MOLAND allows handling a series of unique land-referenced data. Those data are used to build and, particularly, to test specific spatially referenced indicators. Such indicators serve several purposes:

- Provide a better understanding of complex territorial problems
- Provide a sufficiently complete basis for the approaches to urban and regional spatial planning (particularly regarding sustainable land use management)
- Help city managers and decision-makers in defining local policies
- Provide regional/national authorities and international institutions (such as Eurostat and EEA) with detailed territorial-referenced information at local and European levels.

The indicators are designed to be robust in space and time, as well as flexible enough to accommodate the urban and regional different structures. At the same time such indicators offer a degree of standardisation that allows comparisons between different urban areas Europe.

A further key peculiarity of the approach is the multi-temporal perspective for assessing past and future trends.

A core set of urban and regional indicators, which includes land use and socio-economic information, has not yet been precisely defined and agreed at EU (or even international) level, and within the project the definition of specific indicators for the sustainability in urban areas (as systems connected to their regional backgrounds) is one of the most investigated topics. The technical framework for providing such a quality of information has never been previously developed at large scale. MOLAND addresses these deficiencies and offers a new point of view by linking “classical” socio-economic indicators to territorial parameters.

Particular effort is devoted to the development of easily handled indicators, since potential users of these results include city managers, local administrators and planners, up to international bodies. Such users may also be willing to have a comprehensive framework of the situation. Due to the complexity of the urban systems and the quantity of data managed, the number of indicators has to be reduced to the minimum. Furthermore, in order to attain all the sectors that need to be considered MOLAND targets a set of cross-sectoral indicators, with a focus on pressure indicators. The user, in this way, should be able to handle more information with a manageable effort.

The indicators developed under MOLAND can be divided into two main categories:

- Spatially referenced indicators providing information on different land use types and changes;
- Cross sectoral spatially referenced indicators to target and evaluate more complex processes for landscape changes (e.g. fragmentation). Socio-economic data, prepared in a spatially disaggregated format, are included in this category to cover topics of relevance for different policies (environment, transport, social cohesion, etc.).

The aim here is to address carrying capacity and general urban and regional sustainability issues.

Examples of the MOLAND indicators are presented in Figures 2, 3 and 4 which show respectively the application to generalised land-use indicator at European scale and examples of territorially differentiated indicators. Figure 5 shows an example of a territorially referenced indicator defined in the frame of the European Common Indicators initiative of DG ENV.
Figure 2: Urban sprawl (in %) for 12 European cities in the last 50 years.

Figure 3: Land use evolution in Helsinki from 1950 to 1998.
Figure 4: Dresden (D) - Impact of land use transformation due to commercial and industrial activities on commuters behaviour between 1981 and 1997. Commercial and industrial areas for three dates (1968, 1986 and 1998) and main roads are overlaid on the change in ‘inward’ commuters for each municipality around Dresden. Darker green indicates that the industrial and commercial settlements are attracting daily workers, which in turn call for the establishment of transport infrastructure.

Figure 5: Copenhagen 1986 - Percentage of inhabitants (per municipality), which have access to green urban areas. The map is built up from the definition of indicator n. 4 ‘availability of local public green areas and public services’, from the European Common Indicators.
Moland in the analysis of the access to public open areas (European Common Indicator A4)

The Moland land use classification consists of approximately 100 land use classes. It is based on the European standard land use legend, CORINE, but a fourth, more detailed level has been added to match the more detailed scale of the Moland project. In Moland the scale is 1:25 000 and the minimum mapping unit (=the smallest area mapped as an independent land use unit) is 1 ha (100m*100m) for artificial areas and 3 ha for agricultural and natural areas.

To analyse the access to public open areas the following land use classes of the Moland legend were chosen:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1.4.1</th>
<th>Green urban areas</th>
<th>This class includes areas with vegetation within urban fabric. It includes city parks (minimum mapping unit is 1 ha).</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.4.2</td>
<td>Sport and leisure facilities</td>
<td>This class includes areas such as camping grounds, sports grounds, leisure parks, golf courses, racecourses, amusement parks, etc. It also includes formal parks not surrounded by urban zones (minimum mapping unit is 1 ha).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Forests and semi-natural areas.</td>
<td>This class includes forests, shrub, grassland beaches and sparsely vegetated areas (minimum mapping unit is 3 ha).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The areas classified in the class 1.4.2 include mostly parks which are not completely surrounded by built-up areas but which are partially surrounded by natural or agricultural areas. It also includes areas which are not accessible free of charge at least not all the time. In the analysis herein presented, also the areas not freely accessible, such as leisure parks, are included, although it is be possible to exclude them. Forests and semi-natural areas have been taken into analysis because in most urban areas they are widely used for recreational purposes and they are freely accessible in most cases. In the contrary, agricultural areas are not part of the definition of public open areas, since a vast majority of them are not accessible to public not at least in the growing season.

The proportion of green areas (Moland classes 1.4.1 and 1.4.2) varies considerably in the studied urban areas. In Bratislava (the capital of the Slovak Republic) less than 2 % of the total land area is classified as green areas. The other extreme is Sunderland in the UK, where 13 % of the land area is green areas. The general trend over the past 50 years is the increase. In the sample of 15 cities only in Dresden in 1990s there are less green urban areas than in 1950s, which is explained by the heavy bombings during the WW II and the reconstruction work in the following decades as a result of which the green areas within the urban fabric have turned into built-up areas.

![Figure 6: Proportion of green-areas in selected European urban areas from mod Ô50 til late Ô90](image)

When the surrounding forests, which have a very important recreational value, are taken into consideration, the picture changes. The areas covered by forests and other green recreational areas vary between 8 % in Milan Italy and 50 % in Helsinki, Finland. The big differences in Europe are caused by different prevailing land use patterns, which in turn have been moulded by geographical location and historical developments. Some urban areas are located in the middle of agricultural areas and others are bordered by forests.
Figure 8: Sensitivity of indicator ECI #4 to the size of the buffer.

The mean difference between the two sizes is of about 16 percentage points. The higher the percentage of residential areas within the buffer is, the smaller the difference between the situation of a 300 and a 500-meter buffer became. The largest difference is recorded in Copenhagen with 24 percentage points. Although the indicator seems to be sensitive to the size of the buffer, it is even more sensitive to the threshold size of the open public space. A difference of over 40 percentage points in the value of the indicator has been found if no lower limit to the dimension of the green areas is set (i.e. all small green areas be they narrow strips of grass or groups of trees are taken in the computation of the indicator).

The accessibility indicator has been computed for a selection of ten European cities with a 300 m buffer range. The differences between areas are surprisingly high. In Copenhagen the accessibility is lowest among the selected cities. But even there half of the residential areas are situated closer to 300 m to an open public space. The other extreme is Helsinki where 90 % of all residential areas are located closer than 300 m to an open public space.
Figure 9: Accessibility to green-areas for selected European urban areas.

The accessibility indicator sheds light only on one side of "the user-friendliness" of open public areas. In a more thorough analysis also the size and relative location of open public area should be taken into account. This is illustrated by analysing, for example, the urban areas of Milan and Munich where the difference in accessibility indicator is 8 percentage points. Milan is characterized by a large number of relatively small open public areas which are spread very evenly in the urban structure. In Munich the areas are much bigger in size, more continuous, but they are concentrated in the outskirts of the city. In spite of these huge differences, which can be immediately seen on a map, the indicator gives a very similar value for both of the cities.

Figure 10: Size and relative location of open public space in Milan (left) and Munich (right).

Conclusions

The methodology experimented and continuously evolving in the project MOLAND was set up to provide a European view on spatial developments of urbanised areas. During its evolution, the method has proven to be applicable in the evaluation of the impact of policies and measures at both local/regional and continental level.

The example illustrated in this paper gives an idea of the flexibility of the method. Once the database is coherently and duly completed, the analysis can be customised to satisfy different criteria of evaluation. Remedial actions can therefore be taken more promptly and with greater precision.

The key element for the application of the criteria and methods developed by MOLAND is the concrete and active involvement of regional and local authorities. This is for two main reasons.
In the field of Regional policy the subsidiarity principle reaches its full dimension: local/regional bodies implement with almost full autonomy directives and measures for regional developments decided by the EC. This is particularly true for structural funds related to urban and local infrastructure (ports, airport etc.) and for the application of SEA at local/regional level. The debate has also been at the center of the ESDP, and will have to be solved in the establishment of ESPON.

From a purely technical point of view, only at the adequate local level is there a need for information to fully assess and analyze the impact of measures taken or planned.

In the frame of the activities of the project, particular efforts have been dedicated to establish links and contacts with national, regional and local authorities. These contacts have resulted in formal collaborations either following already established mechanisms in the EC (such the Working Groups in DG ENV, projects funded in the INTERREG Programme, the 5th RTD Frame-work Programme, etc.) or establishing bi-lateral agreements. An active collaboration has been initiated with EUROCITIES (originated in the frame of the working groups set by DG ENV) and the Union of Baltic Cities to network cities and local administrations. This results in a series of proposals for thematic network to the EC, in which the partner-cities will aim to adopt as much as possible of the MOLAND methodology.

The ‘instrument’ to formally set up a large thematic network on the issue of urban (and regional) sustainable development is provided by the European Research Area which will drive the research activities of the European Commission. It is essential to extend the scope of such network to ‘institutional users’ (e.g. local administration, EC services etc.) and to institutes and organizations with a specialization and tradition in the various fields related to the “urban affaire”.

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1. Preamble

The Province of Turin adopted the Territorial Plan of Coordination (T.C.P.) in 1999. This provides an intermediate level of planning for local authorities between regional and municipal plans. Pursuant to Article 20 of Legislative Decree No. 267, 18/08/2000, the Territorial Plan of Coordination must define “general guidelines for land planning and development”. The main contents of the T.C.P. were outlined during the course of the METREX Torino 2000 Biennial Conference, to which reference should be made. The T.C.P. defines a set of rules to overcome the inconsistencies of municipal town-planning policies and expresses the need to include municipal plans within specific “extra-urban” sub-environments. These “specific sub-environments” represent a preliminary attempt to create a provincial network for coordinating local policies.

The Territorial Plan of Coordination thus defines specific extra-urban agglomerations that require more in-depth studies at local town-planning level. These studies must be exhaustive, require the co-operation of all those involved and can benefit from the direction and support of the Province. These areas are defined on the basis of different sets of problems and fall into three main categories:

- Areas that developed historically and morphologically along important arterial roads, merging the built-up suburbs of different municipalities with similar problems in terms of urban development issues.
- b) Areas that, in relation to the importance of current initiatives, must be examined in terms of extra-urban co-ordination, including by sector.
- Areas of particular environmental importance - landscapes and natural heritage - that must be protected and the presence of elements of critical environmental importance characterised by extensive, low-density buildings and very few opportunities for integration. The need here is for upgrading and improvements.

Corso Francia is an important arterial road that links three municipalities within the Turin metropolitan area. It is approximately 12 Km long and falls into all three of the categories listed above. The project has not yet been implemented. However, it is in the process of being drawn up and is one of the main “Strategic Projects” for the Province of Turin.

2. Historical and land context

The project must take into consideration the historical and land context. The Province covers an area of approximately 683,000 hectares (6,830 sq. km). Turin is the main town and centre of the Province, characterised by the Alps that separate it from France. The Alps cover almost 1/2 of the province, the hills account for approximately 1/6 of the surface area and the remaining 1/3 is flat land. The plain covers a very small part of the area and it is here that the city of Turin has developed.

When the road that is now called Corso Francia was built, Turin had approximately 45,000 inhabitants and was the capital of the Savoy State. The city lay between two rivers, the Dora and the Po. It was surrounded by city walls, with bastions and moats from which the army defended the city. The “Cittadella”, a formidable and impenetrable five-sided fort, was built in the second half of the 16th century in the south-western corner of the city, on the highest part of the city.

In 1706, during the reign of Vittorio Amedeo II, the French army, led by the Duke de la Feuillade, besieged the city to punish Vittorio Amedeo II for taking sides with Austria instead of France during the Spanish War of Succession. The city put up memorable resistance. Each year it still celebrates the heroic actions of one soldier, Pietro Micca, who gave up his life to prevent a group of French grenadiers from entering the “Cittadella”. On 7 September 1706, the Empire's troops rejoined the Savoy army and freed Turin from foreign rule. There is a legend that says as Vittorio Amedeo II watched the French army assemble from his position on Superga hill, which stands 669 meters above the city, he vowed he would build a church on that site in case of victory.

In this historical context, extensive building work got underway and urban development plans were implemented. These plans included a new castle in Rivoli, to the west of the city, opposite Superga hill and in the direction of France. This was part of more extensive plans to develop a modern urban centre to be used as a royal palace outside the city, based on the new decentralised land model of royal residences in Europe.

3. The “wide road of Rivoli”

These plans also included the construction of a new, straight road, called the “wide road of Rivoli”. The road traced a line between the Castle and the Basilica of Superga, built between 1717 and 1731 and designed by the architect, Filippo Juvarra. Work on the road started in 1711 and was completed the following year. The year 2011 will mark two important anniversaries: 150 years since the Unification of Italy and 300 years since Corso Francia was built.

As stated earlier, the city underwent considerable development during the 18th century. The decision to connect Turin with Rivoli, by means of a straight road that was totally unaffected by existing roads, also had significant political implications. Rivoli Castle was designed to become a seat of power and not a residence of leisure, unlike the Palace...
at Venaria Reale. The new road was thus constructed with no regard for land owners’ rights and traced a straight line between the Superga hill at one end and the moraine hill in Rivoli, on which the Castle was built, at the other end. This tree-lined road, approximately 15 meters wide and 12 Km long, running over an area of completely flat land, was an imposing piece of engineering work for the time.

A map dating back to about 1820, more than a century after the road was built, shows how the “wide road” still maintained the characteristics of a tree-lined avenue, with the sole purpose of connecting Rivoli. However, a number of rural centres gradually started to develop along the route, for instance, where it crosses the road that joins the municipalities of Collegno and Grugliasco located, respectively, to the north and south of the “wide road”.

4. Development along Corso Francia in the first half of the 20th century. The triumph of Liberty

Between the end of the 19th century and the beginning of the 20th century the first important industrial-residential estate, known as “Villaggio Leumann”, was built in Collegno, about half way along the “wide road”. The estate comprises two areas of houses built along the sides of a textile factory and covers an area of approximately 60,000 square metres. “Villaggio Leumann” in Collegno is one of the best examples of twentieth-century workers’ housing developments. The distinctive, Liberty-style architecture of the houses and factory entrance stands out amidst the disorderly architecture of what is now an industrial suburb, created somewhat frenetically in the second half of last century.

The urban planning, architecture and, above all, the social institutions created by a brilliant entrepreneur, Napoleon Leumann, are an extraordinary model of historical, cultural and architectural importance; a heritage that we must safeguard. The Swiss industrialist established the Leumann Cotton-Mill in 1875. The company soon grew in size and importance. In less than ten years the workforce increased from two hundred to eight hundred. By 1911 it stood at around 1500.

“Villaggio Leumann” was not merely a residential nucleus for its workers. It was a clearly defined area in which production, housing, social and welfare institutions, free time activities were all closely linked to form a functional and socially advanced unit. The estate comprises 59 cottages and houses representing a total of 120 apartments that originally housed around one thousand people. Buildings to house essential facilities, such as a junior school, day nursery, church, theatre, doctor’s surgery and sports hall were built around the houses, in addition to a boarding-house providing accommodation for approximately 250 female workers aged between 13 and 20.

Turin developed to the west, along Corso Francia, in the early 20th century, when a new district, called “Cit Turin”, was built. This district features a number of Liberty-style buildings.

Note that Turin played host to the most important “Italian Art Noveau” exhibition of that time, the International Exhibition of Decorative and Industrial Art, which opened on 10 May, 1902. Some of the finest examples of Liberty architecture in Turin can be found in the first part of Corso Francia, near Piazza Statuto. One such example is “villino Raby”, a family house designed in 1901 by the architect, P. Fenoglio. Another of Fenoglio’s projects, dated 1902, is “la Fleur”, which stands on the corner of Corso Francia with Via Principe d’Acaja. Fenoglio also designed “Casa Maciotta”, in Via Bagetti on the corner with Corso Francia.

Further along Corso Francia is another fine building, “Palazzo della Vittoria”, built in 1920, which combines Liberty and medieval architecture.

During the first half of the 20th century, urban development along Corso Francia was well-planned and characterised by high-quality architecture.

5. Development along Corso Francia in the second half of the 20th century. The triumph of commonplace architecture

As Turin continued to expand, especially after the Second World War, it maintained its Roman grid street pattern but failed to acquire the characteristics of a “well-organised” urban environment. The new part of the city is characterised by its anonymous, characterless architecture with no cultural hinterland.

The basic structure lost the value of rational relationships in subsequent “deformations”. This was aggravated by the City of Turin building code, which did not allow buildings more than 30 meters tall. Development was thus characterised by buildings of a standard height and the commonplace style described earlier. The only exception is to be found in the tree-lined avenues, although many of those linking the Savoy residences and villas around Turin no longer exist.

In order to assess the environmental quality of urban development along Corso Francia, we must also consider the urban context, with specific reference to the particular form of suburban development. Turin differs from other cities that have developed in flat areas and only have two land dimensions: Turin is surrounded by hills and mountains that are visible from the city streets. The city and its metropolitan area, rather than being part of the plain, are part of the hills and mountains that characterise Turin’s skyline.

As the city (and the municipalities that border on or use Corso Francia) expanded, it swallowed up the few remaining agricultural areas. Immediately after the Second World War, the population of Rivoli, Collegno and Grugliasco numbered just a few thousand. It now numbers approximately 140,000. The majority of new residential, industrial and commercial buildings and facilities were constructed along Corso Francia. New facilities already exist or are planned in the municipalities to the west of the city, in addition to existing residential, industrial and tertiary structures:

- the European University and the Museum of Man at the Charterhouse in Collegno
- extension of the Museum of Contemporary Art in Rivoli Castle
- a new university campus in Grugliasco.

From maps drawn in 1923, it is clear that Corso Francia was an extra-urban, rather than urban road. The following map is more recent. It shows how the various areas have been used and how the entire length of the road is now built-up. Different colours are used to represent the different uses. Residential areas are shown in red, public facilities are shown in grey, industrial areas are shown in purple and commercial areas are shown in green. If we study the map drawn in 1820, shown earlier, and superimpose the built-up areas, the city’s development along Corso Francia over the last two centuries is seen clearly.

6. The concept of “extended city”

The boundaries of this city spread around Turin, not only to the west, continue to expand. The development of virtual forms of communication (information technology, communications technology) has consolidated, rather than hindered, this process. This land extension does not conform to administrative land boundaries. Corso Francia is a typical example of this.

In future we may well be confronted with a “city – region” or broader, cross-border relations, due to the area’s proximity with France. Such variable relationships and the profound repercussions these may have on the provincial population and institutional policies must be the subject of detailed studies. To the west, and in the entire metropolitan area of Turin, a number of important, innovative opportunities go hand in hand with significant differences, contradictions and functional restrictions, an almost total lack of environmental conservation policies, infrastructure and land preservation.

Pollution in densely populated areas has reached alarming levels. Emissions and waste have harmed the environment; area and primary resources (water, air and land). Suburbs that developed without noting the characteristics of the land and area have often resulted in environmental destruction, increasing risks of soil erosion and flooding.

In congested areas, like everywhere else in the province, the lack of infrastructure and facilities for community life, industry and the tertiary sector has reduced the potential for economic, social and cultural development and made the area less attractive to outside investors. This functional inadequacy in Turin and the surrounding areas is even more evident if we consider the province as a whole. What should be an “extended city” is really still a “scattered city” that lacks organisation. Failure to implement coordinated policies on important environmental issues such as the supply of drinking water or urban waste disposal facilities are two critical examples of the inadequacy of programming and planning policies over recent years.

7. The ring motorway: the new “city walls”

The city ring motorway system was developed in the 70s. Built in the form of an open ring, or “C”, it surrounds the city on all sides except towards the hills. This new road network revolutionised private transport. It also formed a sort of new city wall within which the city developed. The number of vehicles that use the ring motorway every day is far higher than originally expected. This traffic is a significant source of acoustic and atmospheric pollution in the surrounding areas.

The slip roads have become new gateways to the city, through which people enter and leave the ring motorway (and thus the City). They have replaced the “historic gates” to become new reference points that are included on all road maps. New shopping centres (hypermarkets), sports facilities (stadiums), leisure facilities (multiplexes) and hotels are built in the vicinity of these new, easily accessible gates, on the few remaining areas of unused land or by replacing old buildings. These slip roads have even become meeting points (… we can meet at the Borgaro slip road). Places along the route of the ring motorway have been given new names.

The ring motorway crosses Corso Francia and the fly-over blocks the view of Superga and Rivoli Castle. The railway that connects Turin with the Susa Valley and France also crosses Corso Francia.

8. Corso Francia as an arterial urban highway

Every day approximately 350,000 vehicles enter and leave the city of Turin. In spite of the ring motorway, Corso Francia is still an important route used by private vehicles travelling to and from Turin, particularly from the west. Data regarding road traffic, inferred from the Urban Traffic and Mobility Plan approved by the Municipality of Turin in 2001, clearly demonstrate this function.

According to the aforesaid Plan (data for 2000), on average:

- 24,552 vehicles enter Turin
- 21,892 vehicles leave Turin

every day via the section of Corso Francia that lies within the City of Turin.

On the basis of this information, Corso Francia is the busiest access route to the City of Turin. It is slightly busier than Corso Regina Margherita, which leads directly to the city ring motorway network.
9. Plans for urban development in the City of Turin

In 1995 the Piedmont Region approved the new Master Plan (M.P.) for the City of Turin. The new M.P. defined a series of reforms that are extremely innovative in terms of land planning and development and will radically change the lives of the inhabitants of Turin. The previous M.P. dates back to 1959.

Certainly the most innovative element, which will affect people’s lifestyles and public and private transport, is the “passing railway”, a sort of “underground rail link”, on which work is already underway. This project, which was designed and implemented in cooperation with the Italian State Railways, consists in quadrupling the lines that run through the city, then covering the entire link and creating new avenues. The most important of these avenues, called the “Spina Centrale”, is a new, wide tree-lined avenue that provides a link with the rest of the city’s road network.

Twelve kilometres, almost 300 hectares, will thus be made available to develop new infrastructure (roads, parks, car-parks) for the city’s inhabitants. The “passing railway” will create a new extensive rail network, used by long-distance and local trains to cross the city centre.

The M.P. also defines three “urban centres”, i.e. three new zones that will constitute foci for work, shopping and leisure, in addition to the existing functions of the historic centre. The first of these is the “Spina centrale”, which will become the focus for public services. The second is the axis along the river Po which will become the focus for leisure, entertainment and relaxation. The third is the Corso Marzio axis, which will become a focus for metropolitan activities. The latter crosses Corso Francia, between the municipalities of Turin and Collegno.

10. The new underground railway

Line 1 of the new Turin Underground Railway, that will link Rivoli - Cascine Vica - Collegno - Torino Porta Susa - Torino Porta Nuova - Torino Lingotto, will also alter the habits and lifestyles of the inhabitants of Turin, especially those who live along the Corso Francia artery. The underground railway will be built in sections. The first section should be operational by the beginning of 2006, when Turin will host the next Winter Olympic Games.

The Turin underground railway will make use of the automated VAL system (Light Automatic Vehicle). The system, designed and developed by the French company, Matra Transport, features state-of-the-art automation and has been used successfully for more than 30 years in the field of urban transport. VAL technology is one of the most tried and tested underground railway systems in terms of safety, reliability, performance and low cost. It also allows for the use of reduced-diameter tunnels compared to traditional underground railways.

The line from Collegno to Porta Nuova, Turin’s main railway station, runs for approximately 9,600 meters through a blind tunnel. There will be 15 stations along the line, 12 of these will be standard stations and 3 will be “specials”:
Porta Susa station, for connections with the main-line station and the underground rail link, Porta Nuova, for connections with the main-line station and line 4 of the underground railway (which will be built in the future), and Fermi station. The positions of the stations have been designed by bearing in mind future plans for new road subways, drawn up by the Municipality of Turin, and the Turin underground rail link.

Line 1 will be extended by approximately 4,500 m to Lingotto. All of this section will be underground and bring the total distance covered by Line 1 to approximately 14,100 m. The project will upgrade public transport along one of the most important arteries.

In addition to the 15 stations between Collegno and Porta Nuova, 7 more will be built between Porta Nuova and Lingotto. Another 3,600 m extension is planned to the west. This section will also be underground and will run through the municipalities of Collegno and Rivoli along Corso Francia. There will be 4 stations between Fermi and Cascine Vica: Pastrengo, XXIV Maggio, Leumann, Cascine Vica.

The stations along Corso Francia, corresponding to a number of important squares (Piazza Massaua, Piazza Rivoli, Piazza Bernini), will provide an opportunity to redesign part of the city. In that connection, the City of Turin has called for bids to upgrade the squares concerned and also plans to upgrade tree layout and the urban design of parks and gardens.

11. Plans to upgrade the entire Corso Francia artery

As work moves ahead on building the underground railway, the overlying areas must also be redesigned. In this connection, the Province is conducting a unit feasibility study. This involves a detailed historical study of building work and modifications along the land axis of Corso Francia in order to define future characteristics in terms of urbanisation, the environment, landscape and the road network with a view to upgrading all the areas along Corso Francia.

In particular, the study must assess the feasibility of technical options, transport networks, layout of parks and gardens and urban design, relations with underground line work-sites, technical-administrative feasibility, time-scales, economic feasibility, including the definition of possible sources of European, national and local funding, and the potential involvement of private operators.

12. Targets and expectations

The project aims to bring requirements in terms of mobility and transport (public and private) in line with the need to use the areas along the route of the infrastructure. This involves:

- moving traffic away from residential areas and pedestrian areas;
• reducing acoustic and atmospheric pollution;
• reducing risks in connection with intense use of private transport;
• providing new opportunities for transformation and suburban development aimed at upgrading the areas concerned.

The project comprises a number of proposals based on specific guidelines as regards the main characteristics for designing the road, including:

• shape and structure of the “standard” section;
• studies and solutions for crossings;
• type and design of pedestrian areas;
• pedestrian crossings;
• cycle paths;
• car parks.

Town-planning appraisals should include the following:

• surveys and descriptions of existing structures, main sections, mapping of green spaces, urban design and car parks;
• mapping of public and private usage that affect Corso Francia;
• historical research and analysis of the urbanisation process;
• architectural assets;
• mobility studies, with expected traffic levels in Corso Francia up to 2006;
• description of underground infrastructure and interference by utility installations;
• description of the land framework, the resulting landscape, views to be safeguarded;
• urban and sector planning, program framework for public works.

13. Initial planning proposals

As regards the section of Corso Francia within the City of Turin, one of the first proposals put forward is to transform the secondary roads that run parallel to the avenues, used by private vehicles, into pedestrian areas and car parks for use by residents. This would ensure a more marked separation of residential and mobility functions. This proposal also includes the elimination of the two-way tram lines that run along part of Corso Francia.

Another proposal consists in eliminating the connection between Corso Francia and the ring motorway network, in order to reduce the amount of extra-urban traffic. Within the framework of the local Urban Traffic Plan, Rivoli town council assessed the feasibility of redesigning the entire width of Corso Francia, by reducing the number of lanes, increasing the number of trees and adding continuous cycle and pedestrian paths.

Similar studies have been carried out by the Collegno town council within the framework of the local Master Plan.

The two towns have also conducted preliminary technical appraisals to check the compatibility and consistency of their plans and proposals, and the consistency of these with metropolitan and provincial plans.

14. Conclusions

The “Strategic Project of Corso Francia” is clearly one of the most complicated and important projects that the Province will have to tackle over the next few years. The difficulties involved in coordinating different public administrations, public and private ownership rights, the public transport system, the overall extent of the work involved (Corso Francia covers an area of many square hectares) and obtaining the necessary funds represent just some aspects of the problem.
Conclusions of the Conference Workshops

Alastair WYLLIE Joint Rapporteur General

Yesterday evening the METREX Secretariat met with the rapporteurs and chairs of all the workshops to feedback our impressions and findings from the day, and it has fallen to me to collate these points and to present them to you. For each workshop I have tried to derive three aspects that were common to each of the casestudies presented in the workshop, and by way of a brief word of explanation, present them to you as aspects which the rapporteurs felt may need to be borne in mind when considering these issues.

Inevitably, there will be gaps and misrepresentations, and since I myself could only be in one of the workshops at any one time, you will find that my observations on the two workshops that I attended are more detailed than the comments I have gleaned from the rapporteurs and chairs of the two workshops that I did not attend. However, given such circumstances, I know that I can count on all of the rapporteurs and chairs to amplify or correct any mistakes that I have made, and I do hope that you will all take that opportunity as well when we invite your further observations at the end of my presentation.

WORKSHOP 2
Urban migration and social sustainability
Including issues of housing need and provision and community development

Unfortunately, owing to the indisposition of Prof. José Tenedorio, we had no casestudy from Lisbon, but we did hear two examples of different approaches to city development and long-term planning from Sofia and Veneto in Workshop 2, which was chaired by Avghi Markopoulou of Athens, and reported by Katarzyna Iwasko-Nizialkowska from Wroclaw.

Need for long-term sustainable balanced development not just at the city level, but at the level of the city-region

In both casestudies we heard that a significant number of people have been unable to satisfy their economic and social needs and aspirations within Sofia and Venice, and have moved to settlements outside the metropolitan area. This is despite the fact that the search for better employment opportunities, better quality and affordable housing, and better access to social, educational and cultural amenities is usually the driving force behind inward migration to cities.

The development potential of the wider city-region is an integral part of a city’s attractiveness, and all the more so if that city is a national capital with an additional concentration of multilevel public administration functions, foreign businesses and representations, educational and cultural institutions, and under pressure to develop and sustain a competitive advantage within national, transnational, European and global markets.

The need for urban issues to be addressed in greater collaboration with regional authorities was also expressed strongly by the Amsterdam casestudy in Workshop 4.

Need for scenarios regarding future migration and city expansion

Sofia outlined its demographic forecast for future migration flows, and its projected labour market requirements and expectations, based on current and projected growth models. An aspect of their projection is based on the numbers of Bulgarian emigrants who might return to Sofia in the period after Bulgaria’s accession to the European Union. The need to persuade emigrants to come back home was also a feature of the casestudy from Stuttgart in Workshop 4.

It is interesting to consider this expectation that a significant number of those who have already gone somewhere else in search of something better will return to address the immediate need for skilled labour, and in time to regenerate the city’s economic potential, in the light of the advice from our speaker from DG REGIO, Wolfgang Petzold, who said that much of the accession-related migration within the wider EU had already taken place.

Competitive advantage and attractiveness are also requirements for investment by individuals and their families.

Need for inward investment to benefit the overall quality of life

We heard from Veneto of its plans to address the opportunities and threats posed by migration flows within its region through a series of seven development projects that have been planned as an integrated cross-sectoral programme that will improve the social, environmental and economic quality of life across the regional corridor from Padova to Mestre:

- Development of the airport
- the creation of a science and technology park from former derelict and polluted land
- heritage site and environmental upgrading
- creation of an educational, cultural and recreational campus of the arts
- a fashion city with its fashion museum, centre for design and new conference facility
- improvements to the industrial zone in Padova, and
- the construction of exhibition and trade fair facilities
all of these innovative projects are addressing the need to be equally attractive and competitive to citizens, visitors and inward investors.

WORKSHOP 3
Urban deprivation
Including issues of urban renewal and regeneration priorities and action

In Workshop 3 we heard three casestudy presentations from Warsaw, Thessaloniki and Napoli. The Workshop was chaired by Theo Eikenbroek of Rotterdam, and was reported by Inguss Vircavs from Riga.

Both Warsaw and Thessaloniki presented casestudies based on projects to arrest further urban environmental deterioration in order to begin the process of social recovery, and Napoli presented an overview of its integrated strategic plan to address social issues.

The alleviation of social degradation needs to be the prime purpose of urban renewal and regeneration

In Thessaloniki’s case the proximity of residential areas to industry, wholesale commerce and the port, the ever-increasing heavy traffic and pollution, and the lack of social and cultural infrastructure led to the social exclusion of the western neighbourhoods and an area in crisis.

In Warsaw, the upgrading and revitalising of the pre-fab concrete-panel tower blocks, build under the communist administration, is intended to prevent their further decline into second-class housing and the social segregation of its inhabitants.

Need for integrated mechanisms to promote self-sustaining social integration and inclusion

Disadvantaged groups need support for their social integration beyond the upgrading of their urban environment, housing and physical community infrastructure. In addition to measures to control traffic pollution and undertake environmental improvements, the Thessaloniki casestudy highlighted a range of integrated measures for occupational training and support, drugs information and rehabilitation, health and safety, and community capacity-building and development.

Need for public involvement throughout

Perhaps the greatest benefit of all planning comes from participating in it. Certainly, all of the projects and initiatives in each of the casestudies presented in this Workshop depend on meaningful engagement with local citizens for their co-creation and joint implementation.

WORKSHOP 4
Economic inclusion
Including issues of education, skills and economic development

In Workshop 4 we heard from Stuttgart, Birmingham and Amsterdam, in place of Bilbao. The Workshop was chaired by Tamás Gordos of Budapest, and reported by Marcin Lewinski of Szczecin.

The improvement of (all) citizens’ personal prosperity and quality of life needs to be the prime purpose of economic restructuring and development

Birmingham told us of its need to restructure its economy in the wake of the downturn in manufacturing in the 1970’s and 80’s that resulted in massive loss of jobs, very high youth unemployment and year-on-year decline in population. Its strategy to:

Diversify into the service sector
Modernise its industrial base, and
Realise the full social, cultural and recreational potential of the city centre

has had a regard not only to create new sources of employment to replace those that were lost, but also to benefit those in greatest need. Training, reskilling, modernising the transport infrastructure to ensure fairer access to job opportunities, and area-based regeneration has implemented a commitment to focus integrated public resources and action on the most deprived areas.

Despite this commitment, there is still an issue about how accessible and equitable the benefits of economic recovery have been when one third of Birmingham’s residents still live in areas which are among the 10% of the most deprived communities in the UK, and contain a disproportionately high number of the city’s black and ethnic minority residents.

This is an issue in common with Amsterdam which has halved its unemployment rate in recent years, but it is still double the national average and has a high percentage of ethnic minority residents. Many of the unemployed do not match the employment opportunities available, and Amsterdam’s socio-economic approach tries to bridge that gap through training and support measures — such as childcare and debt counselling — as well as direct intervention in the job market by providing salary grants to employers, and the city council hiring unemployed workers in order to second them to work for private enterprises. Work experience, even if voluntary, increases the individual’s economic viability as well as the city’s.
Stuttgart, also, has a similar strategy to combat the exclusion of 20% of its working population who have no vocational education and are unable to benefit from the increasing requirement for skilled and articulate labour. Their mentoring programme for women increases the confidence, skills and employability of individuals while motivating companies to support basic literacy and numeracy learning from within their own workforce.

**Neighbourhoods and networks need support to flourish**

Birmingham’s concept of ‘Flourishing Neighbourhoods’ acknowledges that the city is not a single entity but a collective of separate neighbourhoods with their own needs and abilities to contribute to overall city prosperity and to share in its benefits through locally accessible shops, services and employment. Birmingham has decentralised control over some aspects of service delivery and regeneration budgets to neighbourhood residents. Supporting neighbourhoods to flourish goes beyond engagement and involvement into participation and empowerment, and Birmingham’s evidence is that we are unlikely to be successful in tackling the problems of economic inclusion without such active participation by communities to develop their own solutions at the local level.

To combat the threat of lower profits and excess capacity at the hands of car manufacturers who can buy in global markets, Stuttgart is supporting a regional network of suppliers to the automotive industry in order to maintain regional competitiveness — a clear example of the advantages of complementarity over divisive competition.

**Cities and citizens need to diversify**

I’ve already mentioned Birmingham’s diversification strategy into a service sector that now accounts for 40% of the UK’s conference and exhibition trade with the resulting benefits from urban tourism, but we heard further examples of innovation and diversification from Stuttgart which has a strategy to move from an automotive region to a mobility region — a service and knowledge-based economy that can offer knowledge and know-how on transportation and communications, settlement and housing policy, and the requirements of greater mobility across the European Union as it prepares for enlargement.

Stuttgart is also promoting a ‘Renaissance of experience’ — with higher numbers of older workers than the national average, it believes that it can gain a competitive advantage by supporting the lifelong learning of older workers to realise their greater potential.

**WORKSHOP 5**

**Inclusive accessibility**

Including issues of urban form and public transport

Workshop 5’s casestudies were from the Land Management Unit of the Institute for Environment and Sustainability, which is part of the European Commission DG Joint Research Centre, and from Glasgow and the Clyde Valley, and from Torino. The Workshop was chaired by Claus Pedersen from the Øresund Committee, and reported by Milan Turba of Prague.

**Need for an integrated spatial strategy to relate accessibility issues to social, economic and environmental cause and effect**

The Glasgow and the Clyde Valley casestudy outlined the main social issues addressed by its strategic plan — unemployment, health, the environment and multiple deprivation; life circumstances which are further aggravated by access to transportation, the key driver of social polarisation — it can take up to three times longer to travel by public transport from some peripheral housing estates into the city centre than it would take if you went by car — rising crime, low educational attainment, poor housing quality and low incomes. Such multiple deprivation is a very significant barrier to jobs, services and amenities.

**Need for realistic, quality projects with guaranteed partnership commitment and funding**

Torino presented a casestudy on a project to build the city’s first metro line below the Corso Francia, the road which runs in a totally straight line through Torino to link urban areas in three separate municipalities. Not only will the project address Torino’s accessibility issues, but cuts in traffic congestion and air and noise pollution, and urban improvements and new development opportunities will follow on. This is a partnership project involving Torino and its two neighbouring municipalities, and has joint public and private finance.

**Need for good instruments to monitor, analyse and assess results to improve future activity**

The casestudy from the European Commission presented a pilot project entitled MOLAND, Monitoring Land Use, the aim of which is to measure the extent of urban areas and regional developments, as well as their progress towards sustainable development. Access to green areas is an important indicator of urban sustainability and quality of life, and MOLAND has studied and measured such accessibility and availability in selected European cities in order to support the European Common Indicators Initiative. In addition to accessibility studies, MOLAND can be used for analysing and simulating the impact of different planning options and scenarios on various urban features linked to landuse (such as urban sprawl), transportation and demography from the point of view of sustainable development.

Finally, it would seem that at least three findings are common to all of the Workshop case studies that we heard yesterday:

**Need for meaningful stakeholder engagement**
in order to involve communities in the development of their own solutions

Need for effective cross-sectoral partnerships

for the integrated delivery of public services

Need for the prosperity, health and wellbeing and inclusive social cohesion of citizens to be at the heart of all our policies and practice.