

ATTREG

The Attractiveness of European regions and cities for residents and visitors

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This report presents a more detailed overview of the analytical approach to be applied by the project. This Applied Research Project is conducted within the framework of the ESPON 2013 Programme, partly financed by the European Regional Development Fund.

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1 More detailed overview of the analytical approach to be applied

The objective of this project is to investigate territorial attractiveness and its spatial dynamics. It will set out ways by which the concept of comparative territorial attractiveness both can be described, modelled, understood and used by regional policymakers. In achieving this, the concept can be better integrated into the spatial planning toolbox. Better conceptualisation and measurement of territorial attraction will contribute insights into how the ESPON programme (as well as a wider range of European Union policy documents) can help build a more competitive *and* cohesive Europe following from the ESDP that preceded it.

According to important streams of the regional economics and geographic literature (illustrated further), 'territorial attractiveness' can be conceptualised as a quality of regions and cities that in many ways is a precondition for sustainable local development. It can be defined, and to some extent measured, both as the capacity to attract new residents (or migrants), visitors, footloose entrepreneurial activity and investment and to retain (and potentially develop) these mobile communities and assets.

This project focuses on the flows of people (as migrants and visitors) between places and the changes resulting from such flows in places (such as the net changes in population) as well as the things that are thought to make places attractive to prospective visitors and residents. It is not uninterested in the attraction of economic activity and financial capital, but on one hand it assumes that this phenomenon is already addressed by other ESPON projects (such as 1.1.1 and 3.2); on the other, it seeks to integrate the 'human mobility dimension' into the study of endogenous economic development processes. This is especially important given the likely impacts of projected migration patterns over the coming decades (see results of DEMIFER project).

We conceive attractiveness as a characteristic of regions (ranging from rural regions to metropolitan, city-based ones) that varies spatially according to its component natural and environmental, social, cultural and economic (endowment) factors. It has four important characteristics, which determine to a large extent the various dimensions that need to be analysed for the full comprehension of its effects:

1. History matters: attractiveness may accumulate to its territory over time (as a path-dependent process/set of processes) that can be plausibly associated with the 'viscous' character of human mobility.
2. Attractiveness is likely to produce spatial externalities (or overspill effects – both positive and negative) where the attractiveness of any given territory is likely to impact on those that surround it.
3. Attractiveness is a dynamic concept, albeit bounded by path dependency and spatial inter-dependence. Thus whereas attractiveness of a place is influenced by history and by the attractiveness of neighbouring areas, regions that are attractive at a given moment and under a set of given exogenous or endogenous circumstances to a particular group (such as short term visitors), may not be such when these conditions change. Attractiveness can change as a result of policy choices taken either within the territory or at a wider spatial scale – there is the possibility of institutional agency.
4. Finally, attractiveness is not an 'absolute' quality of territories, but rather a relative factor of spatial differentiation. Thus a given territory can become more attractive not only because it has acquired more endowment factors but because other territories have lost some of their endowment factors.

Attractiveness can thus be conceived as the complex result of interactions between geographical attributes and a set of factors (themselves, possibly, the result of dynamic processes) that are set in a historic (path dependent) trajectory. The investigation on territorial attractiveness needs to be founded in a conceptual ‘model’ that links the three main components of this complex interaction (see Figure 1):

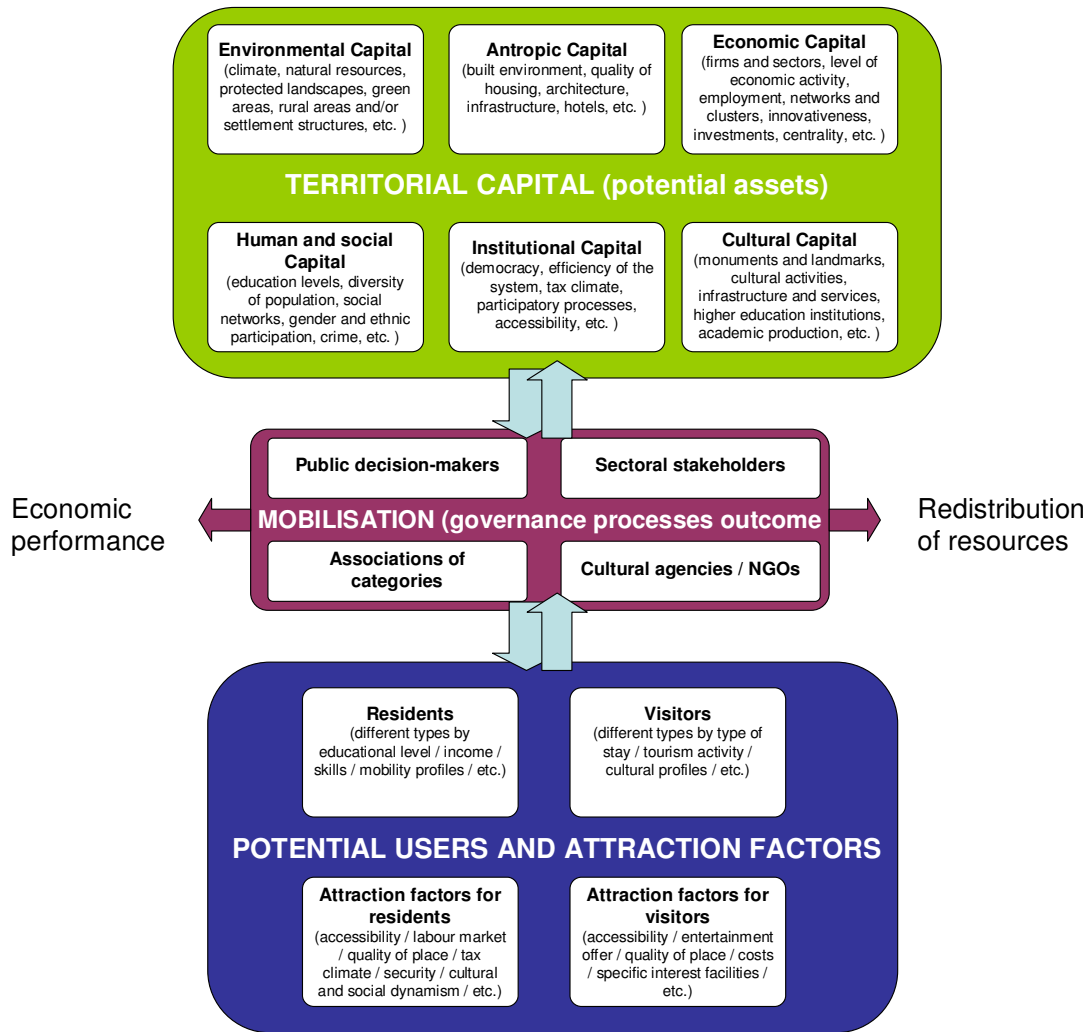


Fig. 1 - Process aspects linking territorial capital to its users

- A set of ‘audiences’ (either targeted explicitly or defined in terms of their mobility characteristics) that can be attracted and for which there is a menu of expectations, each with a different profile in terms of the development processes that it is expected to engender locally and in surrounding areas;
- A set of ‘endowment’ factors or territorial assets that potentially determine attractiveness (conceptualised as territorial capital) in either a general sense or to one particular audience;
- A set of processes by which territorial assets may be mobilised to enhance attractiveness either for all or for a specific ‘audience’.

The first challenge of this project is therefore to define such 'audiences'. Although recognising the importance of a basic bipartition between tourists and residents that is highlighted in the title of this project, our project will articulate further the research into mobility and migrations, hinting at the increasing 'liquidity' of such boundaries, as argued by John Urry in some of his recent works¹. Different actors may be attracted to a city or region, for different reasons and according to varying patterns of 'transience'. Patterns of differential mobility overlap and intersect locally, defining, among other things, the structure of the local socio-economic environment and the position of cities and regions as nodes in the global web of flows. The most obvious combinations, as recalled above, is the classic distinction between 'residents' and 'visitors', which is also reflected in the title of this project. However the consideration of various theoretical fields (the neoclassical economic theory, migration system theory, new economic geography, the 'territorial capital' literature, and tourism studies) that discuss different 'push and pull' factors behind migrations and mobilities, and their regional impacts, leads us to develop this distinction further to include more 'audiences'.

A convenient compromise between complexity and pragmatism (for instance regarding the availability of data) is to reduce this range of mobilities into four main blocks characterised by given combinations of 'push/pull' factors for moving into a certain area (based on considerations that are illustrated in further detail in the literature review of Annex D). Consultation over this method within the TPG has produced four tentative 'blocks' of audiences:

- A. **Highly qualified workers / creative class.** This block characterises migrants that are more likely to be sensitive to quality of place and economic conditions in their choice of work/residence locations. Though the literature on the creative class (mostly cited works by Florida) focuses on a group that only accounts for a small share of the workforce (maximum 15% at a NUTS 2 level in ESPON 1.3.3) we also extend this category to include such groups as top professionals and the upper sectors of the labour market, characterised by a high mobility driven by 'place-specific' factors.
- B. **Labour mobility in a more general sense concentrating on unskilled labour.** The mobility of this block of 'new residents' is largely driven by neoclassical considerations of labour market structures and wages, plus considerations of local governance and human capital factors (low skilled immigrants especially from developing regions are likely to flow where there is more tolerance and openness to immigrations and where larger pools of migrant workforce is already settled), as well as 'push' factors regarding economic and personal freedom conditions in origin countries.
- C. **Traditional mass tourists.** This category of tourists are likely to be more sensitive to climate and price considerations, but also to the existence of an economic structure capable of dealing with mass tourism and acceptable levels of 'safety' in destinations.
- D. **New forms of tourism.** For the newer generation of special interest tourists (including 'liquid' categories of travellers, such as foreign exchange students and neo-bohemians²) there might be more flexibility in the choice of destinations, whose drivers are more likely to be found in a wide range of environmental, antropoc, social and cultural capital assets.

¹ Urry J. (2007). *Mobilities*. Cambridge: Polity.

² Quaglieri Domínguez, A. and A.P. Russo (2010), "Paisajes urbanos en la época post-turística. Propuesta de un marco analítico". *Scripta Nova. Revista Electrónica de Geografía y Ciencias Sociales*. vol. XIV, nº 323 [<http://www.ub.es/geocrit/sn/sn-323.htm>]

Migration, education, workforce and tourism data in the ESPON database and the other cited sources may be manipulated in order to specify the magnitude of flows of these four audiences in (and out of) European regions. Tourism movement related to group C and D, for instance, may be the object of an approximation based on a number of indicators, like length of stay, expenditure, accommodation class, or the fact of arranging their reserves through travel agencies or independently³. However, these categories may have to be revised after the ‘reality check’ described below. It is certain that we will be able to measure net changes in resident populations and net migration rates for the period 2000-07. However, we wish to establish whether we can find evidence and/or model flows implying an origin and a destination between different areas in the European Union (and from without).

The second foundational step of our project is to identify the territorial asset classes (or ‘dimensions of territorial capital’), that relate specifically to this variety of territorial users. The various literatures addressing each of these mobile audiences identify specific qualities of place that they are responsive to (some of which are identified in Figure 1 as ‘menus’). Whereas ‘traditional’ forms of mobility are strongly dependent on neoclassical variables like wages, prices, accessibility, and employment rates, and demographic variables like the age structure of the population⁴, in this project we place a particular emphasis on those aspects of mobility that are more related with the ‘new geographic’ literature concerned with place qualities and territorial capital assets; aspects that are more problematic both to define and to assess, but which may result in an important contribution to the understanding of European mobility and regional development processes.

We thus consider that endowments (and their changes over time) of six different ‘forms’ of territorial capital (environmental, antropic, economic, institutional, socio-cultural and human) can relate to different forms of mobility and migrations. They relate to different theories of attraction and mobility that we have investigated in our literature review (Annex D), according to the relationships illustrated in Table i.

Theories of attraction and mobility Territorial asset classes	Neo-classical theories on labour migration	Systems theory on labour migration	Florida’s creative class theory	Implications of Camagni’s territorial capital	Tourism literature
Environmental			X		X
Antropic			X		
Economic	X			X	X
Social and cultural		X	X	X	X
Institutional				X	
Human	X			X	

Table i - Relationship between territorial asset classes considered in the ATTREG project and regional economics / geography theories

Each such form of territorial capital is defined through a set of variables, or their combination in indicators, which could be measured in stock and (when meaningful) in

³ According to the Eurobarometer Survey (2008) this divides into an approximate 35:65% split – (independently organised travel makes up between 44 and 85% of respondents depending on the country).

⁴ See Bogataj, M. et al. (eds) (2010) Factors, influencing investment attractiveness of regions. 3, Aging as factor, influencing attractiveness of regions. MEORL, no. 11, MEDIFAS (forthcoming).

changes over time. Some of these variables are already included in the ESPON database 2007 and in the other sources that we are considering. Again, the choice of variables and indicators to represent stocks and changes in such territorial assets will be pragmatically related to availability in the main project sources of correspondent datasets.

- **Environmental Capital (EnC).** Includes 'given' characteristics of the physical landscape as well as the result of environmental protection/regional planning actions. It can be measured by a combination of indicators related with natural resources, protected landscapes, peripherality, and settlement structures. The ESPON database includes indicators and typologies of land-cover, extent of environmental protection, peripherality/centrality, type of region, settlement typologies, to which other data could be added from other sources regarding climate (average temperature or annual precipitations, etc.), km of coasts, etc.
- **Antropic Capital (AC).** This would include man-made landscape elements, partly inherited from the past, partly the result of planning and conservation policies, which enhance the attractiveness and functionality of places for environmental and residential or tourist functions. The ESPON database includes indicators of cultural landscapes, monuments and landmarks, infrastructure, accessibility by air/rail, hotels, transport infrastructure, to which we plan to add other data on the built environment from the Urban Audit and HABITAT database as well as rankings published in specialised sources.
- **Economic Capital (Ecc).** This relates to conditions of the economic environment that induce a good business and productive climate. It could be measured by ESPON indicators of levels of economic activity (e.g. growth of p.c. GDP, diversity of sectors, labour productivity), innovation (patents, start-ups), tax climate, price structures (real estate, commodity, wages), public and private investments, centrality (being part of the pentagram, existence of MEGAs, accessibility), etc.
- **Social & Cultural Capital (SCC).** This includes assets and relational structures in the social / economic / cultural sphere that contribute to place quality and vitality, à la Florida. It could be measured by indicators in the ESPON database (and other sources like the Urban Audit database and the Eurobarometer) such as population diversity, gender and ethnic participation, crime rates, academic production, cultural infrastructure and activities, social networks and associationism, and 'quality of place' rankings such as those produced by specialised magazines or the Eurobarometer.
- **Human Capital (HC).** This reflects the characteristics of the workforce and labour market, and we keep it separated from social capital so as to distinguish problematic new geography concerns with 'soft' social structures from the 'hard' issues (embedded in neoclassical theories) on human resources and skills. This could be measured by indicators in the ESPON database such as the skills and diversity of workforce, long-term unemployment, aging, educational levels, etc.
- **Institutional Capital (IC).** This refers to governance conditions that contribute to the effectiveness and justice of social and economic processes. In the ESPON database it is reflected by variables and indicators in the 'governance' blocks of datasets, but we could also use indicators from different sources regarding democracy, efficiency of the justice system, participatory processes, etc.

The third step of our analysis will be to focus on the processes by which different dimensions of territorial capital may explain the attraction of different mobile audiences; the spatial effects related to such realised attractions; and the complex relation between audiences in determining such outcomes. This will be done by deploying statistical and cartographic techniques, to be given further detail in the next chapter. General spatial patterns will be

identified and this will yield a regional typology of 'territorial attractiveness', whose interrelation with existing regional typologies will be considered.

Within this conceptual model it is worth noting that the quality of governance features both as a territorial asset and as a mobilising process. A well established and reliable governance system of a place can be a factor of localisation, as for instance an open decisional-arena of a region/town, with participatory rules and involvement of civil society (social – institutional capital). On the other hand, *attractiveness is a concept shaping the territorial governance process itself*, in particular concerning the 'mobilization process' through which territorial assets are activated. Indeed, the model in Figure 1 also hints at the importance of mobilisation factors and strategies in attractiveness, highlighting how territorial assets may be deployed to achieve a particular outcome (or set of outcomes) relating to the attraction of key mobility audiences. In fact, the asset classes proposed in Figure 1 have varying degrees of 'plasticity', which will be investigated through in depth analysis and case study techniques.

The conceptual model in Figure 1 provides the general framework that will allow us to address the four key questions in the specification of the requirements:

- What are the key territorial endowments that are associated with attracting different mobility audiences?
- How does our measure of regional attractiveness vary spatially across the EU area and across different types of region?
- What are the likely trends in regional 'attractiveness' over the next 20-30 years?
- What are the key policy instruments that impact on regional attractiveness?
- What is the role of sectors and trends for attractive regions and cities?

More specifically, the TPG identified a number of key research questions to be addressed through statistical, comparative, cartographic and case study techniques:

1. How do different 'audiences' react to different territorial asset endowments? To what extent and how are these responses stratified spatially? What main trends and what key determinants can be observed in the relation between territorial assets and attraction of residents and visitors (of different types)?
2. How does the attraction of specific groups evolve over time? What has been the effect on the sustained capacity of regions and cities to attract other groups?
3. What is the role of mobilisation strategies and specific policies in these outcomes?
4. To what extent has attraction of different groups been a determinant of regional growth and competitiveness? Are such outcomes 'sustainable'?
5. What are the roles of different economic sectors in the enhancement of attractiveness for cities and regions? What impact do more general economic trends (e.g. the decline of traditional manufacturing or the increasing importance of services) have on regional attractiveness?
6. What is the likely development in the relation between territorial capital, attraction and competitiveness in the next 15 years under different scenarios?
7. What is the future role of policy, from the local to the pan-European level, in mobilising attraction factors so as to achieve more sustainable development throughout European regions and cities? How can 'attractiveness' be integrated into the spatial planning toolbox that is being developed by ESPON?

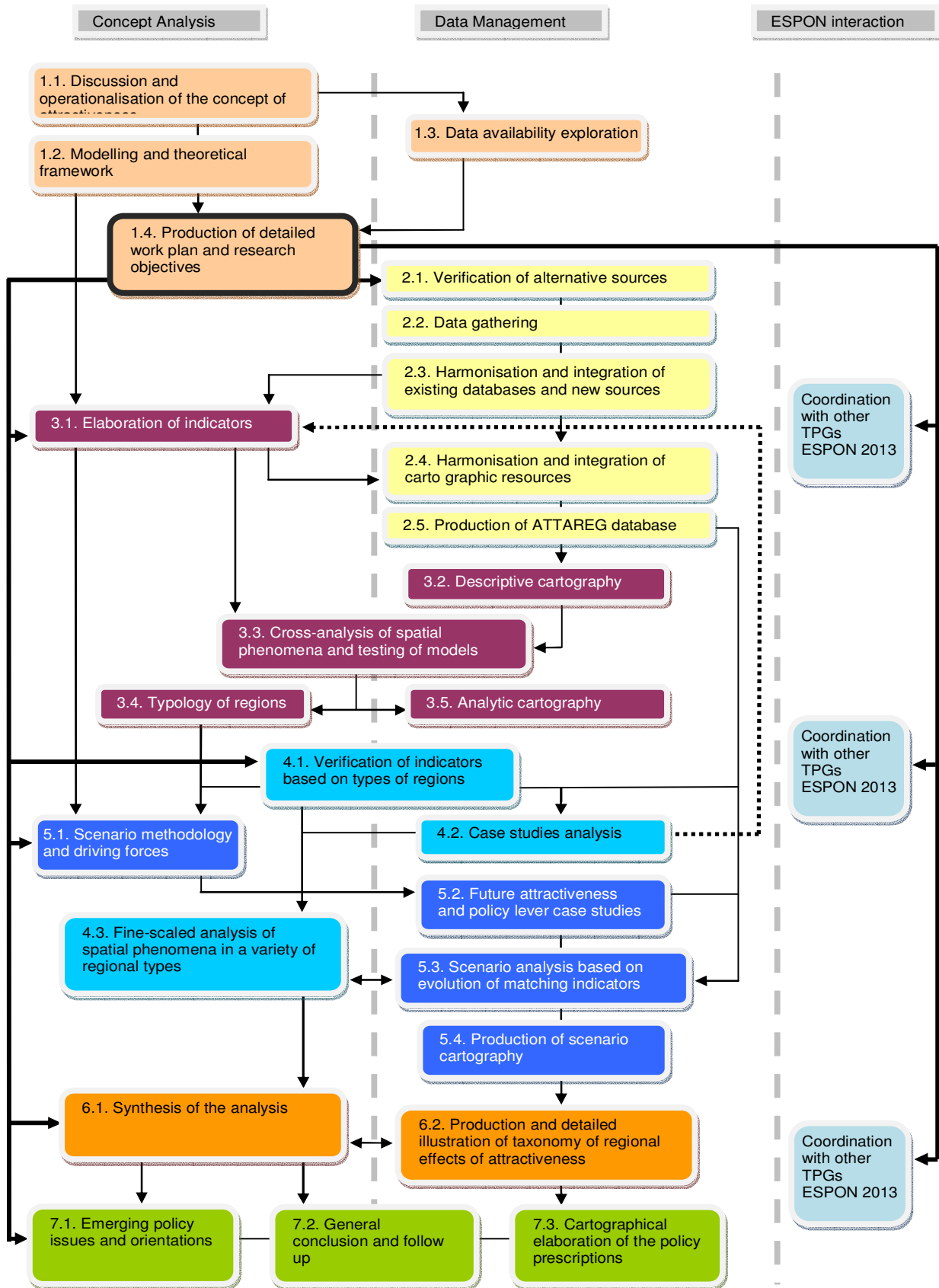


Fig. 2 - ATTREG Workflow chart: organisation of and relation between various research activities

In order to answer these questions the research work has been divided into seven bundles or – in the nomenclature adopted by this TPG – ‘Research Activities’ (RA’s) (see Figure 2), which will deploy a mix of quantitative and qualitative methods (to be given further detail in the next chapter) that both deal with the pan-European space and engage in the detailed analysis of specific places and local processes, also acknowledging the importance of co-ordinating research efforts both with other ESPON projects and with the stakeholders and ‘end users’ of this research. Each individual RA is then split into a number of simpler ‘research tasks’. Figure 2 illustrates the logical workflow sequence between the various tasks, including interrelationships and feedbacks between RAs.

The first four RAs will employ a process of conceptualisation and a theory-driven cycle of operationalisation that produces measures of attractiveness, to be validated and explored in greater detail in RA4. RA5 to RA7 generate the policy-oriented recommendations explored across the EU territory as a whole but also across time into the future.

Each RA produces intermediate outputs that are, as such, relevant for policy. These intermediate outputs are:

- the initial conceptualisation effort reflected in RA1 (and in this document), in so far as it brings together the current conventional wisdom on ‘territorial attractiveness’ in general and with respect to specific mobility audiences (as an evidence base). At the time of delivering this Inception Report, the ATTREG project has already progressed through RA1: the results in terms of research concepts, analytic framework, initial exploration of existing data sources, and work planning for the rest of the project lifespan are indeed illustrated in this Inception Report.
- the construction of a project database in RA2, which makes available a further tool for policy calibration and evaluation;
- the delivery of typologies and the verification of relationships embedded in ‘territorial attractiveness’ in RA3;
- the case study analysis of RA4, that expands our knowledge of attractiveness into ‘richer’ data (qualitative and quantitative) environments and identifies the key characteristics of the mobilising agencies and the policy instruments through which territorial assets are mobilised;
- the scenario analysis (performed both at a pan-European level and in further analytic depth at local case study scale) in RA5, reconnecting the general territorial future exploration of the ESPON programme with the dimensions of attractiveness studied in this project;
- In RA6 key information from this project related to the effects of existing policy structure and the potential role of policy are outlined
- In RA7 this analysis is translated into reflections and recommendations for future policy initiatives aiming at optimising Europe’s, and its regions’, territorial assets to secure balanced and sustainable development.

In this sense, the whole project is strongly policy-oriented but it is only in its final stages that its policy relevance will be made explicit and transmitted to the wider scientific and policy communities.

It is important to note that there are three main ‘transversal’ streams of the project. The first two, Conceptual Analysis and Data Management, are part of an integrated approach crosscutting relationships and looping between RAs. A third key stream is the Relationship

(and exchange of information) with other ESPON projects. In fact, at all stages of this research, the TPG will seek maximum interaction with other ongoing ESPON projects which address issues absolutely pertinent to ATTREG (see Ch. 4).

The ATTREG research process should thus not be seen as simply unfolding in a straightforward chronological manner: as Figure 2 illustrates, RAs overlap and reinforce one another allowing the project to build in a cumulative manner. It should be seen as an iterative process.

2 Methodology and hypothesis for further investigation

In this chapter we will describe the analytic methods used throughout the various Research Activities which constitute it.

2.1 RA1: *Setting the scene*

As indicated in Annex D, there is a vast literature relating to the attractiveness of territorial areas with the concept being applied to either regions or more specifically to urban areas. This is a literature that spans from policy literatures (produced by the CEC, OECD, UN-Habitat, or by individual member states in the EU) through to academic literatures (relating to concepts such as the creative class, clustering or location factors, mobilities and migrations, and tourism). The project has scoped this literature and located our conceptualisation within this broader literature. Embedded in this is an idea that a set of environmental and cultural assets are significant in making certain regions more attractive than others.

The principal objective of RA1 is thus to specify the concept of attractiveness in the context of this project and to design a consistent 'analytic framework', with testable hypotheses, to be used as a template for the whole project and the various analyses and classifications that will be performed during the project. The first TPG meeting of the ATTREG project, held in Venice on 8-10 April, was a starting point for RA1, laying down the essential lines of the work to follow. That discussion and its follow-up allowed the TPG to formulate a number of 'research hypothesis' to be tested in successive stages of the project (and, if invalidated, would require a revision of its conceptual and operational framework):

1. The attractiveness of places (measured as flows and net changes in population) is related to an aggregate concept of 'territorial capital' (defined in Figure 1 more generically than in Camagni 2008, for example). Different theories of attraction and mobility suggest that the mobile populations in which we are interested (visitors and migrants as our simplest distinction) do not constitute a single constituency and thus trade off and prioritise differently the various components of territorial capital (as we have defined it).
2. The quality of infrastructure, public services, environmental and cultural assets will be higher and the climate perceived as 'better' in more attractive places than less attractive ones (measured in terms of flows and positive net changes in population).
3. Regional attractiveness is influenced both by historic attractiveness and the attractiveness of surrounding regions. At higher level geographies (for example NUTS 1 areas) the spatial overspill effect of attractiveness is less important than for lower level geographies (NUTS 3 areas).

4. Although it is possible to identify stocks of territorial capital there is no necessary relationship between the presence of territorial capital and positive outcomes. This requires the intervention of what we have termed a 'mobilisation process' to realise the potential of existing assets.
5. Medium-sized cities and small towns are likely to play particular roles and are differently integrated into the national urban systems and the national economy, depending on the specificities of each country and the specific phase of development, historical and institutional background. This hints at the necessity of a reflection on scale in territorial attractiveness, addressing the significance of spatial units of analysis for this research, from the NUTS system to more sophisticated classifications such as those produced within ESPON 2006 (FUAs and MEGAs)

RA1 also involved an exploration of the available data in the ESPON database (2007 version and updates: see Ch.4) in order to practically address, measure, and analyse the phenomena discussed from the conceptual point of view, and to provide inputs for the next RA2 as far as the need to for revised or new data from different sources is concerned.

2.2 RA2: Data assemblage, evaluation and management

Building on the concepts and research hypothesis developed in RA1, the purpose of RA2 is then to relate to such concepts and theories a series of datasets that can be used to investigate the project's research questions and hypotheses. The research team understands that these datasets need to be constructed in the full knowledge of the 'Handbook for data collection' (ESPON 2006) and in particular in conformance with the '10 commandments' for data collection outlined in that handbook. In this section we outline the methodology for the identification of data sources, the selection of meaningful variables, and the testing on the quality of data.

Data sources

Our proposal is based on the premise that, for the most part, the project database will be compiled from existing datasets. There are two basic sources of secondary data that we will call upon: secondary data-sets that are available at fine grain geographies and offer comprehensive coverage of the European Union area (mainly administrative sources and derived from other ESPON projects); secondary evidence derived from surveys where there may be comprehensive coverage (for robust estimation at for example national level) but not at a fine geographic grain.

Sources for data with comprehensive and fine-grained geographies would include:

- Earlier rounds of ESPON projects 2006 as contained in the ESPON Database 2007, that include spatial typologies derived from the aggregate analysis of various indicators produced by different ESPON projects as well as more basic variables and indicators;
- Data generated in the current round of ESPON projects (dialogue between current round of ESPON projects being important to the success of the full round of projects);
- Data deriving from the Eurostat European Regional and Urban Statistics guide;
- The SIRE data-set (available at sub-NUTS 3 level) mainly derived from national Censuses;

- New data to be collected in CEC countries for variables and indicators that are already present in the ESPON database or in this project's 'integrated' database. It has been considered by this TPG that including these countries in our study would be an important addition to understand the relative position of the EU member states in terms of their capacity to attract and the consequence of further enlargement. To this end, an exploration of the existing data situation in these countries has been subcontracted to a Turkish research organisation. A preliminary scoping of data sources has provided moderately positive results for what regards CEC countries only⁵, so our project will attempt at including these countries in our dataset, leaving out other countries of the Western Balkans. Agreements with the relevant national and regional statistical bodies in CEC countries will be established in the coming months to facilitate data collection.

Sources for data based either on surveys or on more selective dealings with places would include:

- Data from the Urban Audit (rounds of data collection in 2003/04 and 2006/07);
- Information from the EUROBAROMETER surveys (such as 'Perception survey on quality of life in European cities' and 'Survey on the attitudes of Europeans towards tourism');
- Information from the European Social Attitudes survey where these relate to attitudes on mobility and social cohesion.

Variables selection

Once evaluated the various data sources, the next step in the compilation of a project database is a consultation process within the wider research team as to the relevance of variables to the agreed conceptual schema established in RA1 and illustrated in the previous section. The selection of dimensions to study and related variables derives from our interpretation of the existing literature on place, regional development, territorial assets and mobility as illustrated in the text included as Annex D. These data-sets/variables will include:

- Measures of attraction as *outcome*, such as changes in the numbers of residents and visitors classified in four blocks as detailed in the previous chapter.
- Factors of attraction or *dimensions of territorial capital*, classified in six classes, to be measured in stocks and - when relevant - in changes, possibly focusing on the last 10 years of available data.

Testing and harmonising the datasets

The next stage in the construction of the ATTREG database is the detailed assessment of the usefulness of the selected variables/indicators. An agreed detailed assessment sheet for each variable selected will be produced by internal consultation. This list of evaluative criteria will include the following issues:

- Assignment of variable to categories of 'asset', 'outcome', 'preceding round outcome' and 'context' and assessment of centrality to core concept/theories of change (based on research team consultation)

⁵ The specs for this project call for an exploration regarding data availability in the EU Candidate Countries (i.e. Croatia, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Turkey) and/or the other countries of the Western Balkans (i.e. Bosnia and Herzegovina, Serbia, Montenegro, Albania, Kosovo under UN Security Council Resolution 1244).

- Relevance score of variable to key concepts (established from research team consultation)
- Availability of variable at three spatial scales (NUTS level 2, NUTS level 3 and LUZ).
- Availability of variable as a time series (or potential for time series data).
- Level of 'missing values' in data-set.
- Behaviour of variable as a frequency distribution (i.e. level of statistical normality or skewness).

Having identified a set of variables at three different spatial levels (some of which will be 'core' variables across all spatial scales and other will be specific to one or two of the spatial scales), the next stage will be to gather the data-sets and combine them into one of three databases. This will require the team to:

- Establish data sharing agreements with data holders (where datasets are not part of the ESPON database already)
- Agree internal software protocols (i.e. to use the same software) for database construction (MS Access) and mapping (ArcView 9.3)
- Assemble the appropriate GIS reference files and tools in order to map the database in the next step of the data exploration and analysis. This implies acquiring the standard map and layout frames used in the ESPON projects (ESPO map tool kit), and establish to a successful union of the database on NUTS level 2 and level 3. The research team would be keen to assemble a third database if feasible assessing the data holding of the Urban Audit (at LUZ level – given the importance of 'urban attractiveness' as a particular feature of territorial attractiveness). The research team would expect to collate the three databases (each equating to a different territorial unit) and to establish how the three territorial hierarchies relate to each other.
- The harmonization of (raw) data for time periods (using techniques identified in the ESPON handbook for data collection)
- The harmonization of the geodatabase with the spatial reference files (NUTS-codes) is a labour intensive but important preparatory stage for the next work packages. Inconsistencies between NUTS territorial subdivisions in the statistical databases and the spatial units available in the ESPON map toolkit has proven to be a major problem in former ESPON projects, and will be more so if time series of variables/indicators will have to be constructed.

Having established a consistent set of geo-referenced data, the final two data quality tests would relate to the spatial characteristics of the data. These tests would relate to *i*) the degree of auto-correlation in variable values (measured as local Moran's I value) and *ii*) a visual inspection of descriptive maps of each variable to assess impact of national boundaries on data-values.

The result of this work will be a data base compiled in MSAccess format, to be used by the rest of the partners for subsequent stages of the project, and completed by a metadata base and written texts illustrating the sources and methods used for the completion of the data base, which will be integrated to the first (in draft format) and second intermediate reports of the project. The data base has to cover the whole European territory (NUTS 3 or regionalised NUTS 2). Subsequent integrations are possible when some data are not available in the first stance.

2.3 RA3: Data analysis

Having established a set of three 'coherent' and inter-related databases in RA2 at three different spatial levels, RA3 will address the issue of combining the variables into composite indicators and this will enable us to investigate the relationships between the variables. Ultimately the sophistication of the analysis in RA3 will be dependent upon the scope and quality of variables identified in RA2 (especially degrees of missing variables and of definitional dissonance between member-states).

It should also be recalled that the selection of the variables for inclusion within RA2 will be determined by theory-driven expectations of what attracts particular mobility audiences.

The analysis to be performed in RA3 consists of three steps, related as in the scheme of Figure 3, with the exact route to be chosen dependent upon the number of variables that survive the data assessment process.

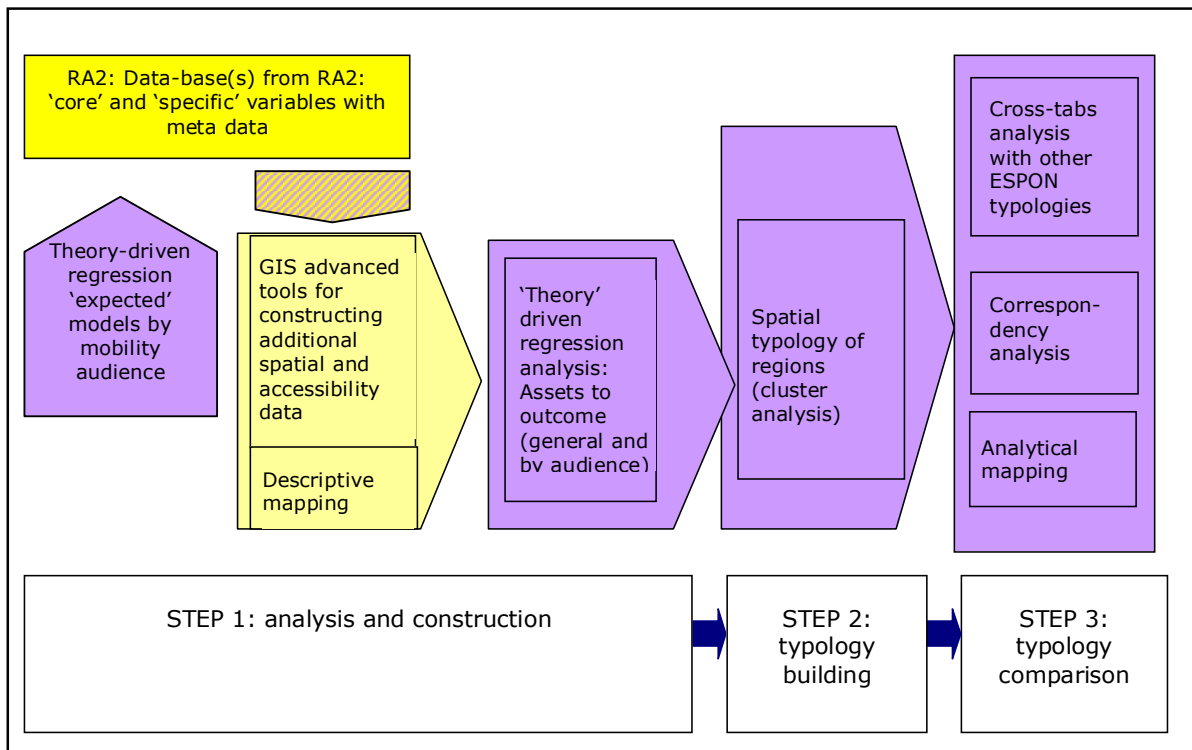


Fig. 3 - Data analysis scheme in RA3 (including interaction with RA2)

Step 1: Analyzing interrelationships and the construction of indicators

The first step of data analysis extends over a series of activities. RA3 is initiated in parallel with RA1 and 2, where a set of 'expected' assets are identified and then proxy variables identified for their measurement. This work feeds into RA2 allowing the RA2 team to prioritise data-gathering, cleaning and assessment based on these 'early models'. The early phase of RA3 may include the generation of a limited number of new variables such as accessibility matrices between individual territorial units through the use of spatial analysis tools within the GIS software (where the single value accessibility measures included in current ESPON database are not helpful in our modelling of flows). RA3 would also include the production of the descriptive maps of the basic variables (and the degree to which the variable are spatially auto-correlated within each of the three geographies).

The next step is multivariate regression analysis, which generates predictive equations of a dependent variable (such as net changes of residents or visitors) and our independent variables of attraction (the territorial assets). These models will follow the different theories of attraction and mobility (see conceptual framework). Analysis of the residuals associated with these regression functions will enable the team to explore the regions where mobilisation either has or has not appeared to have happened. This step of the analysis will need to incorporate an aspect of path dependency (requiring RA2 to gather data for more than one period of time) and of the spatially auto-correlative characteristics of the data (at the given geography).

Multivariate analysis not only provides insight into how to combine variables into composite indicators but it will also reveal the nature of the relationships between individual variables that link assets (good quality services, environment and cultural heritage), outcomes (such as population growth, visitor numbers or net migratory flows), contexts (urban-rural settlement pattern, risk of hazard, etc) and previous outcomes (assuming that variables have been associated within each of these categories of entity in RA2). This analysis might be performed between variables or between factors (where the factors are unambiguous in their interpretation). These multiple regression models will be run including allowance for spatial autocorrelation. In the same way as comparing factor solutions carried out at different spatial scales identifies the scalar sensitivity of the factor analysis, comparison of regression analysis between variables at the different spatial levels will reveal the sensitivity of the analysis to the spatial units used.

Step 2: Construction of typologies

Having identified a set of key indicators and regression models for spatial attractiveness outlined in step 1, there is a need to combine the derived variables and indicators in order to generate area typologies. This step will be informed through the results (and coefficient values) of step 1 but will work with clustering techniques that will create typologies of regions with similar characteristics. There are two potential ways to do this, with the choice of method depending on the number of significant variable retained after the regression analysis:

- Multivariate cluster analysis, where many variables are used to create groups of regions with similar bundles of characteristics.
- Bi-variate cross-tabulations on the variables (or factors pairwise) can generate sets of records (e.g. high numbers of visitors, high concentration of cultural assets, low numbers of visitors, high concentration of cultural assets, etc). Once mapped, these bi-variate typologies would generate area typologies.

Step 3: Comparison of typologies

As a final stage of RA3 we propose 3 techniques to compare and contrast different spatial typologies constructed in this ESPON project, with other typologies that are highly relevant to the concept of attractiveness and interrelated:

- Cross-tabulation analysis;
- Correspondency analysis;
- Construction of composite maps.

The indicators, typologies and their cartographic representation will provide visual and analytic insights into the different dimensions of attractiveness of European regions considered in this project as a result of RA1 with reference to:

- The regional differentiation of the ESPON space with respect to dimensions of attractiveness, with the identification of specific typologies
- The analytic representation of dimensions of attractiveness (externalities and potential for cross-regional tensions, spatial clustering, emergence of polarities, etc.)
- The spatial relationships between the indicators (dimensions of attractiveness) with spatial typologies established in former ESPON projects (e.g. Functional Urban Areas ESPON 1.1.1, typologies of accessibility, urban-rural ESPON 1.1.2, typology of migratory balances by age cohort ESPON 1.1.4)

The analytic cartography section at this stage goes beyond a descriptive cartography of singular spatial patterns. Synthetic indicators of different dimensions of attractiveness could be mapped, but also combined in a composite typology of attractiveness (e.g. making use of cluster and/or factor analysis). Furthermore, typologies of attractiveness could be combined with other spatial subdivisions (e.g. other ESPON spatial typologies), to study the interplay (synergies, conflicts) between them. However, a constant trade-off will have to be made between the dimensional richness of the maps (concerning economic, socio-cultural, environmental, aspects of attractiveness, for different user groups), and readability/clarity of cartographic representation. This cartography will be accompanied by texts providing an insight on methods used, the illustration of specific facts and emerging trends, and setting the agenda for further and more detailed research on specific issues through the use of qualitative and quantitative methods to be identified.

2.4 RA4: Detailed analysis of regional attractiveness

Having, in RA3, identified gaps in data and in our understanding of why some areas are more successful than others, despite appearing to be similar in terms of their 'factor endowments' in RA 4 we will carry out case studies at the sub-regional level to begin to fill in data gaps in situations where more detailed and richer data sources are available. In addition some of the case studies will be of a more qualitative nature to investigate what we have termed the mobilisation process, this will allow us to understand how the mobilisation of assets that attract takes place. The focus here will be on a more in-depth analysis of attractiveness and governance and policy.

The work in RA4 will primarily be directed by the typologies and gaps identified in RA3 to allow us to gain a better understanding of dissonance between the concepts developed in RA1 and the analysis in RA3. The case studies will have a regional/city-region focus where in particular sub-regions data is more readily available and can be supported through case study analysis a series of questions will guide our focus:

- Are the typologies identified in RA3 valid for practitioners/stakeholders?
- Do the relationships identified in RA3 make sense to practitioners within attractive/less attractive regions?
- Do the relationships work at smaller spatial scales?
- Do the relationships work where there are richer data-sets?

This will entail two key tasks:

1. Verification/validation of indicators based on typologies of regions developed in RA3. This will be done through case study work with stakeholders/practitioners in the different 'types' of territory/localities identified by area typology system developed in RA3. As part of this process we will also seek to understand the mobilisation process.
2. A more fine grained analysis of spatial phenomena in (around seven) regions where data homogeneity and availability allows a much more detailed exploration of the relationships established in RA3 both in terms of conceptual detail (more variables), data on flows (e.g. migration by provenance and destination) but also in finer spatial scale (e.g. sub-NUTS3 level).

The case studies will seek to empirically test the validity of relationships, typologies, indicators and models identified in RA3. Case studies will be used to validate these concepts as well as to develop new insights gained from more detailed data-sets that are currently unavailable on a (comparable) European level. To maximise the utility of information, an information-oriented case selection strategy will be used⁶. In order to increase both coverage and relevance case studies will be selected that represent the typologies identified in RA3.

A case study protocol will be developed to make sure that the various case studies are comparable.⁷ The research questions will be clearly specified allowing us to follow particular lines of inquiry by collecting and triangulating a variety of different forms of evidence. This protocol will specify among other things the objectives of the case study analysis, possible sources of data and the questions that act as guideline for data collection. Data will be collected by the various members of the research team on the indicators and determinants of attractiveness, though with more detailed information on how this relates to higher (e.g. national) and lower geographic levels (sub-NUTS3). Possible sources of data are policy reports, databases, panel discussions and interviews with key decision makers and informants in the selected regions. To improve the robustness of the case studies data will be collected from various sources and draft versions of case study reports will be sent to key informants. In addition, in order to overcome the problems of multiple case studies being carried out by multiple research teams have common orientation a topic template will be provided covering:

1. issues to be addressed
2. data to be collected, and
3. indicative guidance on the questions to be asked where interviews are used.

All of this will ensure that the different research teams will follow a similar field protocol.

If the relevant data is provided by RA2, RA4 will contain at least one case study from CEC countries in order to obtain information on processes of attraction in previously non-EU countries and examine how issues such as competitiveness and cohesion have been affected following EU accession.

Issues we expect to address in the case studies will include:

- the position of regions in larger (national or cross-border) urban systems (regarding their capacity to attract residents, companies, visitors and investors)

⁶ Flyvbjerg B. (2001). *Making social science matter: why social inquiry fails and how it can succeed again*. Cambridge University Press: Cambridge

⁷ Yin R.K. (2004). *The case study anthology*. Sage Publications, Ltd.

- internal differences in attractiveness and their impact on higher-level indicators
- differences between objective indicators and determinants of attractiveness and subjective perceptions by various groups
- expectations concerning the future development of a region's attractiveness, considering possible political, environmental, demographic and socio-cultural changes
- the interaction, and trade-offs, between different forms of attractiveness vis-à-vis different users, e.g. residents, companies and visitors

The outputs from each case study will allow the project team to critically reflect on the relevant typology (developed in RA3) – confirming the typology, adding new insights or suggesting the need for revision. The case studies will thus function as a 'testing phase' (and feedback loop) that will allow for verification/correction and further elaboration of the typologies developed in RA3. These case studies will also allow us to further investigate the extent to which the development and exploitation of assets, and the consequent generation of attractiveness, are the result of relatively unplanned market processes or of conscious government interventions of various forms.

Moreover, the case studies will provide additional insights into the 'mobilisation process' vis-à-vis the existing assets located within a particular locality which will help inform the final policy conclusions (RA7). This will be important for policymakers concerned with promoting economic development and growth in given cities and regions given that for them a key question is how the competitive advantages (including capacities for creativity) of cities and regions emerge, and how they might be enhanced by public action.

2.5 RA5: Exploring possible futures for territorial attractiveness

The last step of our analytic work is concerned with the relationships between assets and outcomes and how they may be mobilised in the future, addressing the potential trajectories and the strategies to be deployed by local and regional stakeholders. The foundation of this work will be the exploration of relationships between assets and outcomes identified in the previous RAs, including the case study work of RA4 (that concentrates on exploring the current relationships between assets and outcomes), and the results of the ESPON 3.2 project on territorial futures and its four development scenarios.

This project's contribution to scenario analysis will be their integration in a number of case study locations with particular reference to the local and regional policy conditions that might influence the mobilisation of assets that attract.

This analysis will start with a review of the ESPON 3.2 scenarios in the light of policy and contextual changes after 2006. This up-dating will be applied at the pan-European level. The research team will then need to set out a case study template/protocol that will ensure comparability across the studies. The next step will be to address the complex relationship between assets and outcomes, within a dynamic and systemic perspective, bringing to the fore structural elements of our model of territorial attractiveness that were 'embedded' in the short-term relations examined in the previous steps. We will thus target long-term processes and the forecasts for the future in the framework of a structural model of the interaction between the regional (quantity) economy and the territorial capital, also incorporating the dynamics of economic variables (consumption, jobs, prices, productivity, tourism activity, etc.).

While the final selection of case study locations will depend upon the typologies elaborated in RA3 and further analysed in RA4, as well as on the availability of complete databases for

all the model variables, it is likely that the cases will focus on issues such as peripherality, enabling the team to explore policy/trajectory issues in 'gateway locations' to the EU 'pentagon' area (such as the Barcelona and Copenhagen regions), or regional policy on the Schengen border (such as the border between Slovenia and Croatia) as well as within the European 'core' (such as Brussels). Equally the case studies will consider new accession states (such as Polish regions – either Warsaw or a rural region 'at risk' of de-population) to the EU15 area, and possibly also the situation of the new CEC countries or regions within them (for instance, Istanbul, a very large metropolitan area at the gates of the EU). These case studies will allow the research team to reflect on the differences in potentials and challenges in relation to demographic development, spatial and cultural policy, education and research, climate changes, family and integration policies, mobility and accessibility.

While quantitative analysis will allow us to identify certain possible developmental trends based upon predictable general and widely accepted tendencies of development we cannot assume that these trends will occur automatically or that they will unfold in an identical manner across the European space. Indeed, it is an underlying assumption of the research (established in RA1) that at regional/city level there is what we have termed a 'mobilisation process' which involves deliberate actions on the part of governance systems to enhance existing factors of attractiveness and develop new ones. Given this there is also a need to complement our quantitative analysis with work of a more in-depth qualitative nature. This will allow us assess how feasible local stakeholders consider predicted trajectories to be in relation to their city/region; assess how areas will react to these trajectories; gain insight on the 'mobilisation process' and policy strategies.

This TPG has already taken first steps to ensure the necessary collaboration by regional stakeholders in this activity. A 'Proposal to Italian Local Administrations to Participate as Case Studies in the ESPON-ATTREG Project on the Attractiveness of Cities and Regions in Europe' has been circulated, on initiative of the Italian ESPON National committee, inviting regional administrations to associate as 'case studies' to this project. This call, if successful, will give us the opportunity to perform an early 'reality check' on some of the main assumptions of the project regarding factors of attractiveness and mobilisation factors. We expect to involve other national ESPON committees at later stages of the project for a more comprehensive case study work tied to scenario analysis.

Once the case study work is completed the research team will then review the indicator set developed in RA3 to see the feasibility of developing indicators of future potential. The variety of possible future states will then be also represented cartographically.

2.6 RA6: Findings of the project and synthesis of territorial attractiveness

RA6 will bring together the cumulative output from previous RAs through a synthetic process. A group of partners with a strong overview of the project's development will bring down the various stages' output to a series of outcomes related to the taxonomies and developmental trends identified by the research. This will allow us to produce the detailed illustration of a taxonomy of regional effects of attractiveness in all its complexity. Cartographic representation will be a key tool, and will provide visual and analytic insights into the different aspects of attractiveness of European regions.

The process of synthesis will of course be subject to internal discussion and verification within the TPG. However, in addition advice from the advisory committee will be important at this stage in terms of validating our analysis. Moreover, we believe that at this point it may well also be useful to look for additional external validation of the products from

sources beyond the research network and including European, national and local stakeholders.

The use of this mode of feedback and verification can serve the additional important purpose of a 'reality check' that will help us incorporate the 'political and policy' dimensions into our work. This could be done using a focus group composed of up to 10 participants who would be able to provide reactions from within the policy community. Such an input will be of particular significance as it would allow us to fine tune our outputs particularly with regard to the final RA on policy implications. The general overview will provide the basis for the next RA, focused on how these relevant factors can be mobilized to enhance attractiveness.

2.7 RA7: Policy-oriented conclusions and implications

As we have noted above attractiveness is a complex and multifaceted concept, much depends upon how it is defined, the particular object of analysis addressed (e.g. the type of region) and the type of citizens targeted (e.g. high educated workers, low class labour forces, different forms of tourism, etc).

However, at this final stage, the previous RA's should have already shown another factor of complexity. As stated in the conceptual approach, the outcome of attractiveness, whatever the specific meaning(s) we take into consideration, is unlikely to precisely match the quantitative assessment of the assets of a place. A key aspect of the 'production' of attractiveness is based on the mobilization of assets and the political dimension. Two elements are important at this final stage: the public role and the associated policy of attractiveness and the differential capacities of stakeholders to mobilize assets in governance processes.

With regard to the political domain concerning the enhancement of urban and regional attractiveness the main focus will be on the possible role of the EU. The outputs from the 'analytic' stages of the ATTREG project (RA 3, 4 and 5), and their synthesis in (RA6), will be used in this final stage to evaluate the implications of territorial attractiveness, its spatial effects, its dynamics and its mobilisation vis-à-vis the main EU objectives as written down in policy documents.

A group of partners with good knowledge of the current European political and policy agendas will identify a number of policy-oriented, prescriptive conclusions linked to, and interrelating, the key ESPON issues (Gothenburg and Lisbon agendas, Territorial, Regional and Social Cohesion, Sustainable Development, etc.). In addition it will consider the project's implications for issues such as competitiveness, equity and balance and the spatial and area-based approach, with particular emphasis on the new strategy EU2020.

On this account, we will be able to either suggest new initiatives and approaches that could enhance the capacity to achieve current objectives, or propose that these should be modified. Moreover, based on our typologies (RA3), case studies (RA4) and scenario analysis (RA5), we will be able to develop more finely-tuned policy guidance related to specific types of regions and cities. This will also include a concern for the 'mobilisation' process and how this can impact upon attractiveness. In this sense we will provide a current assessment of policy, future directions for policy and more specific guidance on how to bring about positive change(s) at European, regional and city levels.

In synthesis, RA7 will:

- draw out the more overarching implications for Europe's development in terms of competitiveness, cohesion and a combination of the two, in relation to the main policy

options and trajectories included in key policy documents (especially the new strategy EU2020);

- elaborate more fine-tuned policy implications for different types of regions/cities, taking into account different motivations and objectives;
- provide cartographical presentations of the above in terms of future scenarios under different policy trajectories;
- draft a summary of our conclusions/policy implications for dissemination.

3 Review of the main literature, data sources, etc.

In this chapter we address the milestone ESPON projects to introduce key spatial typologies and operational uses of attractiveness that serve as a foundation for our project. We leave an extensive survey of the literatures considered in the stage of defining and operationalising territorial attractiveness to a separated document (Annex D). A broader discussion of the origins and development of the concept of 'territorial attractiveness' from the scientific literature is included as Annex D to this Inception Report.

Possibly the more interesting contribution regarding how to integrate the concept of territorial attractiveness in the policy toolbox of the European Union comes from the first round of ESPON projects (2000-2006) in terms of classifying cities and regions and analysing regional development as generated and enabled by sources of capital, some of them of a nature not easily captured by earlier conceptualisation because of their intangible nature, with different degrees of 'territorial embedding', and articulated in complex local processes of attraction and accumulation that give rise to what in the ESPON terminology have been called 'spatial effects'. Among these milestone projects, we mention three.

ESPON 1.1.1. 'Urban areas as nodes in a polycentric development'. This project has produced an initial regional classification which was then largely used as a reference for the rest of the programme. This classification focused on city-regions as key hubs of an urban network driving development processes in the 'new Europe'. Their main regional types are FUAs (Functional Urban Area)⁸ and MEGAs (Metropolitan European Growth Area)⁹. Two additional concepts have been coined in order to analyse the territorial context of cities and the potentials for polycentric integration based on morphological proximity: PUSH (Potential Urban Strategic Horizon, including all municipalities of which at least 10 % of the area can be reached within 45 minutes from each FUA centre by car. There are as many PUSH areas as there are FUAs. PUSH areas of neighbouring FUAs can overlap) and PIA (Potential Polycentric Integration Area, constructed by merging the PUSH areas of neighbouring cities, if the, demographically speaking, smaller one shares at least 1/3 of its PUSH area with the larger one. Each PUSH area belongs to one PIA only, the largest neighbouring city being preferred when there are multiple overlaps. Multiple tiers of integration can occur within a single PIA. Neighbouring PIAs can overlap).

The project produced three typologies:

⁸ For countries with more than 10 million inhabitants, a FUA is defined as having an urban core of at least 15,000 inhabitants and over 50,000 in total population. For smaller countries, a FUA should have an urban core of at least 15,000 inhabitants and more than 0.5% of the national population, as well as having functions of national or regional importance. 1595 FUAs with more than 20,000 inhabitants have been identified in Europe.

⁹ MEGAs correspond to FUAs with the highest average score with regard to Population, Transport, Manufacturing, Knowledge and Decision Making. 76 MEGAs have been identified in Europe.

- a typology of FUAs, in which the highest scorers were labelled MEGAs.
- a typology of MEGAs, divided into 5 categories, including a specific category for the two global nodes of London and Paris. The typology was based on the following indicators, calculated at NUTS 2 level: Mass, with two sub-indicators 'Population' and 'GDP'; Competitiveness, with two sub-indicators 'GDP per capita in PPS' and 'Location of TOP 500 European companies'; Connectivity, with two sub-indicators 'Number of passengers at airports' and 'Multimodal accessibility indicator'; Knowledge basis, with two sub-indicators 'Education level' and 'Share of employment in R&D'.
- a typology of intra-urban settlement structures, using different indicators like the Proportion of settlement areas in each PUSH area, the Number of settlement areas in each PUSH area; the Ratio between the size of the second largest and largest settlement areas, and others.

This project thus yielded a 'spatial analytic structure' which has been present in various successive projects, though per se it was affected by lack of data, and certain degree of subjectivity in categorisation whereas data were missing. It should be noted that in this first project, notions of attractiveness and, to certain degree, of 'audiences', are already present (p. 12, 23 and 102).

ESPON project 1.1.3. 'Enlargement of the European Union and the wider European Perspective as regards its Polycentric Spatial Structure'. ESPON project 1.1.3 took up the particular effects of enlargement of the European Union and the wider European perspective with regard to the polycentric development of the territory. It adopted the typology toolbox elaborated in 1.1.1 and operationalises it to study the impact of European enlargement. The polycentric spatial structure was also examined in terms of the often conflicting goals of the European Spatial Development Perspective (ESDP), particularly balanced competitiveness, and territorial cohesion. Very different methodologies are used to paint a picture of the degree of cohesion and competition on various levels in the NMACs. It thus brought the debate on polycentricism, initiated in 1.1.1, to a more practical and 'dynamic' level and then bridges analysis of the status quo and policy, that is by suggesting a spatial and temporal policy strategy that would pursue the goals of cohesion and competition.

ESPON 1.3.2. 'Territorial trends of the Management of the Natural Heritage'. Espo 1.3.2 provides an analysis of the main territorial trends of natural heritage at the EU scale. Based on a diagnosis and further analyses, a number of territorial indicators and typologies are provided, supporting the process of prioritizing for a balanced and polycentric enlarged EU territory.

The project's main research question is about the influence of the management of natural heritage on spatial development, and it has been developed according to three strands and their interrelationships: natural heritage, territorial trends, and management. Natural heritage consists of many different elements and includes both the ordinary countryside and green areas in the city, and the outstanding or exceptional elements such as natural areas, places with natural value, ecological networks, biodiversity, etc. Territorial trends refer to the different spatial dynamics, among which the phenomena affecting urban areas (growth or decline) and their sub-delimitations, but also agriculture changes, infrastructure developments, tourism, etc. Management concerns the different managements of natural areas, from day-to-day management up to higher levels where decisions are taken about the acquisition of new lands in order to extend the areas designated for their heritage value.

In order to proceed to an evaluation of these aspects, different typologies have been defined, articulated in three levels: macro, meso and micro. Threats, potentials and policy recommendations have been elaborated according to these different levels.

ESPON project 1.3.3. 'The role and spatial effects of Cultural heritage and identity'. ESPON 1.3.3 saw the participation and leadership of many partners that are also present in this project. To some extent, ATTREG is to be seen as the 'natural follow-up' to 1.3.3 in terms of presenting cultural and landscape assets (among others) as pull factors for the attraction of flows of users in regions, and studying the spatial effects that these flows determine. In spite of severe data problems, mainly related to the differences in classifying cultural assets and storing cultural data at the national and in some case even at the regional level, 1.3.3 managed to build a comprehensive database of 'cultural dimensions' indicating the distribution patterns of several sources of cultural capital: from monuments and sites to protected landscapes, events, cultural industries, infrastructure, diversity of population by nationality, cultural 'output', etc. These data have been elaborated in indicators and used to obtain typologies. Three typologies were produced:

- a taxonomy of relationships between cultural assets and tourism, producing a classification of regions in 'properly valorised', 'at risk' for the excessive tourism pressure on cultural assets, and 'under-valorised'.
- a taxonomy of 'regional specialisations' of culture reflecting the relative endowments of assets (measured by indicators) focusing on functions of culture (*conservation, production and valorisation*).
- a taxonomy of relationships between cultural assets and economic development processes that cuts across typologies 1. and 2. and typologies developed by other ESPON 2006 projects, for instance focusing on the comparison between the dimensions of the cultural sector (measured by ISCO data on cultural professions) and per capita GNP or lagging regions (as from the typology developed in 2.1.1/3.1), highlighting situations in which the development of the cultural economy has produced or is producing opportunities for economic development, and those in which economic development could be seen as 'weak' and potentially volatile for not resting on a solid base of cultural capital.

We expect to be using these typologies also in the analysis performed by ATTREG.

1.4.5. 'Preparatory Study of Spatially Relevant Aspects of Tourism'. One of the tasks of ESPON 1.4.5 was to define tourism in a way that allows measurement and comparison between regions, starting from the current UNWTO definition of tourism as 'activities of persons travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes not related to the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the place visited'.

Concerning the concept of destination, in order to allow a comparative European study, it adopted a definition of a destination as a statistical unit: 'the administrative unit corresponding to the first level of territorial disaggregation of a country in terms of its political and administrative organisation'.

The projects highlighted the importance of three main aspects, namely tourism flows, economic contributions and sustainability impacts, when studying tourism and its impacts for regional development and spatial planning. To demonstrate different ways of analysing and visualising the spatial aspects of tourism at the various NUTS levels, one simple index (the Tourism Function Index, TFI) and a composite index (the Tourism Penetration Index, TPI) were developed. These have provided with snapshots of tourism's presence and impacts in

the ESPON countries. However, the data availability can affect the effectiveness of the picture. Since regional data on tourism is very scarce, the Tourism Penetration Index remained at the national level. The TPI has been calculated at national level and based on figures for foreign visitors spending per population, average number of international visitors per 1000 population and hotel rooms per square kilometre.

ESPO project 3.2. 'Scenarios of the territorial future of Europe'. ESPON 3.2 introduced various scenarios of Europe's future development: approximately 20 thematic scenarios dealing with some of the main driving forces in 9 different thematic fields, and four 'integrated scenarios' (a baseline scenario showing the probable evolution of the European territory in a situation of no major changes (political or external); 2 prospective policy scenarios exploring the effects of EU policy: in the cohesion-oriented scenario policies are formulated with the goal of social, economic and territorial cohesion as top priority, in the competitiveness-oriented scenario the overall global competitiveness of the European economy is the major objective and policies are aligned to this objective; and finally, a proactive scenario provides an attempt at translating current policy goals into an image of how Europe should look like territorially in 2030 and outlining how this image might be reached) (p.14).

The projected futures of these scenarios (in 2030) have been constructed, among other, in terms of attractiveness (especially of metropolitan areas), the potential for tourism, retirement and international migration (all clearly processes of attraction) and also the risk of rural marginalisation (a 'push' force in migration processes). These scenarios were all developed at the Pan-European level because 'the complexity of the issues had made it impossible to deliver the same level of integrated knowledge at the [...] level of regions' (ESPON 3.2 final project report summary 2006, p. 22).

We also looked at projects that despite to coming from the ESPON programme, are contemporary to it and mostly deal with similar preoccupations.

Among these, **INTERREG III B project: Regional Polycentric Urban System (RePUS)** is a project running under the framework of the European Union Community Initiative INTERREG III B of the Central Adriatic Danubian South Eastern European Space (CADSES). The project addresses the problems of a more balanced and sustainable urban development, with the wide objective of building a Regional Polycentric Urban System (RePUS) that could contribute to strengthening an emerging Potential Economic Integrating Zone (PEIZ) in Central and Eastern Europe. Focus is given to the role of medium- and small cities, and how to create a critical mass to sustain regional development and competitiveness. In this project, an important consideration has been made on the best scale of analysis for regional development processes; bases of the fact that each individual national urban system has own specificities related to the size, population density, and urban settlement pattern, each country analysis in the RePUS project might adapt the thresholds to its own dimensions, whilst keeping in mind the comparison at the EU level. The basic spatial unit taken for data collection is then the municipality (NUTS 5, now LU 2) aggregated at the LLS (»local labour system«) level, followed by identification of FUAs.

A RePUS 'Urban Hierarchy' has been therefore achieved as a result of the ranking of LLS according to key selected indicators, with the scope of identifying the roles occupied by different urban areas within the national urban systems. The hypothesis that lies behind this statement is that medium-sized cities and small towns play particular roles and are differently integrated into the national urban systems and the national economy, depending on the specificities of each country and the specific phase of development, historical and institutional background. The list of specific indicators for LLS ranking includes dimensions of

population structure and change, economy, human capital, knowledge, accessibility, and institutional factors.

4 Use of existing ESPON results relevant for this project

While the various projects discussed in the previous section will serve as useful sources, none of them deals explicitly with a ‘populations’ perspective – which is the angle our project addresses. A preliminary scoping of the ESPON 2007 database attempted to pin down datasets and typologies developed in the various ESPON projects that are likely to be of use in our project, although the database reflects the situation in 2006 and it is possible that the key datasets will have to be upgraded before using them (and also to establish dynamic relations between assets and migratory flows).

We focused on blocks of variables related with the following dimensions:

- A. geographic typologies (land use, environment, settlement types, etc.)
- B. polycentricity and other spatial typologies
- C. population structure, change and migration, also including structure by professions and working status
- D. economic structure and performance
- E. innovation and knowledge economy
- F. accessibility
- G. cultural assets and infrastructure
- H. tourism
- I. governance indicators

Within all these blocks of variables, produced by different ESPON projects, there are various datasets that correspond with the categories that we intend to use in our analysis:

- ‘asset’ variables (especially in blocks A, D, E, F, G)
- ‘outcome’ variables (blocks C and H)
- ‘mobilising factors’ (block I and to some extent E)
- spatial typologies to be compared / contrasted with ATTREG typologies (mostly in A and B)

As mentioned in Section 2.2., a collective process of data verification, validation and ‘sifting’ will select the variables, indicators and typologies better suited to the needs of our analysis which we will integrate into an ATTREG database (conveniently harmonising spatial units). The related datasets that are not present in the ESPON database 2007 (in CEC countries) will also be collected. New data from different (non-ESPON) sources will also be integrated with the appropriate validation and harmonisation procedure.

The ATTREG project, however, also looks at the new round of ESPON projects 2013. The ToR require to focus attention on the following projects, that are running in parallel to this: DEMIFER, EDORA, FOCI, CAFÉ, EUROISLANDS, TeDi.

Regarding these projects, and the EUROSTAT data recently circulated as scientific support tools to Lead Partners (generated by the ESPON DB 2013 project), another scoping exercise has been conducted, highlighting data series that are probably going to be used in our

project, and their availability at different spatial scales. Among new EUROSTAT data, we look with interest at specific datasets within demographic statistics, economic accounts - ESA95, education statistics, science and technology statistics, health statistics, tourism statistics, transport statistics, labour market statistics, labour costs statistics, information society statistics, migration statistics, accessibility by road and rail, and land use data

Among data generated within the DEMIFER project, we will consider: Labour Force Data, Directed Migration Data, Population Change Data (technical), Population Change Data (nat.+tech.), and related regional typologies (typology of the demographic status in 2005, Euro Standard, Challenge of Labour Force, Challenge of Ageing, Challenge of Decline, Young Potentials).

We also consider that the SPAN-3 project ('Spatial Scenarios: New Tools for Local-Regional Territories'), currently in its final stages, could represent an interesting lead to this project for what regards the construction of scenarios using sub-regional data and consulting regional stakeholders, which is our ambition within the scenario analysis of RA5.

The TPG will also liaise with other projects which have yet to produce results, and in particular with the project on 'Services of general interest', insofar as it explores the role and contribution of services in territorial development, competitiveness and cohesion; and with the recently launched 'Secondary growth poles in territorial development' project (SGPTD), in so far as it explores the role of urban and regional typologies in activating local development processes.

5 Distribution of work packages among partners, the break down of the project's budget on the individual partners per budget line

The various stages of the project are regulated by a planning framework specifying a clear subdivision of tasks between partners. This is formalized in this partnership agreement. The planning framework and the work structure of the project have been agreed by all partners and are as included in the Annex approved proposal, redrafted after receiving requests for amendments by the ESPON CU and annexed to the Subsidy Contract.

Table ii provides a synthetic outlook of the approximate number of working hours that each partner will contribute in the three work packages, distinguishing coordination duties and execution of tasks.

In WP1, the LP will coordinate the overall management of the project; each partner is then expected to use a number of hours to execute administrative and reporting duties. Hours and costs spent in management meetings are also included in this work package.

WP2 involves research activities and research meetings. The coordination of research activities is shared between 5 project partners (LP-Spain, PP3-Italy, PP4-Belgium, PP6-Denmark, and PP9-UK), with a varying number of hours detailed in the Table A.i of Annex A. Each partner is then involved in the execution of a certain number of research tasks (reflecting the structure of WP2 into seven Research Activities (RA) and tasks), for a number of hours that is described in Table A.i and according to a timing that is described in the workplan of Annex C. The exact definition of tasks to be executed by each partner reflects the approved application and will be the object of thorough preliminary discussion at TPG meetings and of continuous consultations with the Lead Partner and the PP responsible for the coordination of research activities during the life span of the project.

Within WP2, partners are expected to participate in all research meetings at their own expenses. Some partners will organise six-monthly TPG meetings, taking on them all the

costs involved. Two of those TPG meetings (one in 2010 and one in 2011) will also include an ATTREG International Workshop where the project intermediate and final results will be presented and discussed with invited members of the ESPON community and other key scholars in the field (at the organisers' expense).

	WP1		WP2		WP3		Organisation of meeting	
	coordination	execution of activities	coordination	execution of activities	coordination	execution of activities	TPG meeting	ATTREG International workshop
LP (SPAIN)	1,342	120	280.0	1,709.7	50.0	72.0	x	x
PP2 (NETHERLANDS)	-	120	146.0	763.0	-	42.0		
PP3 (ITALY)	-	120	355.0	661.5	-	54.0	x	
PP4 (BELGIUM)	-	120	424.0	1,450.6	-	40.0	x	x
PP5 (PORTUGAL)	-	120	-	288.6	-	60.0		
PP6 (DENMARK)	-	120	327.5	725.4	-	41.0	x	
PP7 (POLAND)	-	120	-	1,403.5	-	229.0		
PP8 (SLOVENIA)	-	120	-	769.5	-	71.0		
PP9 (UK)	-	120	472.5	1,397.0	-	39.0		
TOTAL	1,342	1,080	2,005.0	9,168.8	50.0	648.0		

Table ii - Approximate number of working hours contributed by each ATTREG partner in the coordination and execution of project activities throughout the life span of the project, and other duties.

The detail of the responsibilities for the organisation of workshops is detailed in Table ii above, whereas the timing of TPG meetings and ATTREG workshops is illustrated in the Annex C.

WP3 is about the dissemination of the project results and it is again supervised by the LP, receiving inputs from the PSC, but dissemination activities are distributed between all partners. Details of the involvement of partners in WP3 are also given in Table ii.

This distribution of tasks is reflected by the detailed budget for each Project Partner (breakdown per budget line, see Tables A.ii and A.iii in Annex A). It takes into account declared work costs, the timing of expenditures, and the estimated cost of the various other tasks.

Changes in this budget structure (per budget line and per partner) proposed by the Project Partners will be monitored in the course of the project life, and negotiated with the Lead Partner (as stated in § 12 of the Partnership Agreement) before submitting an official request of budget alteration to the ESPON CU.

6 Project specific part

The following points were mentioned in Annex III to ATTREG Subsidy Contract:

a) Further elaboration of methodological approach. *The methodological approach to implement the project along the lines of the project specification requires a better and more detailed elaboration. The individual research activities need to be better interlinked among one another and should also be connected to a set of well-defined deliveries by the project. Generally, the red thread of the foreseen research activities needs to be better defined.*

This Inception Report develops an integrated methodological approach to the project (reflected in Ch. 1 and 2), which also clarifies the connection between the different research activities and tasks.

b) Demonstration of link between research and resulting policy options. *The LP ensures that the Inception Report includes a better demonstration of how the individual research activities will result in the formulation of policy options for policy makers.*

This Inception Report highlighted how the outputs from the ‘analytic’ stages of the ATTREG project, and their synthesis, will allow to identify the implications of our work vis-à-vis the main EU objectives as written down in policy documents and especially the new strategy EU2020. On this account, this project will be able to either suggest new initiatives and approaches that could enhance the capacity to achieve current objectives, or propose that these should be modified; and to provide a fine-grained assessment of current local situations, future directions for policy and more specific guidance on how to bring about positive change(s) at European, regional and city levels.

c) Need for more prospective dimension in the research. *The prospective dimension of the analytical work needs to be further developed; in this respect, the team should particularly consider how attractiveness contributes to economic performance and how it can improve the latter.*

This aspect has been taken up in this Inception Report of the project, especially in the parts where the conceptual model behind the analysis is introduced (Ch. 1) and in the development of an integrated methodological approach (Ch. 2).

d) Coverage of different types of territories. *The proposal is strongly focused on urban areas. The LP is requested to ensure that different types of territories will be looked at throughout the project and will develop this point further in the Inception Report.*

Chapter 1 of this Inception Report corrects this bias.

7 Overview of more detailed deliveries and outputs envisaged by the project

7.1 Work-package 1 (project coordination)

WP1 includes all the management activities of the ATTREG project. It is organised in a hierarchical way, with the LP ensuring that all PPs comply with the project requirements as stipulated by the Subsidy Contract and Partnership Agreement, especially as far as reporting is concerned. In fact the only deliverable directly related to WP1 are semestral Progress Reports, including Financial Reports validated through the FLFC system, which will be submitted by the LP within four months from the end of each financial period of which the project life consists. The progress reports will thus be submitted at 31/12/2010, 30/06/2011, 31/12/2011, 30/06/2012, 31/12/2012 and 31/05/2013 at the latest.

7.2 Work-package 2 (research)

As discussed in Chpts. 1-2, WP2 is organised in series of 7 Research Activities. The deliverables are organised in Inception Report (the present document, with submission deadline: 30/6/2010), Interim Report (submission deadline 31/12/2010), possibly a revised Interim Report, a Draft Final Report (submission deadline 1/12/2011) and Revised Final Report (due 30/4&2012).

Each research activity produces a number of outputs, including:

- scientific texts detailing the various stages of the research (from the introduction of theoretical concepts to the illustration of analysis and estimations performed, and the comments and illustration of results);
- data series (raw variables, indicators or class typologies)
- cartographic output describing and analysing the regional distribution of variables, indicators and typologies in space, also with regard to existing ESPON typologies and other important geographical aspects, or being used to create brand new regional typologies through cartographic techniques

These results and outputs are also presented and discussed at TPG meetings (which are conveniently timed to take place at crucial stages of the project lifecycle). TPG meetings will be the main venues for integrating results from different research streams and tasks into coherent pieces of works. They will also be presented at ATTREG international workshop, to seek for feedback from the scientific community (from the invitation of key experts from the ESPON network and others) on the work done in this project and the potential developments of the research work, at each stage, also in relation with the ongoing work conducted in other projects or networks. These meetings are per se an important delivery of our project beyond their dissemination value; details of the debate that will take place in those occasions will be incorporated in reports.

Research Activities as planned in this document are going to produce a number of such outputs. Specifically:

RA1 (running from April to June 2010) has as its key output the conceptualisation and methodological development of 'territorial attractiveness', the clarification of project objectives and hypotheses, and the redaction of a detailed work plan/research plan for project, which are indeed included in this Inception Report. This delivery reflects the ample debate initiated during the 1st TPG meeting in Venice (8-10 April 2010) and subsequent work in sub-groups.

RA2 (running in three stages: from June to October 2010, from March to April 2011, and in January 2012, following the 'looped' structure of our work-plan) delivers:

- Three 'clean' data-bases with variables relating to 'assets' of attractiveness and 'outcomes' of attraction consistently geo-referenced – each collected at a different territorial level (NUTS level 2, NUTS level 3 and LUZ level) in a common standard format (such as MS Access/Geodatabase). Assembled in line with recommendations contained in ESPON 3.2 – data navigator 2 report (2006)
- Report on data quality and data gaps (extent of coverage across EU27) including a statement of where data coverage is insufficient to operationalise concepts identified in RA1.
- Meta data for selected variables.

This information will be included in the Interim Report, including draft dataseries that are used in subsequent steps of the analysis, but only at the end of the project the final version of the database will be delivered in the correct format to the ESPON CU.

RA3 (running in two stages: from June 2010 to April 2011, and from February to March 2012) will produce:

- The identification and calculus of attractiveness typologies/indicators

- the identification of potentially interesting regions for further case study work (RA4 and RA5)
- Maps of assets, outcomes and territorial typologies
- Model relationships between the different indicators and conceptual groupings

Preliminary results (mostly limited to the visualisation of spatial distributions of assets and migratory/tourism flows, basic estimations and related cartography, and a tentative typology) will be included in the Interim Report. They will also be presented and discussed in the TPG in occasion of the 2nd TPG Meeting (Leuven, tentative dates: 11-13 November 2010, t.b.c.) and in that occasion they will also be discussed with invited experts in the First ATTREG International Workshop. Advanced results from RA2 (after validation with experts and the sounding board) will be presented at the 3rd TPG meeting (Bornholm, April-May 2011) and included in the Draft Final Report.

The interim report will also include a first dissemination output oriented to the policy community, including a simplified summary of the conceptual framework and of the first results from the project. This will allow us to begin the process of alerting and informing this key audience of our project's progress. By doing this we hope to both feed into the existing policy debates and stimulate interest within the policy community with regard to our work and its future outputs.

RA4 (running in two stages: from February to April 2011, and in February 2012) will yield:

- Case study reports
- Theme reports based on finer scale data work within regions demonstrating data homogeneity and richer data sets
- Recommendations for data inclusion to support measuring attractiveness in the EU27 area

This output will be presented and discussed at the 3rd TPG meeting (Bornholm, April-May 2011), serving as a key input for subsequent stages of the research; case study reports and their synthesis, also including theme reports and recommendations, will be included in the Draft Final Report.

RA5 (running in two stages: from December 2010 to April 2011, and from February to March 2012) will yield:

- Case study reports, including a brief review of methods for scenario generation
- Identification of regional/local policy levers that are likely to influence attractiveness between 2010 and 2030
- Cartographic representation of multiple possible future states of regional attractiveness, based upon the evolution of indicators and relationship with typologies elaborated in RA3.

While the conceptual and methodological lines of RA5 will already be introduced and discussed at the 2nd TPG meeting in Leuven (November 2010), preliminary results will be presented at the 3rd TPG meeting (Bornholm, April-May 2011), serving as a key input for subsequent stages of the research; more advanced outputs will be presented and discussed at the 4th and final TPG meeting and Second ATTREG International Workshop, to be held in Tarragona in November-December 2011, and will be included in the Draft Final Report after thorough revision by experts and the Sounding Board.

Again, the final report will include a 'dissemination report' oriented to the policy community.

RA6 (running in two stages: from July to October 2011, and from February to March 2012) will produce:

- A synthesis of the analysis
- The articulation of the concept of attractiveness, according to different regional typologies and different citizens (residents and visitors)
- Maps presenting a taxonomy of regional effects of attractiveness

While the preliminary operational framework for the delivery of this synthesis will be introduced and discussed at the 3rd TPG meeting (Bornholm, April-May 2011), outputs will be presented and discussed at the 4th and final TPG meeting and Second ATTREG International Workshop, to be held in Tarragona in November-December 2011, and will be included in the Draft Final Report after thorough revision by experts and the Sounding Board.

RA7 (running in two stages: from April to October 2011, and from February to March 2012) will produce:

- A 'policy reflections and recommendations' document
- The cartographical elaboration of the policy prescriptions

While the preliminary operational framework for the delivery of policy recommendations will be introduced and discussed at the 3rd TPG meeting (Bornholm, April-May 2011), outputs will be presented and discussed at the 4th and final TPG meeting and Second ATTREG International Workshop, to be held in Tarragona in November-December 2011, and will be included in the Draft Final Report after thorough revision by experts and the Sounding Board.

7.3 WP3: Dissemination

While the two ATTREG International Workshops mentioned in the previous section have to some degree a 'disseminative' nature, they are mostly focused on the discussion, revision and integration of intermediate output than on the diffusion of the project's final results. WP3 instead focuses on such dissemination which is accomplished to some extent during the project (when results have indeed the quality of being validated by analysis) but especially at its end.

As far as the diffusion of the preliminary and final results of the research is concerned, the two principal target groups are the scientific community, both inside and outside ESPON, and the relevant policy communities at different levels across Europe.

In relation to the ESPON community, the dissemination activities are dictated by the specs to this project. The TPG indeed believes in a strong interaction throughout the project with the ESPON research network and structures as the means to ensure the maximum validity and relevance of the project outcomes. We will especially care to involve all those responsible of transversal scientific tools delivered to the networks (database managers and scenario analysts). Thematic ESPON 2013 workshops will be attended by the TPG representatives (members of the SG according to the themes involved) on invitation. Not only will these constitute important occasions to liaise throughout the network and integrate preliminary and final results within the wider ESPON scientific framework, aligning methods and concepts, and establishing platforms for collaboration. Also, these will function as important

stages to disseminate the project findings through the ESPON network and achieve precious feedback.

As far as the outreach to the wider scientific community is concerned, the multidisciplinary character of this project guarantees that regional economists, geographers, sociologists, planners, and political scientists might be interested in sharing the fundamental research that will be the backbone of the project. The means of diffusion are therefore relatively traditional:

- Seminars within or outside thematic workshops, participation to conferences, dedicated sessions in important meetings;
- Publications such as working papers, articles in scientific journals, and edited books;
- A dedicated Internet site including a message board and a repository of relevant scientific material, with open access to the scientific community.

Through the membership of individual TPG partners, links will be established between the major networks (European Economic Association, European Regional Science Association, Regional Science Association International, International Geographical Union, The Association of European Schools of Planning, the European Sociology Association, etc.) which may enhance the impact of the research programme on other scientific research. Moreover, the ESPON network and its visibility will be a powerful vehicle. Hence, the project offers visibility to ESPON and in its turn ESPON to the project.

The project budget will allow all members of the TPG to travel and disseminate their specific work within the project or more integral findings of the project within these scientific networks, throughout the project duration and in the last few months after the completion of research activities and during the wrap-up of the project. These congresses will also function as a window of the project deliverables.

As far as the diffusion of the policy-oriented results is concerned, it is not only the scientific community that we will seek to engage through the traditional ESPON channels, but also practitioners and policy makers at all the relevant levels: from the European to local level. In particular, planners, urban and regional development agencies, administrators, politicians, investors, real estate managers, might be interested in the role of attractiveness for the future of regions.

Means of diffusion are either traditional or more innovative:

- Seminars within or outside thematic workshops, conferences, dedicated sessions in meetings;
- Publications such and policy reports and edited books oriented to a policy audience;
- The project website, including blogs and forums;
- DVDs and other multi-medial communication tools.

Again a range of major policy networks will be targeted for the diffusion of the results. Networks such as INTA, the European Urban Knowledge Network (EUKN), EURO CITIES, URBACT, the Council of European Municipalities and Regions (CEMR), the Council of Europe's Congress of Local and Regional Authorities, the Urban Land Institute as well as DG Regio and relevant European Parliamentary Committees and of course the usual ESPON networks, will serve as a useful mode of wider dissemination throughout the project.

As part of this process we will produce short, readable, summaries of our key research findings that can be disseminated through these networks and other appropriate web sites.

These will be supplemented by short reports summarising the policy implications of our work. In addition we will utilise national ESPON contact points to disseminate these summaries within countries. It was already mentioned throughout this document that all deliverables from the ATTREG project (except the Inception Report) will include a 'dissemination report' oriented to the policy community; and that even at this early stage of the project, an effort is being done to involve the policy community through a call for participation in the 'scenario' case studies to be developed in RA5.

The various deliverables in WP1, 2 and 3 follow the timeline detailed in Annex B.

8 Indication of likely barriers that the project implementation might face

Overall the main problems are likely to be threefold:

- ***A of degree of dissonance between our conceptual framework and the data available to operationalise and measure the relevant concepts.***

However, this is a normal part of any research process and will require us to find the 'best fit' between concepts and data, an activity which the members of consortium are used to dealing with based on past experience of European and National projects (e.g. previous ESPON projects, FP5 and 6).

- ***Problems of data availability, coverage and quality.***

Given that this project is not primarily a 'data collection' exercise, but is largely intended to build on existing data sources (both within and outside ESPON) we will not be able to address and fill in all data gaps, but where possible we will collect new, relevant data. Moreover, the case studies will allow us to develop more detailed data sets at sub regional levels and carry out more fine grained analysis in the selected case study areas.

In the case of CEC countries, data collection has been subcontracted to a research organisation, and though a preliminary check on the availability of data at least in Turkey has given positive results, the outcome will only be appreciated at the end of RA2 (November 2010).

It is thus likely that a data sifting exercise will remove the great majority of the variables selected from the research team consultation. However a review of the variable assessment sheets will reveal the level of sophistication that might be applied to the variables that remain. A priori the requirement for outcome data for at least two time periods around the date for the 'asset' data may require some re-conceptualisation of the analytical framework (that initially contains a time dimension). This feedback may also require the 'loosening' of the initial data quality criteria. The database needs to contain variables that make conceptual sense and whose statistical character/behaviour is unlikely to generate instabilities in the later analysis. However the research team will need to balance these issues against the need for data to analyse.

Another area of uncertainty is the quality and cover of sub-regional data that will be necessary to develop a scenario analysis as sketched out in RA5. We have already verified that data at the municipal level are available in specific countries (e.g. Denmark); at the moment we do not have more precise information on other countries, though we are confident that in a small number of countries that will be possible.

- ***Dissemination of the results, particularly to policy communities.***

This has been a problem for previous ESPON projects and we hope to get round this problem by being proactive through a dissemination strategy that does not rely on end-users going to the ESPON web site and having to read lengthy reports. As noted above we will do this by providing summaries of our key findings and policy implications and targeting specific representative organisations in the relevant European policy communities.

9 Orientation of the project previewed towards the Interim report

The 1st TPG meeting and the following months up to the delivery of this Inception Report have been mainly focussed on the discussion of the concept of territorial attractiveness, the elaboration of an analytic framework for the project, the discussion of methods to be deployed at each stage of the project, and the initiation of a process of data availability verification with an evaluation of datasets included in the ESPON 2007 database and of the new datasets circulated recently.

According to our work-plan, the next few months until the delivery of the Interim Report will be dedicated to the compilation and integration of a project database, as detailed in Ch. 2.2 of this document, and to the further discussion and refinement of analytic techniques, which proceeds in parallel with the development of the database, leading to methodologies becoming more sophisticated as better data (with reference to regional scale, area cover, and time dimension) are gathered. The TPG will also be engaged in a data sifting exercise that will lead to the dropping of datasets that do not meet our requirements in terms of coverage and quality.

After the delivery of this IR, the next important steps in the research activities are represented by the feedback on this work that we will receive from the ESPON MC and the Sounding Board, and by the preparation of the next TPG meeting, that will also include the First ATTREG Workshop; invited experts will be carefully selected from within and outside the ESPON community so as to bring in relevant discussion points on the work done until that moment and open perspectives for future work.

This next stage will also see the consolidation of the management structure of the network, the key test being the submission of the First Progress Report (including the first round of FLF Controls).

ANNEX A – Subdivision of workload and budget per Project Partner

Table A.i - Contribution of partners to each Research Activity within WP2

	LP (SPAIN)	PP2 (NETHERLANDS)	PP3 (ITALY)	PP4 (BELGIUM)	PP5 (PORTUGAL)	PP6 (DENMARK)	PP7 (POLAND)	PP8 (SLOVENIA)	PP9 (UK)	TOTAL WORK-HOURS
RA 1: Setting the scene										
Coordination	60.0	0.0	15.0	15.0	0.0	15.0	0.0	0.0	15.0	120.0
1.1. Discussion and operationalisation of the concept of attractiveness	47.0	50.0	60.0	40.0	45.0	60.0	61.0	64.0	60.0	487.0
1.2. Modelling and theoretical framework	40.0	0.0	0.0	45.0	0.0	45.0	61.0	40.0	45.0	276.0
1.3. Data availability exploration	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	9.6	0.0	0.0	40.0	0.0	49.6
1.4. Production of detailed work plan and research objectives	40.0	0.0	0.0	35.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	75.0
RA 2: Data assemblage, evaluation and management										
Coordination	22.5	0.0	234.0	21.0	0.0	22.5	0.0	0.0	22.5	322.5
2.1. Verification of alternative sources	35.0	0.0	55.0	25.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	40.0	0.0	155.0
2.2. Data gathering	0.0	0.0	78.0	0.0	0.0	41.5	0.0	80.0	60.0	259.5
2.3. Harmonisation and integration of existing databases and new sources	0.0	50.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	68.0	40.0	0.0	158.0
2.4. Harmonisation and integration of cartographic resources	130.0	0.0	0.0	36.0	0.0	0.0	48.0	0.0	0.0	214.0
2.5. Production of ATTREG database	75.0	0.0	97.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	172.5
RA 3: Data analysis										
Coordination	30.0	0.0	30.0	31.0	0.0	30.0	0.0	0.0	352.5	473.5
3.1. Elaboration of indicators	0.0	0.0	0.0	75.0	0.0	67.5	0.0	32.0	145.0	319.5
3.2. Descriptive cartography	153.0	0.0	0.0	25.0	0.0	0.0	48.0	0.0	0.0	226.0
3.3. Cross-analysis of spatial phenomena and testing of models	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	41.9	200.0	0.0	145.0	386.9
3.4. Typology of regions	80.0	106.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	32.0	90.0	308.0
3.5. Analytic cartography	329.2	0.0	0.0	65.0	0.0	0.0	90.0	0.0	0.0	484.2
RA4: Detailed analysis of regional attractiveness										
Coordination	22.5	146.0	22.0	23.0	0.0	22.5	0.0	0.0	22.5	258.5
4.1. Verification of indicators based on types of regions	0.0	170.0	0.0	59.0	0.0	0.0	80.0	0.0	90.0	399.0
4.2. Case studies analysis	62.5	0.0	145.0	153.0	0.0	0.0	195.0	217.0	0.0	772.5
4.3. Fine-scaled analysis of spatial phenomena in a variety of regional types	45.0	160.0	0.0	0.0	60.0	0.0	0.0	40.0	100.0	405.0
RA 5: Exploring possible futures for territorial attractiveness										
Coordination	22.5	0.0	19.5	23.0	0.0	200.0	0.0	0.0	22.5	287.5
5.1. Scenario methodology and driving forces	0.0	0.0	0.0	75.0	0.0	96.0	0.0	40.0	30.0	241.0
5.2. Future attractiveness and policy lever case studies	0.0	0.0	0.0	168.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	177.0	345.5
5.3. Scenario analysis based on qualitative indicators and trends	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	230.0	295.0	0.0	0.0	525.0
5.4. Synthesis and production of a scenario cartography	237.5	0.0	0.0	44.0	0.0	45.0	118.0	0.0	0.0	444.5
RA 6: Findings of the project and synthesis of territorial attractiveness of the analysis										
Coordination	100.0	0.0	12.0	16.0	0.0	15.0	0.0	0.0	15.0	158.0
6.1. Synthesis of the analysis	72.5	67.5	107.0	113.0	70.0	59.0	83.5	48.0	115.0	735.5
6.2. Production and detailed cartography and a taxonomy of regional effects of attractiveness	113.5	54.0	0.0	153.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	120.0	440.6
RA 7: Policy-oriented conclusions										
Coordination	22.5	0.0	22.5	295.0	0.0	22.5	0.0	0.0	22.5	385.0
7.1. Emerging policy issues and orientations	0.0	52.5	0.0	140.0	58.0	0.0	0.0	56.5	30.0	337.0
7.2. General conclusion and follow up	126.5	53.0	119.0	139.0	46.0	39.5	56.0	0.0	190.0	769.0
7.3. Cartographical elaboration of the policy prescriptions	123.0	0.0	0.0	60.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	183.0
TOTAL WORK HOURS	1989.7	909.0	1016.5	1874.6	288.6	1052.9	1403.5	769.5	1869.5	11173.8

Table A.ii - Project budget per partner / per budget line

	LP	PP2	PP3	PP4	PP5	PP6	PP7	PP8	PP9	TOTAL BUDGET
	Univ. Rovira i Virgili, Spain	EURICUR, Netherlands	Ca' Foscari University, Italy	Catholic University Leuven, Belgium	University of Coimbra, Portugal	CRT, Denmark	IGSO, Poland	Univ. of Ljubljana, Slovenia	Univ. of the West of England, UK	
work costs	85,454.7	57,667.6	42,138.4	96,956.4	16,128.0	60,922.4	23,139.6	23,929.5	91,937.5	498,274.2
administration (overheads + direct costs)	21,363.7	14,291.9	10,409.6	24,114.1	3,907.0	15,105.6	5,509.9	5,982.4	22,859.4	123,543.5
travel and accommodation	14,050.0	8,000.0	8,600.0	11,350.0	7,600.0	17,300.0	10,700.0	7,300.0	10,400.0	95,300.0
equipment	3,000.0	2,000.0	2,000.0	2,000.0	2,000.0	2,000.0	2,000.0	2,000.0	2,000.0	19,000.0
external expertise and services	26,500.0	9,000.0	8,000.0	6,750.0	21,500.0	15,925.0	3,000.0	8,075.0	5,200.0	103,950.0
TOTAL BUDGET	150,368.4	90,959.4	71,148.0	141,170.5	51,135.0	111,253.0	44,349.6	47,286.9	132,396.9	840,067.7

Table A.iii - Project budget per partner / per work-package / per budget line

	LP	PP2	PP3	PP4	PP5	PP6	PP7	PP8	PP9	TOTAL BUDGET
	Univ. Rovira i Virgili, Spain	EURICUR, Netherlands	Ca' Foscari University, Italy	Catholic University Leuven, Belgium	University of Coimbra, Portugal	CRT, Denmark	IGSO, Poland	Univ. of Ljubljana, Slovenia	Univ. of the West of England, UK	
WORKPACKAGE 1 (COORDINATION)	52,250.0	15,025.0	10,125.0	8,275.0	9,225.0	12,625.0	8,325.0	6,700.0	9,525.0	132,075.0
work costs	33,800.0	5,000.0	5,000.0	5,000.0	5,000.0	5,000.0	5,000.0	2,000.0	5,000.0	70,800.0
administration (overheads + direct costs)	8,450.0	1,125.0	1,125.0	1,125.0	1,125.0	1,125.0	1,125.0	500.0	1,125.0	16,825.0
travel and accommodation	4,000.0	900.0	2,000.0	1,150.0	1,100.0	2,500.0	1,200.0	1,200.0	1,200.0	15,250.0
equipment	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
external expertise and services	6,000.0	8,000.0	2,000.0	1,000.0	2,000.0	4,000.0	1,000.0	3,000.0	2,200.0	29,200.0
WORKPACKAGE 2 (RESEARCH ACTIVITIES)	81,443.4	71,084.4	53,773.0	121,158.0	38,160.0	91,203.0	31,549.6	36,336.9	117,959.4	642,667.7
work costs	48,354.7	50,467.6	35,338.4	90,206.4	9,328.0	54,022.4	15,639.6	20,029.5	85,087.5	408,474.2
administration (overheads + direct costs)	12,088.7	12,616.9	8,834.6	22,551.6	2,332.0	13,505.6	3,909.9	5,007.4	21,271.9	102,118.5
travel and accommodation	5,000.0	6,000.0	4,600.0	6,400.0	6,000.0	13,000.0	9,000.0	5,100.0	7,600.0	62,700.0
equipment	-	2,000.0	2,000.0	2,000.0	2,000.0	2,000.0	2,000.0	2,000.0	2,000.0	16,000.0
external expertise and services	16,000.0	-	3,000.0	-	18,500.0	8,675.0	1,000.0	4,200.0	2,000.0	53,375.0
WORKPACKAGE 3 (DISSEMINATION)	16,675.0	4,850.0	7,250.0	11,737.5	3,750.0	7,425.0	4,475.0	4,250.0	4,912.5	65,325.0
work costs	3,300.0	2,200.0	1,800.0	1,750.0	1,800.0	1,900.0	2,500.0	1,900.0	1,850.0	19,000.0
administration (overheads + direct costs)	825.0	550.0	450.0	437.5	450.0	475.0	475.0	475.0	462.5	4,600.0
travel and accommodation	5,050.0	1,100.0	2,000.0	3,800.0	500.0	1,800.0	500.0	1,000.0	1,600.0	17,350.0
equipment	3,000.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3,000.0
external expertise and services	4,500.0	1,000.0	3,000.0	5,750.0	1,000.0	3,250.0	1,000.0	875.0	1,000.0	21,375.0
TOTAL BUDGET	150,368.4	90,959.4	71,148.0	141,170.5	51,135.0	111,253.0	44,349.6	47,286.9	132,396.9	840,067.7

ANNEX B – Project flowchart with WP1, WP2 and WP 3 deliverables

	FINANCIAL		SCIENTIFIC	MEETINGS AND DISSEMINATION	
sep-09	preparation stage				
oct-09					
nov-09					
dic-09					
ene-10					
feb-10					
mar-10	1st financial period (16.2.10-31.8.10)			Kickoff meeting (Luxembourg)	
abr-10				1st TPG meeting (Venice)	
may-10					
jun-10				30.6.2010 - delivery of Inception Report	International ESPON seminar (Alcalá 9.6.10)
jul-10					
ago-10					
sep-10	2nd financial period (1.9.10-28.2.11)	preparation of 1st financial reports and FLFC			
oct-10				2nd TPG meeting and ATTREG workshop (Leuven)	
nov-10		delivery of 1st progress report		International ESPON seminar (Liege); meeting with SB	
dic-10				31.12.2010 - delivery of Interim Report	
ene-11			1st reimbursement		
feb-11					
mar-11	3rd financial period (1.3.11-31.8.11)	preparation of 2nd financial reports and FLFC			
abr-11				3rd TPG meeting (Bornholm)	
may-11		delivery of 2nd progress report		International ESPON seminar	
jun-11					
jul-11				2nd reimbursement	
ago-11					
sep-11	4th financial period (1.9.11-1.9.12)	preparation of 3rd financial reports and FLFC			
oct-11				4th TPG meeting and ATTREG workshop (Tarragona)	
nov-11		delivery of 3rd progress report		1.12.2011 - delivery of draft final report	International ESPON seminar; meeting with SB
dic-11					
ene-12			3rd reimbursement		
feb-12					
mar-12	5th financial period (1.3.12-31.8.12)	preparation of 4th financial reports and FLFC			
abr-12				30.4.2012 - delivery of rev. final report	
may-12		delivery of 4th progress report			
jun-12					
jul-12				4th reimbursement	
ago-12				DISSEMINATION ACTIVITIES	
sep-12	6th financial period (1.9.12-30.1.13)	preparation of 5th financial reports and FLFC			
oct-12					
nov-12		delivery of 5th progress report			
dic-12					
ene-13				5th reimbursement	
feb-13					
mar-13	preparation of 6th financial reports and FLFC				
abr-13					
may-13			6th reimbursement		
jun-13					

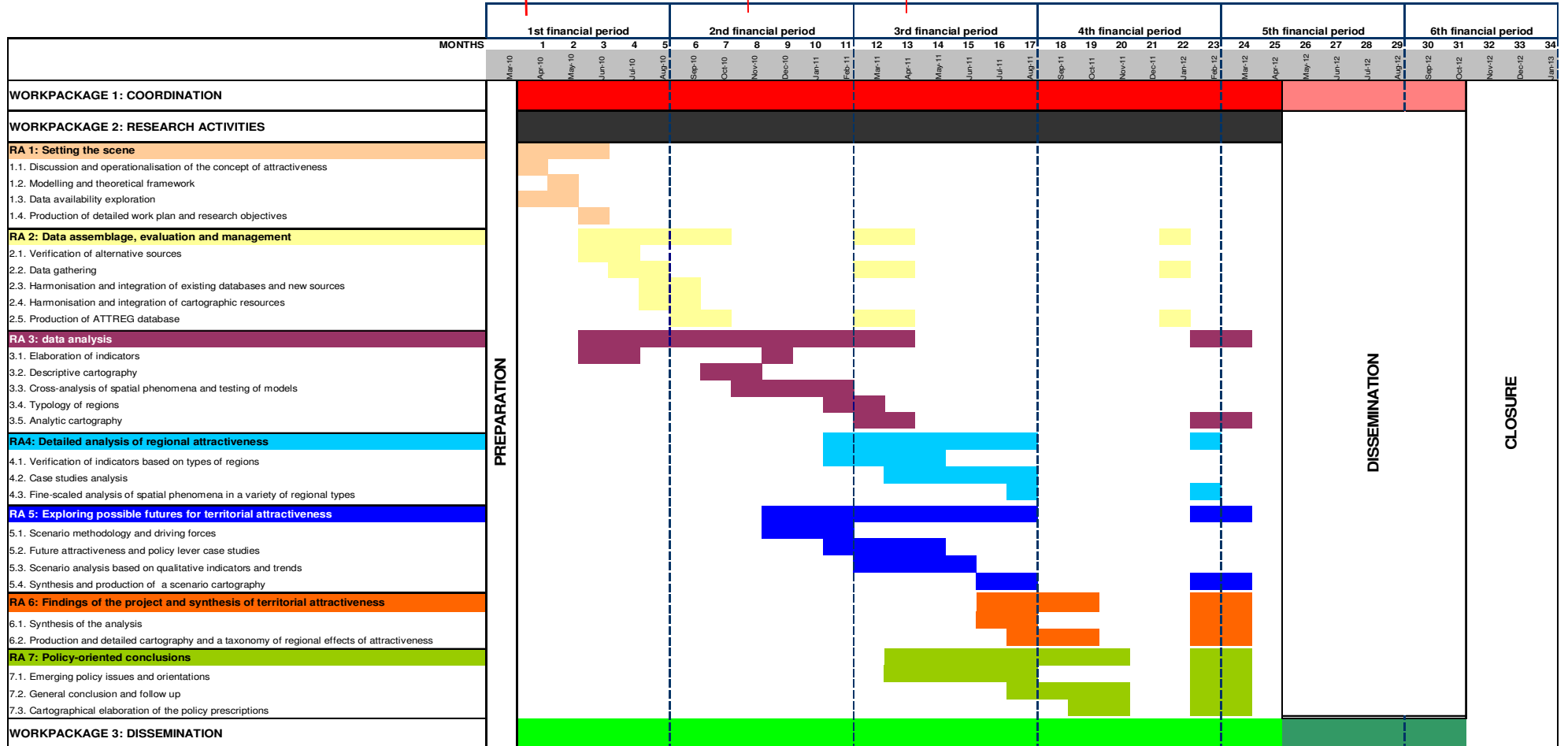
ANNEX C – Project time-line and main research events

1st TPG meeting
(Venice 8-10/4/2010)

2nd TPG meeting and 1st
ATTREG international
workshop
(Leuven October-November
2010)

3rd TPG meeting
(Bornholm April 2011)

4th TPG meeting and 2nd ATTREG
international workshop
(Tarragona November 2011)



ANNEX D – The concept of territorial attractiveness: insights from the literature and research challenges

1. Attractiveness as an EU policy concept

Spatial and non-spatial policies, particularly those of the EU, may have a significant role in enhancing the attractiveness of places and regions, by changing endogenous factors (determined mostly by geographical, cultural and historical factors) and producing shifts vis-à-vis the relative “positioning” of regions. It is therefore important to understand what constitutes the attractiveness of European cities and regions and the implications of this for the development of policies to enhance the impact of European Spatial Directives, at a variety of scales: the continental, the urban, the neighbourhood and locality, as well as highlighting the importance of sectoral (non-spatial) policies.

The concept of attractiveness and its implications for policy raises two main issues, outlined in the following subsections, which provide the operational framework for our discussion. First we highlight the increasing significance of the spatial dimension in EU development policy, with specific attention on the production of policy documents. Secondly, the different policy purposes associated with the concept are explored, in particular with reference to the (potential) duality between competitiveness and cohesion policies, and their different policy implications.

The increasing significance of the spatial dimension in EU development policy

The concept of attractiveness refers to how a place is perceived and what types of assets it has to offer to (different types of) residents and visitors. The growing importance of these issues has coincided with an increasing emphasis on spatial issues, in particular concerning European development policy. Over the last two decades, an emerging message in the EU policy debate has been that territory matters (ESPON, 2006b). Yet the extent to which this has actually been absorbed into and structured sectoral policies is debatable.

Numerous initiatives undertaken by the European Commission have increasingly been characterized by an attention to spatial dynamics, a clear signal of a growing awareness of the importance of the territorial dimension for the EU political agenda. In the 1990s, the publication of the studies Europe 2000 and Europe 2000+ represented the first attempts to analyse and describe territorial development trends at the EU scale. Since then, attractive, competitive and dynamic regions and cities have become a major issue for the development of a range of policies (see CEC, 2005). A clear example of this is that policies for regional development are an integral part of the Lisbon Treaty, and a territorial approach with deeper horizontal policy integration has gradually emerged over this period. Most recently the “Barca Report” (Barca, 2009) has explicitly highlighted the need for a place-based reform of EU regional and cohesion policy.

A place-based approach means paying attention to the specific spatial aspects of places, and it has implications both for the policy approach adopted and for policy sectors; this requires the development of policy integration and governance processes (in their vertical, horizontal and territorial forms). Moreover, this needs to be accompanied by the development of a European cross-sectoral strategy for the European territory. An initial, and hesitant, first step was taken by EU Member States who in 1999 developed and approved the European Spatial Development Perspective (CEC, 1999) (containing, among other things, an attempt to develop a set of integrated policy guidelines) which emphasised the need to support regions and cities in becoming more competitive and attractive.

More recently the intergovernmental process has experienced a new surge in interest, as all 27 Member States of the Union adopted a Territorial Agenda for the European Union in 2007. Ministers have modernised the policy orientations of the ESDP and added a stronger emphasis on (1) the competitiveness of regions and cities (including creation of innovative clusters), (2) climate change concerns and (3) territorial cooperation and multilevel governance. At the same time, the Territorial Agenda of the EU has built upon these notions and linked them to the need to secure better living conditions and quality of life with equal opportunities irrespective of where people live. The most recent example of this growing cultural attention to spatial aspects took place in 2008 with the publication of the Green Paper on Territorial Cohesion (CEC, 2008), now officially recognised as one of the main aims of the EU in the Lisbon Treaty. This document places a territorial perspective at the heart of economic and social cohesion, creating the objective of a more balanced and harmonious development of the European territory, establishing the vision of territorial cohesion as more than simply a matter of regional balance. It pays particular attention to regions with specific geographical features, focusing on the use of territorial assets as vital aspects of territorial development and key factors for the long-term and sustainable growth of Europe. Almost simultaneously the Leipzig Charter (German Presidency, 2007) and subsequent initiatives by other EU presidencies (e.g. French Presidency 2008a and 2008b) have sought to identify an integrated methodology and series of guidelines to support “sustainable urban development”. While there is a lack of “integration” between these various developments all have implications for and are closely connected to policy and research on the attractiveness of places.

Attractiveness and differential policy implications

The attention to spatial planning and territorial development at the EU level has its origin in the challenge represented by disparities in development capacity that has accompanied EU enlargement throughout its history. At the heart of all the policy documents identified above is the consideration that multi-level and multi-sectoral governance processes and policy should focus on the prevention of (negative) spatial differentiation based on territorial assets.

The last enlargement of the EU and the subsequent negative macroeconomic trends affecting most new Member States created new and significant social, economic and spatial challenges for several strategic policy sectors, providing a highly challenging context for the territorial cohesion objective of the EU. Partly for this reason, whilst the pursuit of territorial cohesion and balanced and/or sustainable development continues to be central to the EU policy agenda, the period from the turn of the millennium has been characterised by an emphasis on “regional competitiveness and employment”, as the Sapir Report (Sapir et al, 2003) clearly demonstrated in 2003. Nevertheless, the aim of transforming Europe into the most competitive and dynamic knowledge-based economy in the World by 2010 has been combined with a clear commitment to sustainable development and territorial cohesion.

The continuing emphasis on “balanced and sustainable competitiveness”, in relation to cohesion, can be seen as the other face of the political message. It is echoed in all the latest territorial reference documents developed at the EU level; for example the Territorial Agenda and its “integrated urban development” complement (the Leipzig Charter) both focus on the “global competitiveness and sustainability” of European cities and regions. The concept of attractiveness must be seen in terms of its relationship with these main aims of the EU.

However, if we take a closer look at the concept of cohesion as contained in policy documents and articulated in its three main connotations (social, economic and territorial cohesion) important differences emerge with regard to the implications of the concept of

attractiveness of cities and regions. Different overarching narratives and their associated macro policy approaches have spawned a range of policy discourses, e.g. the differential emphasis accorded to competitiveness, equity and balance and the spatial and area-based orientation (ESPON, 2006a and 2006b). Depending on the reference point the meaning of “spatial attractiveness” changes considerably. Each of these aims can highlight different facets of the role of territories, and more specifically, the way their attractiveness is conceived and the resulting policy approaches.

Different “discourses” have been stressed by different EU policy orientations, leading to different strategic policy options depending upon the particular objectives assigned to cities and regions. Here, several variables may influence the concept of attractiveness of places and its political applicability. First, the role of spatial elements is critical, as for instance is shown in the contrast between cities as engines of growth (e.g. CEC, 2005) and cities as places where the strongest opportunities and the greatest disparities co-exist, where in the first case a strong emphasis is on the role of economic driving forces while in second case concerted efforts should be made to address social exclusion and create sustainable communities (UK Presidency, 2005).

More specifically with regard to the elements that define the concept of attractiveness, a second point can be highlighted. An example of this is the role of SG(E)I (services of general [economic] interest), the subject of a Commission White Paper, CEC 2004) which lie at the heart of the social cohesion policy and of the EU welfare system and are closely related to the concept of attractiveness, particularly for local needs. From this perspective, attractiveness can be conceived as the presence of services, either for residents (e.g. focus on social cohesion), or for specific types of enterprises, as competitive localisation factors (e.g. focus on economic growth). At the same time, it can lead to a stronger emphasis on the role of culture and knowledge (e.g. as in the work of Richard Florida, 2002 and 2008), where a wider range of possible approaches implies various policy options.

From a general perspective, those approaches are not always compatible. Policies for transport and infrastructure, for instance, make some regions more accessible than others, but sometimes less “attractive” in terms of the quality of their landscape and environment, producing ambiguous effects locally; agricultural policies may be relevant to maintaining the attractiveness of rural areas; urban and cultural programmes enhance the attractiveness of regions for existing residents (and possibly new ones) but also for tourists, which may produce adverse effects for the quality of life of citizens.

What this discussion highlights is the complexity and variable meanings associated with attractiveness in the policy discourses of the EU. In the following section we turn our attention directly to the concept of attractiveness and investigate its, variable, geometry and implications.

2. *The Quality of Places and the New Cultural-Economic Paradigm*

The previous section illustrates the use of “attractiveness” in EU policy documents and statements, revealing that it remains an ambiguous and multifaceted concept, without a generally accepted definition. Moreover, while European and local policymakers have enthusiastically, and somewhat simplistically, embraced the concept, many scholars are less enthusiastic about it. In part this is due to its association with aesthetics: if attractiveness is considered as a matter of design, it is by definition a subjective notion¹. Petersen (2004)

¹ e.g. Bradley et al. (2002) argue that Birmingham has been less successful than Manchester and Glasgow in changing its image because the city is aesthetically less attractive.

argues that the term “attractiveness” is subjective and the ranking of cities according to their attractiveness is thus highly vulnerable to manipulation. Therefore, it is more common among scholars to define attractiveness as the ability to attract. The question is: to attract what or whom?

Given these problems with the concept in this section we seek to establish a “generic” notion of attractiveness that captures its key elements and how it impacts (positively and negatively) on places and will allow us to bring out its policy implications. Thus we explore it from two main points of view:

First we discuss the “ability to attract” as depending on the quality of the environment and its implications for living, business and visitors. Cities and regions can be considered attractive if they have sufficient urban amenities to offset agglomeration disadvantages such as high housing and land prices (Glaeser et al, 2001; Glaeser and Gottlieb, 2006). The quality of place, however, is far from being an easy notion to quantify, since several aspects can contribute to its perception.

Over the last decade or so the notion of quality of place has taken on an increasing importance in the debates surrounding urban and regional competitiveness. These debates have drawn on a wide ranging literature developed since the 1960s, focusing on aspects of quality of life (a concept defined in various ways), and referring to the level of urban amenities and other characteristics. Since the 1970s these studies have paid increasing attention to “soft,” subjective measures (Pacione, 1982), frequently associated with economic competition (Trip, 2007). However, most attention has been given to their impact on economic development (e.g. how they affect the locational decisions of firms), rather than people (e.g., Festervand et al., 1988; Rogerson, 1999; McCann, 2004). By contrast, for instance Foster (1977) emphasized the importance of investments in social infrastructure for people rather than only for firms, while others (Clark et al., 2002; Dziembowska-Kowalska & Funck, 2000) highlighted the importance of public and lifestyle amenities in cities to attract talented high-tech staff, and Portney (2003) related the level of environmental quality that individuals experience to a city’s economic growth.

The discourse has progressively shifted from “quality of the economic environment” to “quality of places”, bringing to the fore the spatial specificities of place, in particular related to the urban context. Symmetrically, the issue of assessing empirically the attractiveness of regions has been addressed in two ways: either through the measurement of what are believed to be the most important aspects of a region’s factor endowments, or through an evaluation of the outcome of these endowments in terms of actual economic performance. Most studies, however, regardless of whether they see regional development as primarily driven by endogenous or exogenous processes, focus on factor endowments: the more endowed a region is, the greater are its chances of prospering in a context of increasing global competition over development opportunities.

For at least two decades the primary focus, as far as the type of assets considered is concerned, has been on the so-called knowledge society. According to this view, the leading edge of growth and innovation in the contemporary economy is constituted by sectors such as the high-technology industry, neo-artisanal manufacturing, business and financial services, cultural and creative industries. Together these sectors constitute a sort of “new economy” (Trip, 2007) that is strongly reliant on the creation of new symbolic meaning, something which is closely associated with situated knowledge and its articulation with global cultural and information flows. While cultural industries themselves have grown considerably in the last decade, along with their importance for the economy as a whole (KEA, 2006; Russo and Van der Borg, 2010), a whole new “economic order” has emerged

(Hall, 1998; Simmie, 2005) that assigns culture and information a key role in regional and urban economies.

The growing profile of this “cultural-economic paradigm” (Amin and Thrift, 2007) not only affects the economic morphology of cities, but, increasingly, also the physical (built) and social landscape². The face which the “successful” contemporary city presents to the external world tends to be organised around the living (and consuming) environments of the high-end segments of the job market, including up-scale streetscapes, state-of-the-art educational facilities, expensive shopping and catering facilities and high quality residential enclaves, as well as a wealth of cultural amenities (museums, art galleries, concert halls, multi-media entertainment districts).

A corollary of this is that the capacity of cities to access, process and creatively use information and knowledge to produce competitively and innovatively is at stake, and is strongly linked to the characteristics of their social capital and their consumption landscape. On this basis cities seek to actively engage in an “upscaling process” whereby they attempt to become central nodes in the global knowledge economy by nurturing the appropriate conditions (e.g. “openness” of deregulated forms of governance and appropriate forms of social control). By doing this they hope to increase their chances of attracting mobile human capital which is considered to be the main engine of innovative and competitive economies. The ability to do this is thought to create a “virtuous circle” whereby success breeds success related to the synchronisation of urban spatial dynamics with global trends³.

These arguments have been addressed and shifted from a more conceptual dimension to a more practical, policy-oriented discourse by Richard Florida (2002, 2003, and 2008). Florida’s work has exerted considerable influence in the policy debate. It explicitly relates to urban economic development and the behaviour of a wide range of “creative” workers, rather than firms or managers, addressing the conditions that collectively make a city an attractive place of residence and work for the so called “creative class”. The relevant attributes are considered to be economic and spatial diversity, specific leisure and cultural amenities that fit the interest of the creative class, a mixed population, the chance of informal meetings in so-called “third spaces”, safety, vibrancy, as well as indefinable aspects such as authenticity, tolerance, street life, buzz, and urbanity.

Florida developed a measurement method for the quality of places in a series of studies on the quality of U.S. cities (Florida, 2000, 2002; Florida & Gates, 2001), and some years later, in some European countries (Florida & Tinagli, 2004). These analyses were based on a set of indicators for technology, talent and tolerance (the 3Ts). Florida’s work does point to the

² Among the complex attributes of this new economic order, Scott (2006) highlights three aspects of special importance concerning the production forces: the “flexible specialization” of networks of firms; extremely fluid and competitive labour markets associated with these sectors, with many individuals being engaged in part-time, temporary, and freelance forms of work, where most creative fractions of the labour forces are organized in temporary project-oriented teams; many sectors have a marked propensity to assume geographic expression in the form of specialized locational clusters. Examples of this phenomenon abound: Silicon Valley, Hollywood, the City of London, le Sentier in Paris, the industrial districts of the Third Italy, the leisure economy of a booming tourist destination as Barcelona, etc. Clusters of these sorts are by no means confined to the more economically advanced countries.

³ In terms of spatial organisation we can highlight three key issues. First, cities tends to become simultaneously complementary to one another, in the sense that they are caught up in mutual exchanges of specialized products and strongly competitive with one another, securing their own collective interests in a world of finite resources (Camagni 2002). Second, with the extension of markets due to globalization, trends toward urban agglomeration are actually intensifying across much of the new economy, because growth of output allows divisions of labour at the point of production to deepen and widen, just as it leads to the amplification of external economies of scale and scope. And third, there are also many small and specialized creative agglomerations, as exemplified by places such as Limoges with its porcelain industry, or the craft communities of the Third Italy (Becattini 1987).

importance of criteria such as creativity and talent, diversity, tolerance and safety, and in particular to the presence of specific amenities as attractive factors. His main research objective is to understand why successful and innovative high tech companies cluster together, and the answer given is "...companies cluster in order to draw from concentrations of talented people who power innovation and economic growth." (Florida, 2003, p. 5). In this theory, companies follow people and not vice versa; in specific places, the 3Ts interact with one another in a synergistic (one might almost say "mystical") manner. The next question is how and why do clusters of such people (the creative class) emerge and develop? According to Florida it is because what they are looking for "... are abundant high-quality experiences, an openness to diversity of all kinds, and above all else, the opportunity to validate their identities as creative people." (ibid, p. 9). Thus, cities that are richly endowed in place amenities catalyse the best "creative talent", which should lead to higher economic performance.

In spite of its popularity among policymakers, Florida's work has nevertheless been heavily criticised for a number of shortcomings. Among these is that he treats the "creative class" as an undifferentiated mass (Markusen, 2006) and fails to recognise significant economic, social and political differences between the various groups he lumps together and the very different roles they may play. From this perspective the "creative class" is anything but a class, it is rather an artificially created category designed to support a theory. Furthermore Scott (2006, p. 11; see also Scott, 2008, pp. 80-83) argues that Florida "fails...to articulate the necessary and sufficient conditions under which skilled, qualified, and creative individuals will actually congregate together in particular places and remain there over any reasonably long-run period of time." Moreover, the process by which pools of creative talent leads place economies to be competitive remains a "black box": most critics argue that when policy makers go beyond the attractive rhetoric of Florida's work there is little of substance to guide actions (e.g. Markusen, 2006).

Thus, while insights from Florida's work are certainly relevant particularly with regard to "quality of place", more attention needs to be paid to the process elements which coalesce to create attractive *and* competitive locations. From this point of view one has to question whether Florida's 3T's and retention policies for the creative class are sufficient to guarantee the success of local development strategies. A critical element in this process appears to be ability of a city to accommodate and involve a broad range of stakeholders in these processes. Any city or region that lacks a system of employment able to provide all of its residents, and not just the "creative class", with appropriate and enduring means of earning a living and access to necessary services is unlikely to be in a position to attract significant numbers of people to take up permanent residence. Moreover, it is too simplistic to assume that simply attracting the "right people" is a guarantee of sustainable success (Russo and van der Borg, 2010).

In fact, today while large cities may harbour unprecedented creative capabilities, they are also places where striking social, cultural, and economic inequalities prevail (Kazepov, 2005). In this situation the construction of the "creative city" is unlikely to be sustainable where these problems persist (Fainstein, 2005; Markusen, 2006; Scott, 2008). This is particularly the case in major metropolitan areas and cities where new-economy sectors have flourished and an associated basic division in the labour forces causes social inequality with regard to incomes and access to services and other amenities. Moreover, it involves basic issues of citizenship and democracy, and the full involvement of all social strata into the socioeconomic processes of cities and regions, not just for their own sake but also as a means of giving free rein to the creative powers of the citizenry at large. Martinotti's conceptualisation of a sustainable and competitive city argues that it should accommodate

diversity in its uses and social composition (Martinotti, 1993), thereby supporting social cohesion. This angle will be explored in further detail in section 5.

4. Milieu, Territorial Capital and Mobilization of Assets

A second approach to attractiveness can be identified, which, while addressing similar points to those discussed in the previous sub-section, places more emphasis on a wider number of factors and their complex interrelationship. Moreover, despite the considerable efforts expended on the definition of the concept of (economic) attractiveness and its analytical consequences these all have a specific focus on “urban attractiveness”, however, it is important to recognise that “attractiveness”, in both theoretical and policy terms, is also relevant to rural and “peri-urban” spaces, which are appealing because of different factors such as residential or leisure spaces within metropolitan areas or regional systems.

In this alternative approach there is a greater emphasis on the impact, in combination, of embedded economic, cultural and institutional factors as the driving force behind attractiveness. It is the articulation of these factors, both historically and currently, that lays the foundation (or creates the potential) for attractiveness. Moreover, it does not focus all attention on one particular “group” (e.g. the “creative class”) that is defined as *the* driving force in the process and on whom all efforts must be focussed. Central to this approach are the concepts of *local milieu* and *innovative milieu* which have helped move the debate forward in terms of understanding the complexity of situated economies.

Local milieu can be described by four basic characteristics (Maillat, 1995): 1) a group of actors (firms, institutions), relatively autonomous in terms of decision making and strategy formulation; 2) a specific set of material (firms, infrastructure) and immaterial (knowledge, know-how) elements; 3) institutional (authorities, legal framework) elements and interaction capacity between local actors based on cooperation; 4) internal self-regulating dynamics, and the ability of actors to modify their behaviour and find new solutions as their competitive environment changes. These have been called the “static characteristics” of the milieu, intended as a reasonably rich resource endowment (defined in a broad sense) of a place. Alongside these some form of (local) dynamism is seen as necessary to initiate (and perpetuate) the creative process. This is referred to as an “innovative milieu” characterized by a “common understanding” based on common behavioural practices as well as a “technical culture” linked to a specific type of economic activity (Aydalot, 1986; Coffey and Bailly, 1996).

In this approach the region, the territory, is not seen as a mere container”, in which attractive location factors may happen to exist or not, but rather as a system for collective learning through intense interaction between a broadly composed set of actors (Moulaert and Sekia, 2003; Moulaert and Nussbaumer, 2005). The milieu is a *created space* that is both a result of and a precondition for learning – an active resource rather than a passive surface (Coffey and Bailly, 1996; Hallin and Malmberg, 1996).

All the above elements – which add to, and do not substitute for, more traditional, material and functional approaches – may be encompassed and summarized by the concept of *territorial capital* (Camagni, 2008). This notion was proposed in the regional policy context by the OECD in its *Territorial Outlook* (OECD, 2001):

A region’s territorial capital is “distinct from other areas and is determined by many factors [which]... may include... geographical location, size, factor of production endowment, climate, traditions, natural resources, quality of life or the agglomeration economies provided by its cities...Other factors may be “untraded interdependencies” such as understandings, customs and informal rules that enable economic actors to

work together under conditions of uncertainty, or the solidarity, mutual assistance and co-opting of ideas that often develop in small and medium-size enterprises working in the same sector (social capital). Lastly there is an intangible factor, "something in the air", called "the environment" and which is the outcome of a combination of institutions, rules, practices, producers, researchers and policy-makers, that make a certain creativity and innovation possible. This "territorial capital" generates a higher return for certain kinds of investments than for others, since they are better suited to the area and use its assets and potential more effectively ...".

This concept has gained authority in the policy-making and institutional debate, as illustrated by its use, initially by the Dutch Presidency in the "Discussion paper for the informal meeting on territorial cohesion" (2004), and more recently in the Luxemburg Presidency's "The Territorial States and Perspectives of the European Union" (2006).

Based on this approach, despite not explicitly using the term "territorial capital", several attempts have been made to analyse assets and performances of places. For instance Deas and Giordano (2001) sought to explore the relationship between sources (the initial stock of assets in a city) and outcomes of competitiveness (the result of attempts to exploit these assets by firms) across a sample of urban areas. They argued that urban asset bases provide a strong predictor of competitive performance but that this general pattern is interrupted by some cities for which competitive outcomes are stronger or weaker than might be expected in the light of underlying asset bases. In their research, two aspects can be underlined: a definition of assets that tends to be similar to the notion of territorial capital; and the focus on the mobilization of local assets as key aspect in the difference of performances between places.

In particular the second point reflects the assumption that the effectiveness with which the above-mentioned assets are exploited is conditioned in part by the actions of individual and collective agencies (as well as through more nebulous "market forces"), but also by the way in which a territory is governed. This is a critical aspect, and refers to what Buckley et al. (1988) called the "management process". While in its original incarnation this referred to the differential ability of firms to exploit resources at their disposal, it can also be used to refer to the efforts of local policy actors to create, exploit, supplement, and replenish local asset bases, and to transform liabilities into assets (Deas and Giordano, 2001). Moreover, it suggests the need to recognise that there are a range of "different users" in the territory and that they do not have a uniform set of needs, the ability to both recognise and find a way of reconciling differing needs is a mark of an inclusive governance system. For instance whilst one can identify businesses and residents as two user groups with potentially different needs they are not homogeneous groups and while they may require different policy responses on some issues they may also have much in common. Many local residents will need work and employers require a well educated workforce, both also require reliable high quality public services (e.g. transport systems). The point is how a governance system balances out the different needs within a framework that represents and reflects the diversity of local populations.

It is thus worth reflecting on the concept of attractiveness from a governance point of view, underling two main aspects: on the one hand, *governance can be a criterion of attractiveness*. A well established and reliable governance system of a place can be a factor of localisation. On the other hand, *attractiveness is a concept shaping the territorial governance process itself*, in particular concerning the "mobilization process" through which territorial assets are activated. Furthermore, it may even become part of an explicit mandate in a governance process: for instance, the definition of a strategic plan for a city can have as

its main aim the objective to transform the city into an attractive place. Here the criteria are socially constructed and mobilization has an explicit coordination role.

5. *Attracting whom? Mobilities and migrations in the global age*

The last part of our discussion addresses the “object” of attraction policies. We now refer to new concepts of mobility, embedded in wider process of what Bauman (2000) called “liquidity” of contemporary society, in which spatial displacement loses its extraordinary character to become a common element of people’s lives. Urry (2007) writes in this regard of a new “mobilities paradigm” for the social sciences, moving away from a sedentarist conception of society and livelihoods, and highlighting that the normal condition in the present day (and a right of individuals) is that of “being on the move”; either physically, in relation to the increasing spatial disarticulation of work and social relations, or symbolically and metaphorically, in relation to the globalisation in the world of signs and meanings that substantiate our cultural life, which also determines a “compulsion for mobility” as a means to satisfy spatially material needs and cultural aspirations (Urry, 2008).

Talking about *mobilities* and not mobility, he also stresses that in this paradigm we recognise the existence of “fast movers” and “slow movers”, which have different relations to places and a differential capacity to reconfigure them according to their lifestyles and habits, and whose attraction to a particular place are activated by different reasons from the (neo)classical variables, like prices, employment conditions or the push of demography.

This new configuration of lives on a planetary scale engenders, in fact, a cosmopolitan society: a “new international middle class” has emerged, that ‘moves rapidly from one place to the other but that in any place requires (and does) more or less the same things’ (Martinotti, 1993: transl. by aut.). These practices accrue to places the elements that establish a “landscape of familiarity”, in which this cosmopolitan consuming class (Fainstein, 2005) can rapidly realise a process of “homing” (Sheller and Urry 2006, p.211).

The city is the main scenario of globalisation, and the main generative environment of the liquid society. “Global cities” (Sassen 1994) represent the nodal points of a transnational economic and cultural system. The contemporary metropolis does not represent anymore the hierarchic culmination of a national or regional urban system (Martinotti, 1993), but a part of an a-geographic system that promotes global contents and meanings. In this sense, the urban is uprooted from the territorial. A phenomenon that underpinned the “urban renaissance” after the industrial crisis with the shift to the service economy, and that underlines the reconfiguration of the city as a consumption platform open to global flows of “users”, or audiences.

At the same time, the dynamics that characterize the contemporary society contribute new meanings to the spatial displacement of individuals. As the urban postfordist society loses its sedentariness, tourism loses much of its extraordinary character, not only in terms of “persistence in place” or destinations available, but also in regard to the content of the tourist experience. For Urry (2000), tourism could be conceived just as a form of temporary leisure-driven mobility. Tourism, in other words, would cease to be signified by content of the tourist practice and the nature of the visited object or place, to refer to the condition of the individual or, better, to the urban experience realized by those who do not reside in the destination considered. In this sense for the “post-tourist”, as defined by Feifer (1985), the experience is an end in itself. We can thus speak of post-tourism (Ritzer & Liska, 1997) as a phenomenon embedded in postmodernity that supposes processes of encoding of the place and a spatialisation of the experiences (Coleman and Crang, 2002) radically different from

that evoked by modern tourism described by seminal authors such as Cohen and MacCannell.

The competitiveness of a destination would be determined, therefore, by its capacity to offer a distinct and stimulating atmosphere where, according to the logic of experience marketing, ordinary activities are transformed in memorable experiences, which is seen to depend to a large extent on the idiosyncratic nature of the encounters and interrelations with other “non tourist” groups present there (Minca and Oakes, 2006). In the end, the object of the tourist experience would come to be the city on its whole as a complex and indefinite cultural product, composed by elements of the local tradition, lifestyles, contemporary “glocal” expressions that contribute to an eclectic and above all unique mental landscape.

Martinotti’s work (1993) is pioneering in the sense of questioning the capacity of places to be resilient to such “multiplication” of uses and populations. In his “three population theory” of urbanisation, he postulates that a sustainable city or urban region is one that accommodates and generates synergies between different population characterised by different degrees and mobility and patterns of “consumption of place”. Though his classification of population draws a line between residents, commuting workers, regional consumers, and tourists, his intuition – supported by research into successful cities – could be further elaborated in the lines of Urry’s mobilities paradigm. Different “liquid” populations flow in and out of cities and regions constantly, contributing to the development of contemporary places; it is up to the cities and regions not rather to “select” populations that produce the most beneficial effects (which could be criticised for establishing a new “power hierarchy” that privileges the new cultured elites and possibly affecting others groups), but to accommodate such diversity in one place and generating the social and cultural connections that make such diversity become an asset for more competitive and sustainable environments.

To this regard, it should be acknowledged that “externalities” in this superimposition of different populations may emerge. The attraction exerted by a place on some “audiences” as a consequence of its collective capacity to mobilise territorial assets in a certain direction may either strengthen, or reduce, the attractiveness that the same place has for others. Externalities, by definition, are susceptible to severe problems of market failure and misallocation, and hence management of their genesis and allocation constitutes a further concrete issue that emerges at the local level.

For instance, while it can be unequivocally claimed that, on the one hand, new knowledge workers, university students and neo-bohemians (Quagliari Domínguez and Russo, 2010), and on the other hand blue collar workers, old-time residents, immigrants, etc, all contribute to some extent to the development of a competitive city (providing, respectively, important inputs to edge sectors, creative capacity and cultural animation, the workforce for residual industrial sectors, stewardship to the local cultural identity, and basic manpower jobs in consumer services and tourism), their mix and compatibility can be problematic. For instance upmarket workers gentrify popular areas and crowd out older residents while students may also create problems in the areas in which they live and concentrate (Hubbard, 2008). Similar points also apply to tourism where the presence of certain groups (e.g. migrants) may be perceived as a ‘problem’.

Acknowledging and characterising this diversity, and its points of friction or potential encounters, is this the first step towards the construction of a competitive local environment. Several angles could be adopted in this regard; we stick with Martinotti’s definitions of levels of “transience” and “motivations” for mobility as the two fundamental dimensions of this multicentricity, determining all possible combinations of consumption

patterns and place practices. Different actors may be attracted in a city or region for different reasons and according to varying patterns of “transience” (the duration or their stay in that area once attracted there), recognising that the range of possible transiencies in our “mobile”, postindustrial and postmodern society overcome the simple binary of extreme volatility (traditional tourism) and sedentary livelihoods: people travel and move around for different reasons, for short or long period. Patterns of differential mobility overlap and intersect locally, defining, among other things, the structure of the local socio-economic environment and the position of cities and regions as nodes in the global web of flows that, according to Castells (1989), has emerged and structures all aspects of the “Information age”. For the sake of simplicity, this range of mobilities can be reduced to three or four main blocks characterised by given combinations of “reasons” for moving into a certain area and “levels of transience”. The most obvious combination, as recalled above, is the classic distinction between “residents” and “visitors”, which is also reflected in the title of this project.

As we are discussing, after all, flows and not “capital stocks”, they must be defined dynamically: a region is attractive for residents when new residents come in and become new citizens, that is, the net migration rate is positive, and it is not attractive when existing residents leave the region, or the net migration rate is negative. When we shift the attention to tourists, obviously a region is more or less attractive according to its capacity to attract those “temporary residents” that are tourists (“outward” tourism is less interesting in this respect as a factor of “unattractiveness” of origin regions as it is a natural phenomena of our society that people, when they can, go to holidays abroad, independently on how attractive is the place where they hold the habitual residence). However, as suggested above, we must recognise that among “new residents” there are important differences, among which the structure of the (attracted) workforce, their economic or educational level, their impact on the local economy, and also the “transience” of their stay.

Whereas “traditional” forms of mobility are strongly dependent on neoclassical variables like wages, prices, accessibility, and employment rates, and demographic variables like the age structure of the population, in this project we place a particular emphasis on those aspects of mobility that are more related with the “new geographic” literature concerned with place qualities and territorial capital assets; aspects that are more problematic both to define and to assess, but which may result in an important integration to the comprehension of European mobility and regional development processes.

Also types of tourists may vary considerably. One first important group is represented by traditional mass tourists, typically characterised by medium-length packaged stays in vacation areas, mostly in the “sunny belt” of the Mediterranean Europe, booked through agencies or other intermediaries. The second group takes in categories of unorganised, independent, special interest travellers that have emerged in the last 20 years, like short-stayers in urban destinations, including cultural and business tourists, but also new fluid forms of leisure- or non-work driven mobility which are increasingly blurring with the features of mobile residents: second home owners, retired couples buying property in the sunny belt of Mediterranean Europe and becoming permanent residents there, foreign students on an Erasmus stay and visiting researchers, neo-bohemians “finding themselves” in some big cities for a few months and working on a part-time basis, health tourists on a treatment, etcetera (Quaglieri-Domínguez and Russo, 2010).

It is important to keep these two groups conceptually separated. First, because the attraction factors may be considerably different; again, neoclassical considerations of price and accessibility may be predominant for the first category (which are tied to the level of “industrialisation” in the structure of the local tourist supply), whereas the second group is remarkably more sensible to genuine place qualities and experiences, “mental” or cultural

accessibility, and a certain “visitor-friendliness” in the organisation of the tourist experiences (Richards 2007, Russo and van der Borg 2002). Secondly, because different impacts can be expected from each of them, determining differential outcomes of the attraction processes. Distinctions, to this regard, can be subtle and cut across groups: second home residents or “silver” long-stay tourists are believed to bring a sustained contribution to the local societies, but are seen as an intolerable pressure factors in the delivery of public services and health; foreign students and “neo-bohemians” may be low spenders and create all sorts of disturbances for the local community, but they are believed to contribute animation and “buzz” to cities, and they are the best ambassadors for welcoming and exciting places where they settle for a while.

To conclude, the most important corollary of this literature is that every population has something to contribute to local development processes, and that policy and planning have to recognise this potential and generate the social and cultural infrastructures that nurture their fecund encounter.

6. Conclusions

From this discussion of the uses of attractiveness in the policy arena, and the review of the various literatures that add complexity and depth to this concept, we draw a number of conclusions that will be used as entry points for the ATTREG project.

First, the territorial capital concept should be considered as a crucial dimension of the attractiveness of places. This is intended as a complex system of natural and socio-economic elements, defining the uniqueness of local assets. Deas and Giordano (2001), in their research, identified four elements of the “static capital” of a place: economic, institutional, physical/environmental and social environment, to which – for the sake of clarity and to address the key objectives defined by the theme of this project, we will add “social and cultural” and “antropic” capital.

Second, the attractiveness of a place stems from the combination of different assets and from the way(s) they are *mobilised*, both by non-governmental organisations and institutional actors (sectoral stakeholders, association of categories, NGO, etc.). This approach provides a dynamic perspective on territorial capital, since the relationship between assets and attractiveness is mutually reinforced through a continuous process of mobilisation which seeks to enhance the existing stock of assets. In this context governance arrangements are crucial to the mobilisation and use of assets and this requires the existence of links, often articulated through organisational arrangements (e.g. partnerships) between stakeholders, local authorities, agencies and citizens in order to identify, create and mobilise assets and develop policies to achieve specific (attractive) strategies.

Third, territorial attractiveness is not an undifferentiated concept with regard to all categories of citizens (e.g. young and old, employed and retired), or for all possible target groups.

This interpretative scheme allows us to distinguish the processes of perception of place and spatial economies for different types of users, and to assess the overall outcome(s).

Taking again tourism as an example, the attractiveness of a city is generally defined as the ability to attract tourists, producing benefits for the urban economy. However, from a broader perspective it can be argued that social and environmental balance should also be an equally important objective; from this point of view, according absolute primacy to tourism represents a disruptive factor, often contributing to unwanted social and environmental change. The two macro-categories of residents and visitors can be considered

as a first main subdivision among potential users, each being attracted to a place by a specific range of potential factors, as illustrated in Figure 1 of the main text in this Inception Report. In spite of the fact that the attractiveness of place is usually considered to refer to visitors as potential users, and tourism as a development strategy, a balanced relationship between the attractiveness of places for visitors *and* residents ought to be the core issue in strategies of valorisation and mobilisation of assets.

Today there is a large amount of research on the diseconomies potentially created by tourism at destination level as opposed to a model in which cultural assets disengage a genuine “triple helix-like” virtuous process of capacity-building, whereby (cultural) tourist demand is the strategic trigger for the process through an increase in economic opportunities (OECD, 2005). If cultural assets are not *properly* mobilised – which hints at notions of conservation, but also dynamic reproduction, value-adding processes, and governance (Russo, 2002), the tourist economy based on their exploitation may well result in a factor that crowds out (or even destroys), rather than strengthening local development assets and idiosyncratic place qualities. This argument also has an important spatial element to it; externalities from tourism occur not only within destinations and across sectors, but also across territories, due to the footloose nature of tourist activities and the emergence of what have been called “functional tourist regions” spanning administrative boundaries (Van der Borg et al, 1996).

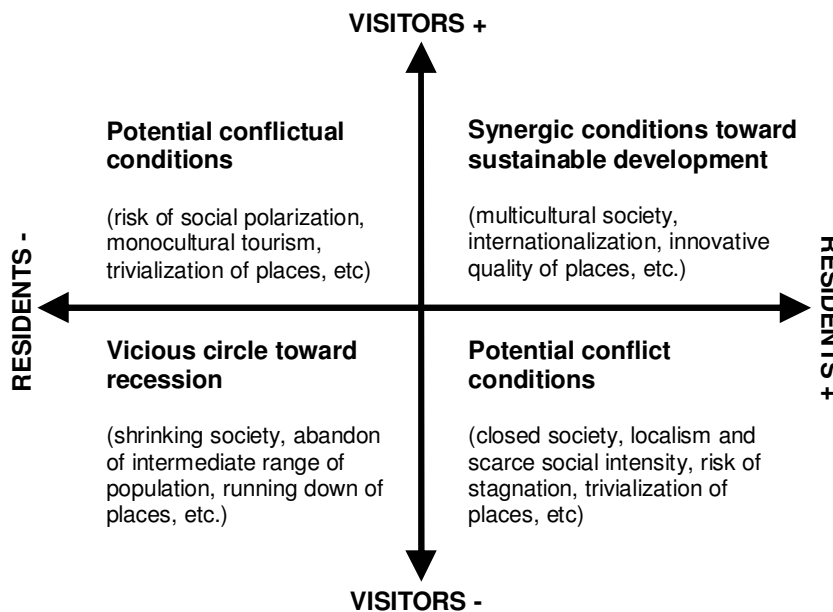


Fig. D.1 - Visitor-resident externalities

Further detail of how the relationships between residents and tourists can affect development trajectories is given in Figure D.1, where resident and visitor attractiveness are cross-charted, specifying the different outcomes in terms of economic performance and cohesion of places. It is shown how, in a longer term perspective, investments in the mobilisation of assets for only one of the two user groups may negatively affect the other through spatial and social externalities that are generated in the process.

To sum up, the scheme in Figure 1 takes into account the broad perspective elaborated in the previous theoretical debate, including the role of hard and soft assets, social aspects of attractiveness and intangible elements. Moreover, it moves beyond static milieu factors,

including dynamic process of mobilization of assets through more or less institutionalised governance processes, giving a policy dimension to the concept, which leads to a further consideration: attractiveness is a concept that should be specified in relation to certain categories of possible users/inhabitants, for who the assets are mobilized.

Underling the policy dimension of the concept, it is then possible to go back to the implications for EU policy and the attention to the diversity of the EU regions, emphasizing how further research could provide scientific support to policy agendas exploring the concept of attractiveness and its implicit valorisation of spatial differences.

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