

BEST METROPOLISES

Best development conditions in European metropolises: Paris, Berlin and Warsaw

Targeted Analysis 2013/2/14

Interim Report | Version 13/04/2012

Annexes



This report presents the interim results of an Targeted Analysis Project conducted within the framework of the ESPON 2013 Programme, partly financed by the European Regional Development Fund.

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Table of contents

Annex A. Literature	5
Annex B. Strategic documents	14
Annex C. Main statistical data sources	17
Annex D. Maps, graphs and tables	18
D1. European perspective	18
D2. Paris, Berlin and Warsaw: selected information and comparisons	28
Annex E. Housing policies and life quality	51
E1. Legal regulations with respect to the affordability of housing	51
E2. Housing cooperatives in Poland	53
E3. Life quality	54
E4. Social Housing experiences from Berlin: Märkisches Viertel	55
Annex F. Public transport. Experiences from Paris and Berlin	59
F1. Transport on demand in Paris	59
F2. Sustainability in Berlin	59
F3. Public transport management in Berlin	60
Annex G. Spatial visions	62
G1. Paris	62
G2. Berlin	65
G3. Warsaw	68
Annex H. Best Metropolises and use of other ESPON projects' results	71

Annex A. Literature

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Annex C. Main statistical data sources

Paris

IAURP L'Institut d'aménagement et d'urbanisme de la Région parisienne

IFTGS, 2001, Ile de France Transport Global Survey

INRIX France Traffic Scorecard (<http://www.inrix.com/pressrelease.asp?ID=106>).

INSEE National Institute of Statistics and Economic Studies
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Syndicat des Transports d'Ile-de-France

Berlin

Datenerhebung SenStadt

Die Kleine Berlin Statistik, 2010

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Warsaw

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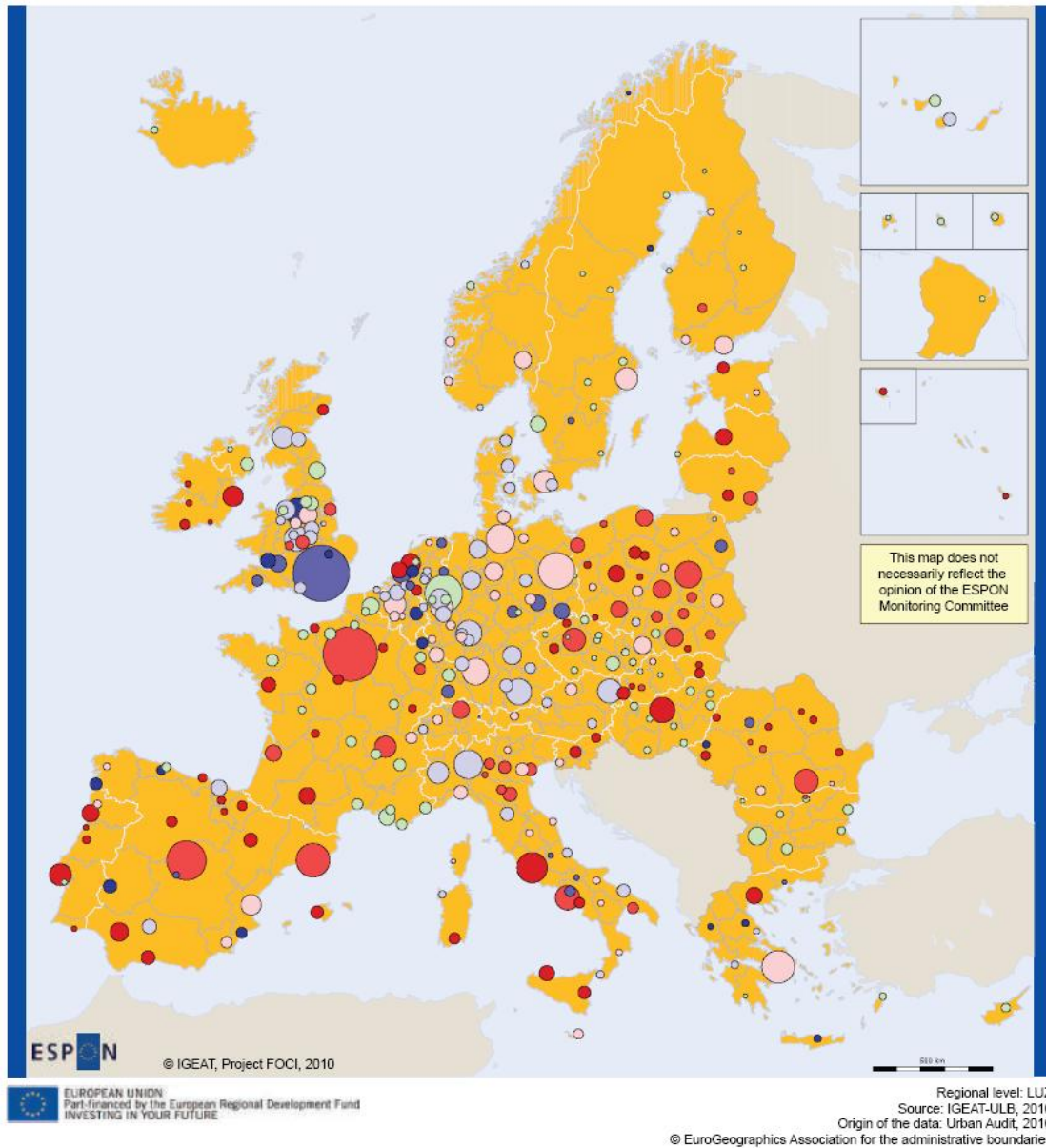
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Annex D. Maps, graphs and tables

D1. European perspective



Difference in the population growth between suburban and core areas of the LUZ

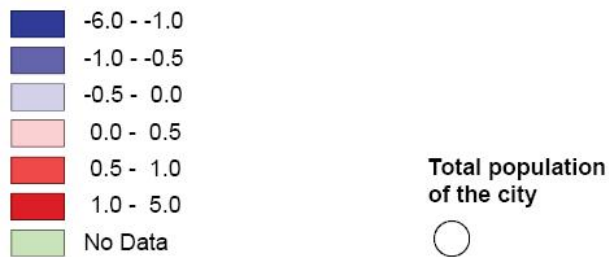


Fig. D1: Disparity in population growth between suburbs and core areas of cities, 2000-2006
Source: ESPON 2010, 17

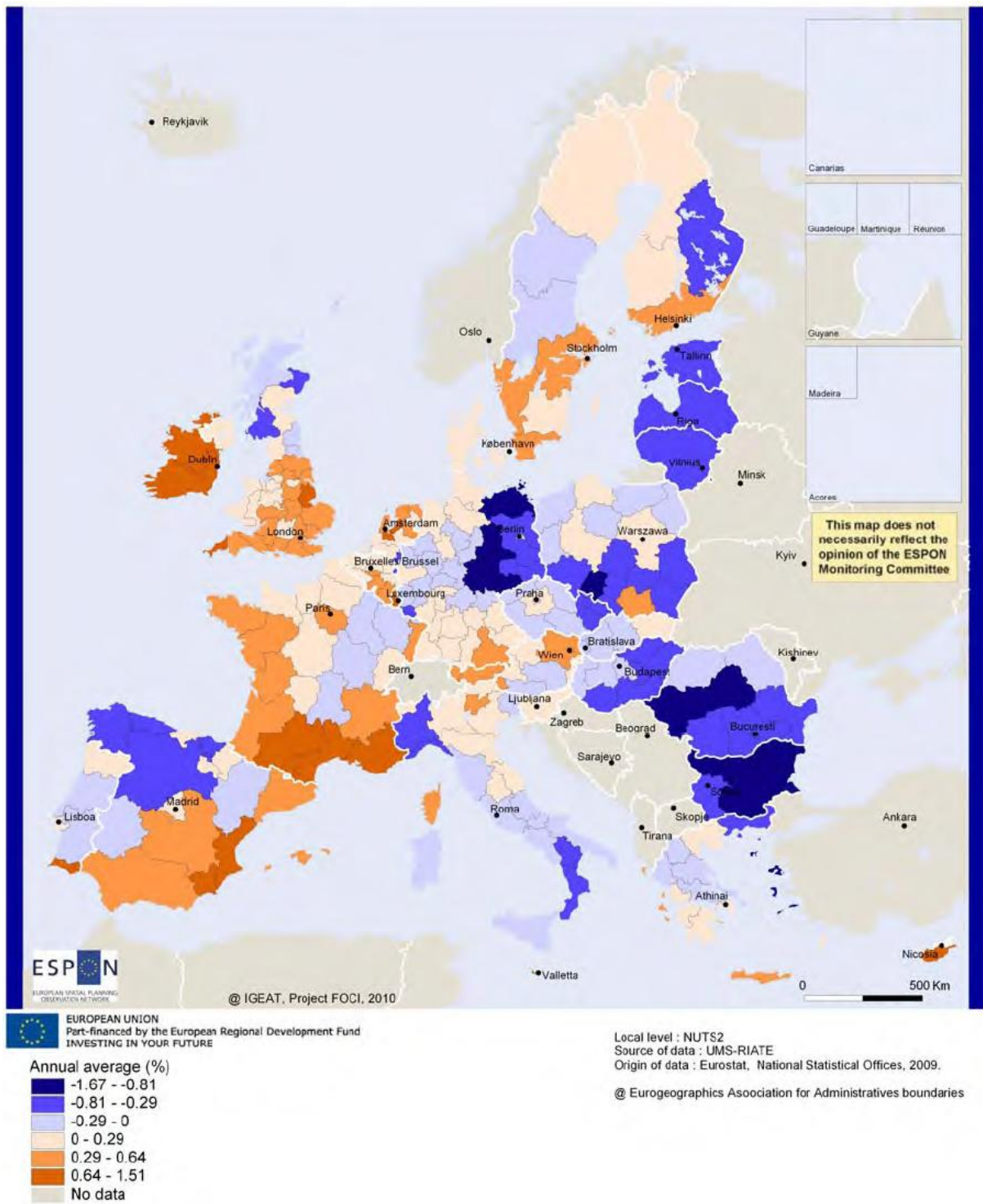


Fig. D2: Population increase 2005-2030 at NUTS2-level
Source: ESPON FOCI 2010, 54

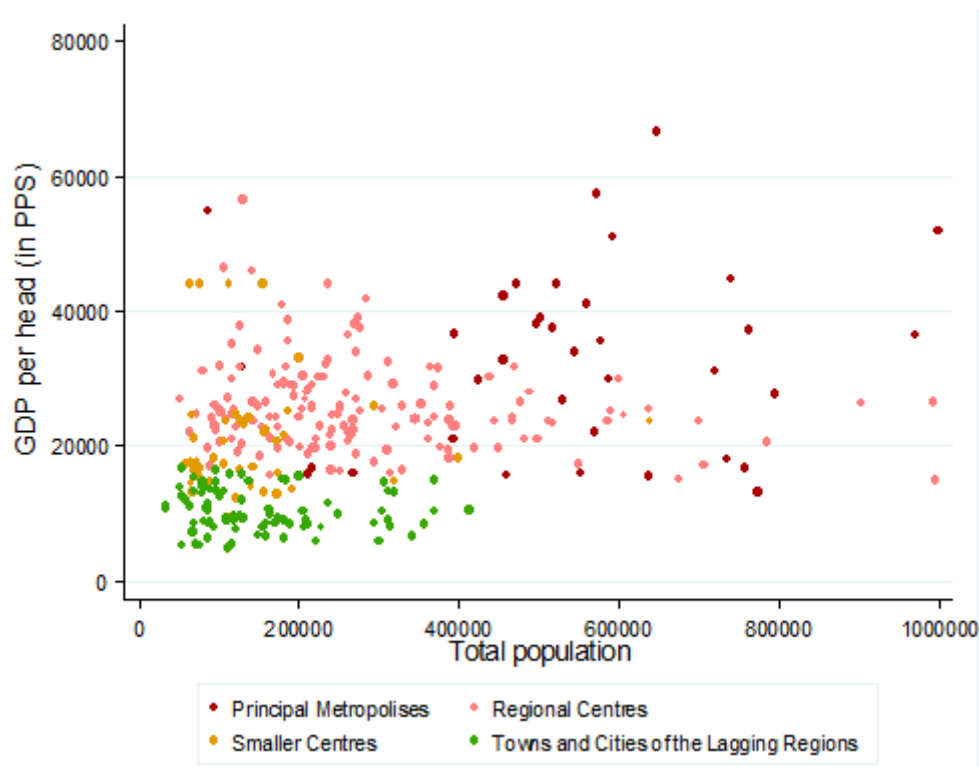


Figure D3: Economic prosperity and city size, by city type, core cities, 2004

-Type A (Principal Metropolises) comprises 52 large and capital cities with more than 1 million inhabitants in core city on average. This type of cities do not only hold the largest agglomerations of people and firms, but they also host the most dynamic innovation and entrepreneurial activities and are centers of specialized services aiming at national and international markets. Furthermore, they are central locations of private and public administrative functions.

-Type B (Regional Centres) take 151 prosperous cities into account from Western Europe with approximately 290,000 inhabitants on average. They are much smaller than the principal metropolises where overall economic output, patent intensity and entrepreneurial activity are higher than in the regional centers. On the other hand, regional centres' economy is still high above national averages.

-Type C (Smaller Centres) cover 44 cities, mainly from Western Europe and outside its economic core zone but with high proportion of highly qualified residents. However, these cities have less vibrant economy than city types A and B. They have population growth approximately 140,000 inhabitants on average.

-Type D (Towns and Cities of the Lagging Regions) refer to 82 Cities in Central and Southern Europe that have high unemployment rate and relatively low wealth with 160,000 inhabitants on average. These cities have higher unemployment, lower GDP per head and a regional specialization, in which manufacturing plays a far more important role. The population is declining in these cities in contrast to other cities.

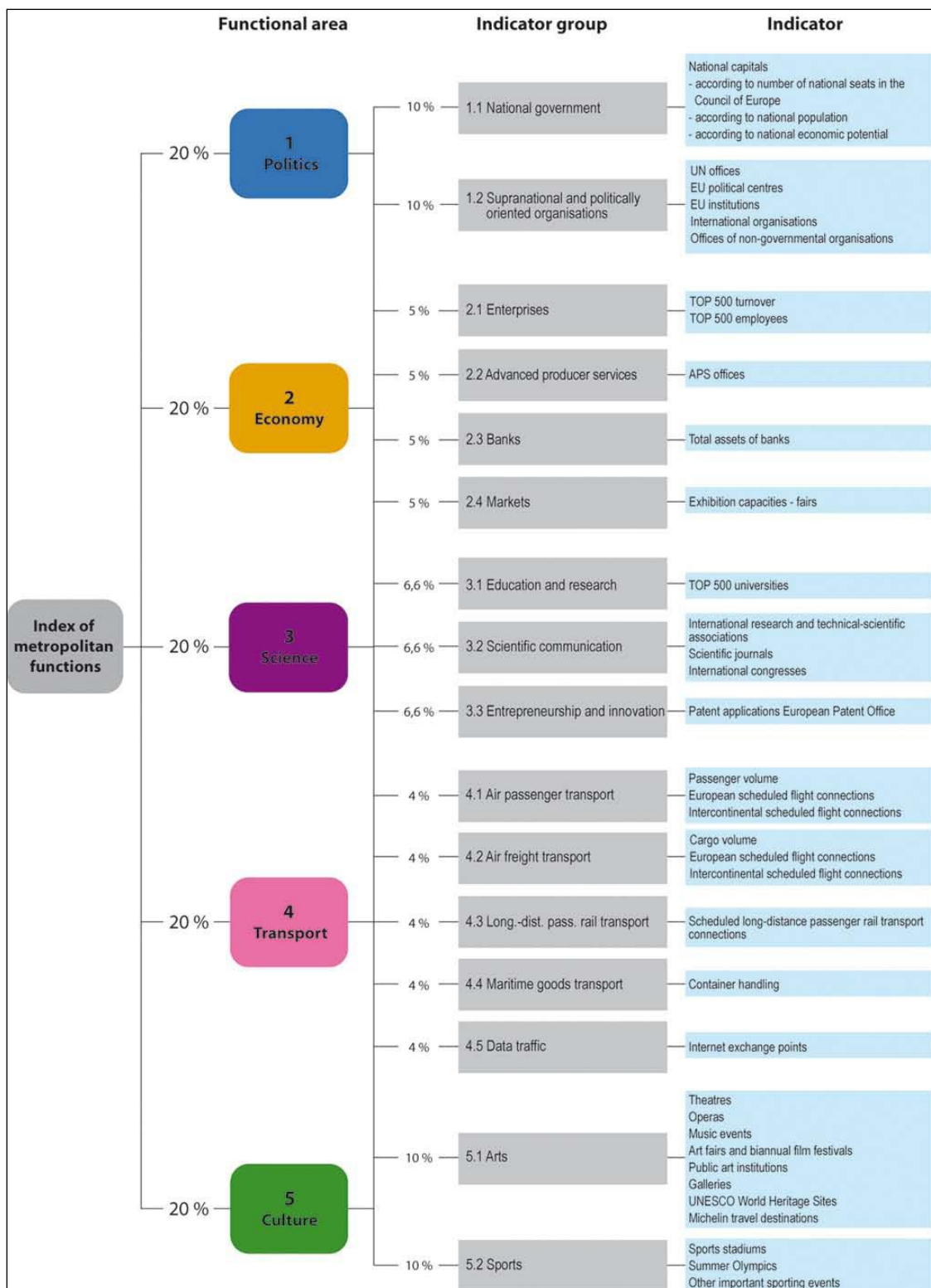


Fig. D4: Operationalising the functional areas by indicators

Source: BBSR 2011, 41

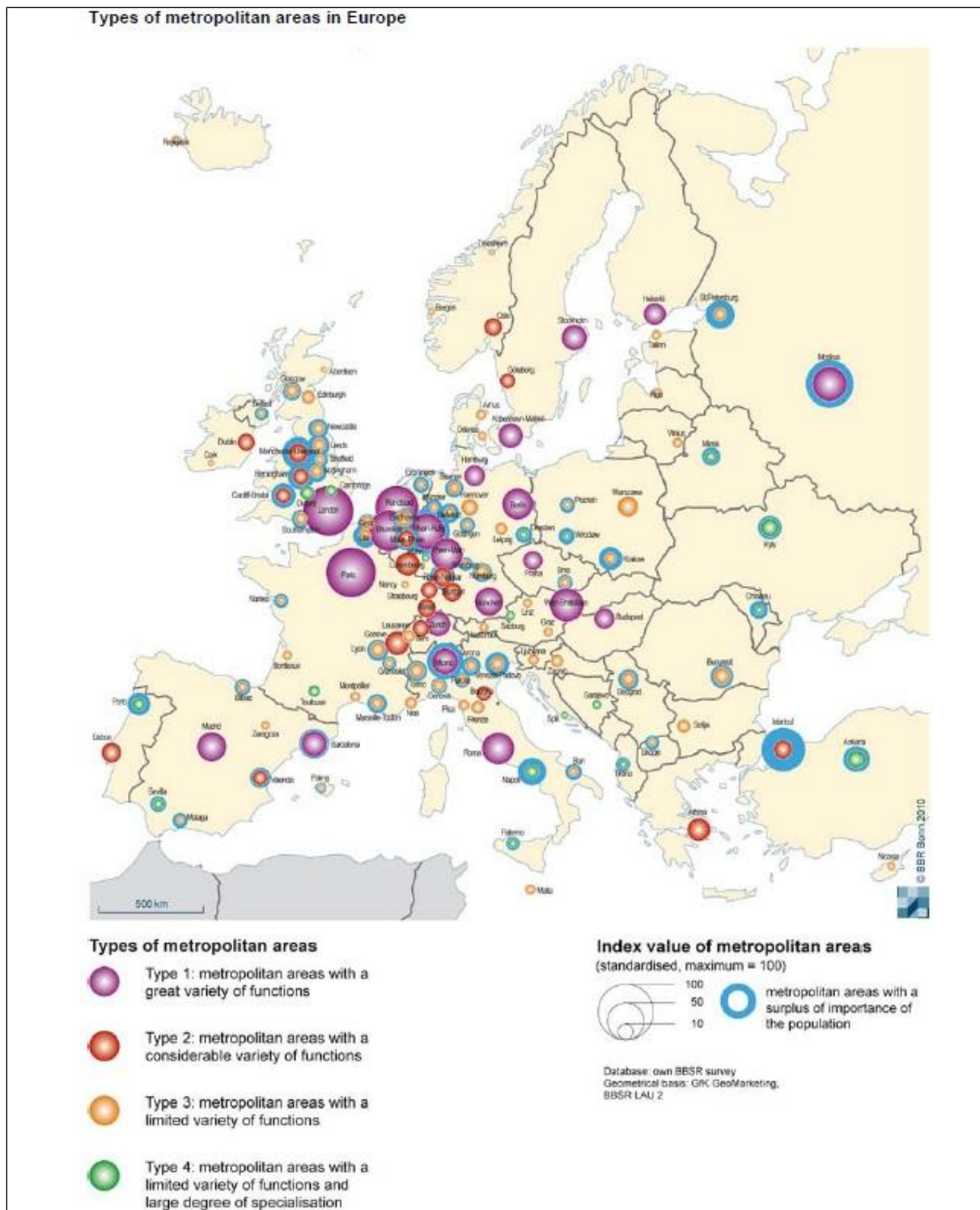


Fig. D5: Types of metropolitan areas in Europe
Source: BBSR (2011, 103)

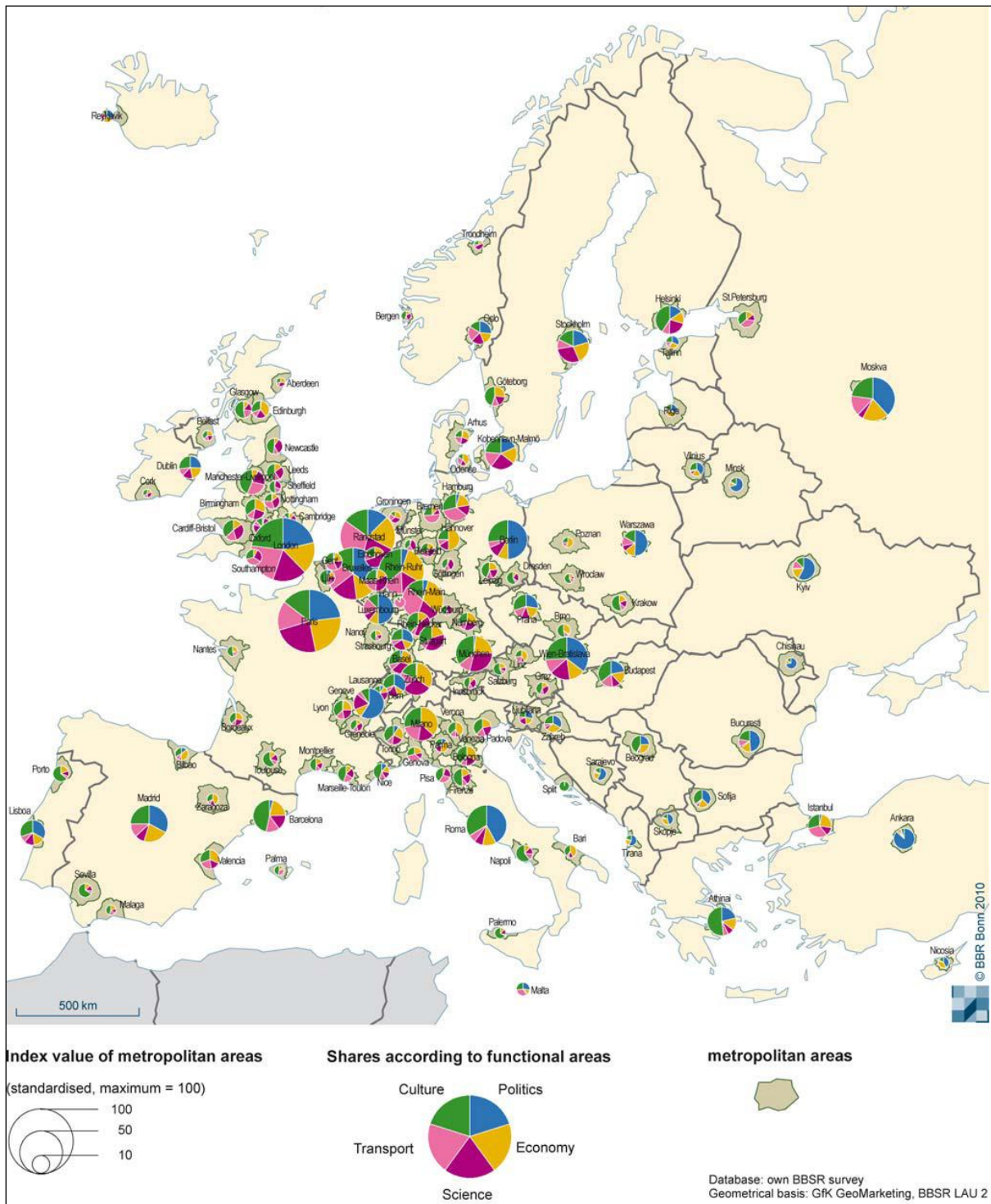


Fig. D6: Spatial distribution of metropolitan functions in Europe

Source: BBSR (2011, 84)

Spatial distribution of the functional area “economy”

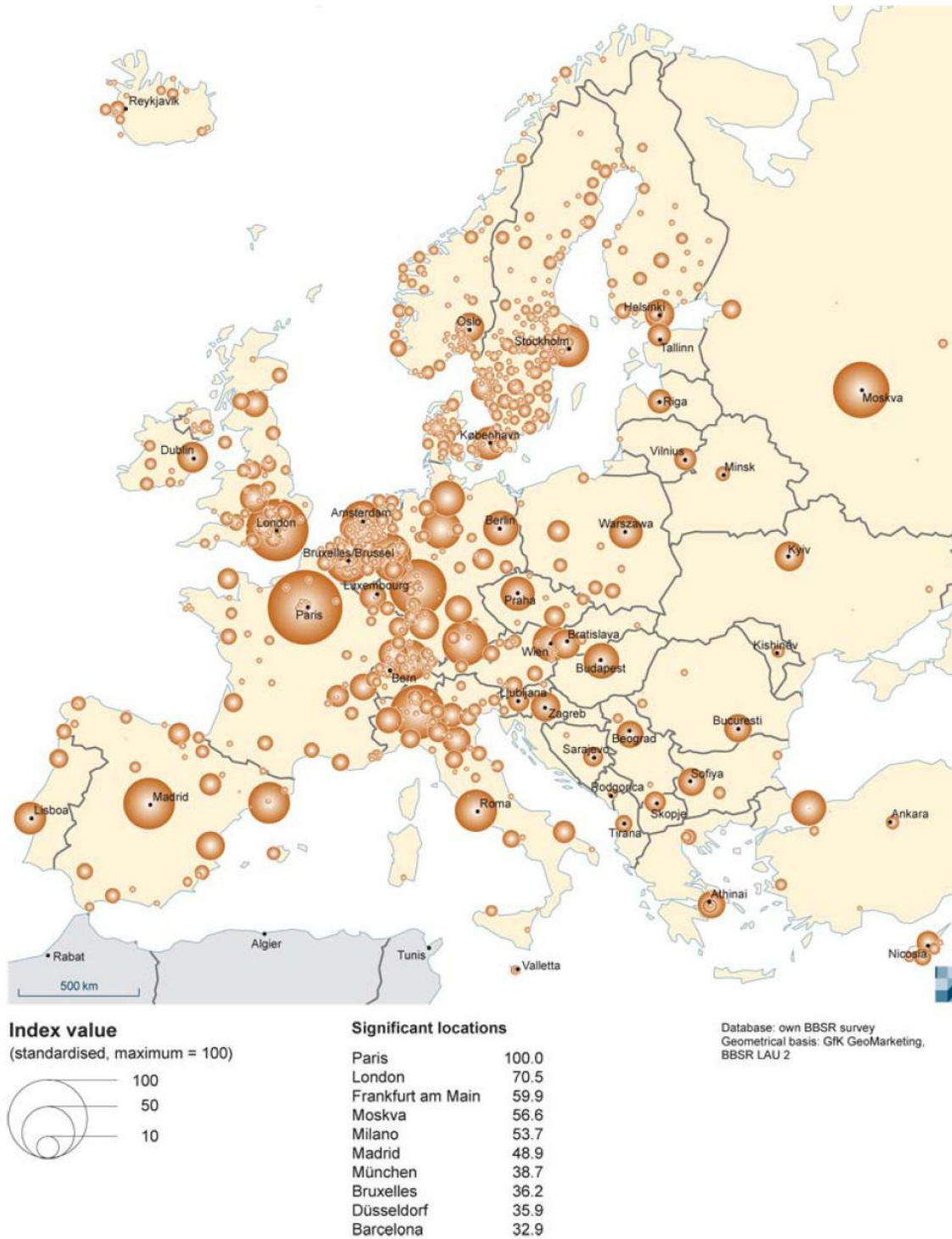


Fig. D7: Spatial distribution of the functional area “economy”

Source: BBSR (2011, 55)

Spatial distribution of the functional area “science”

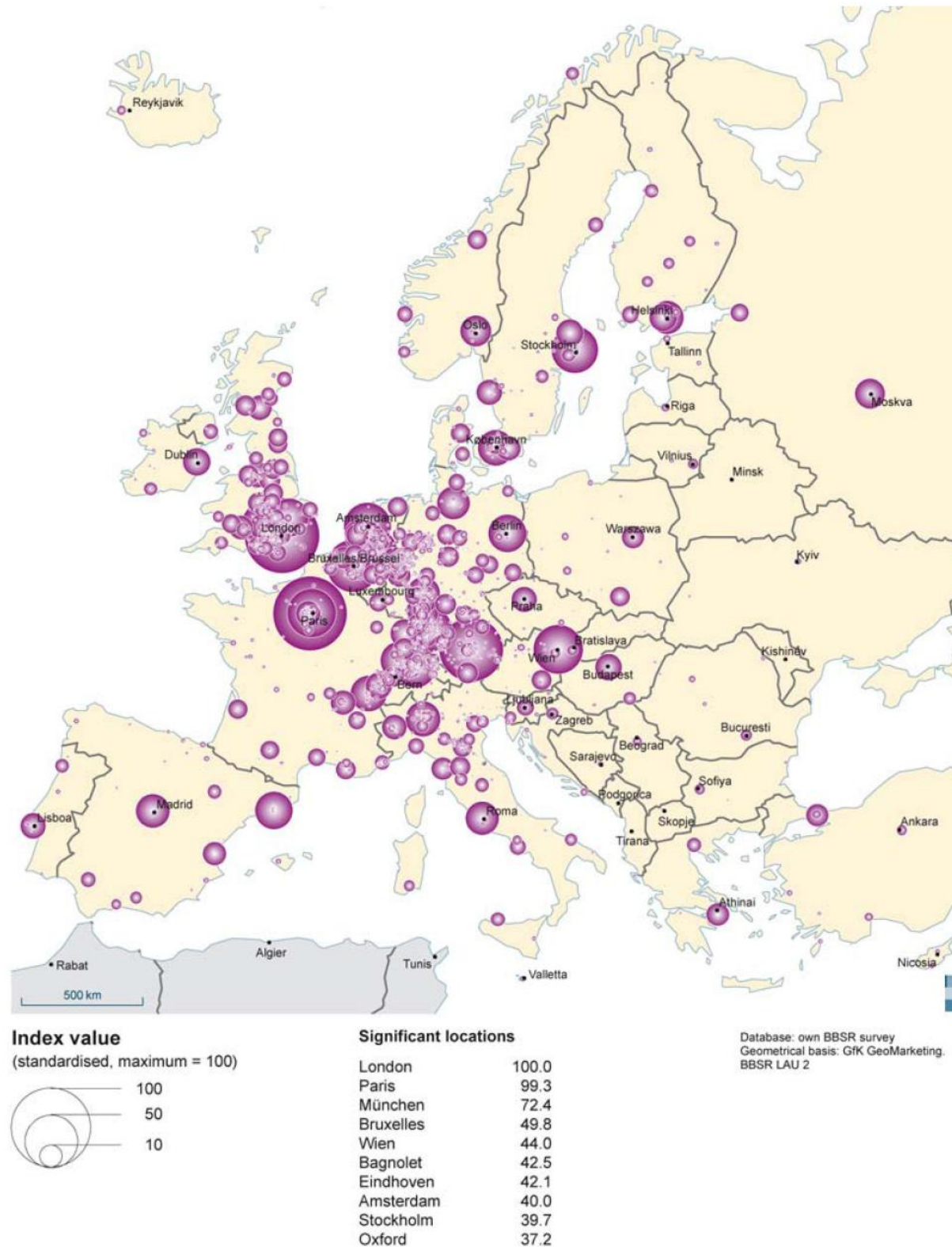
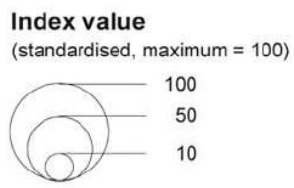
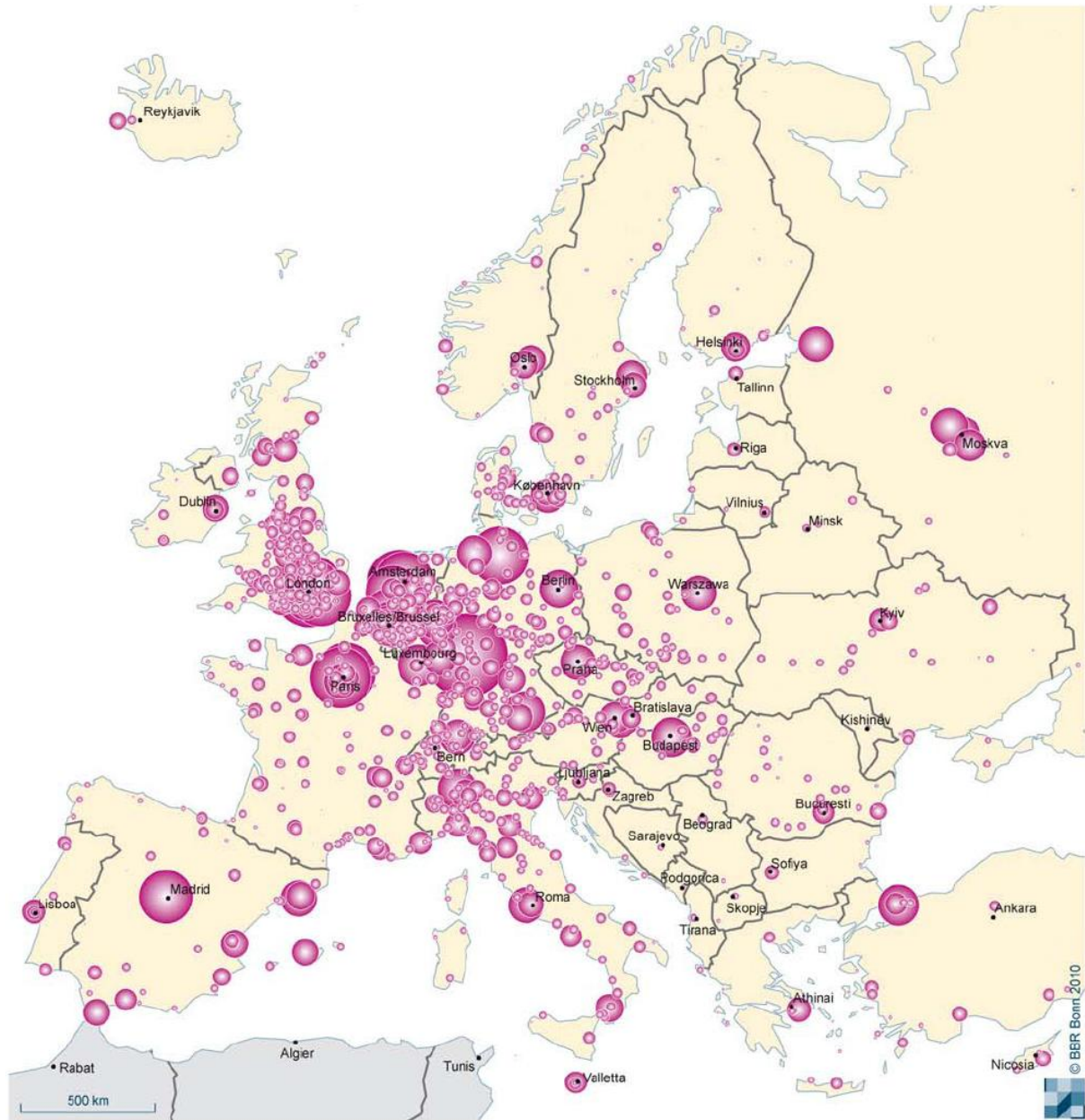


Fig. D8: Spatial distribution of the functional area “science”

Source: BBSR (2011, 63)

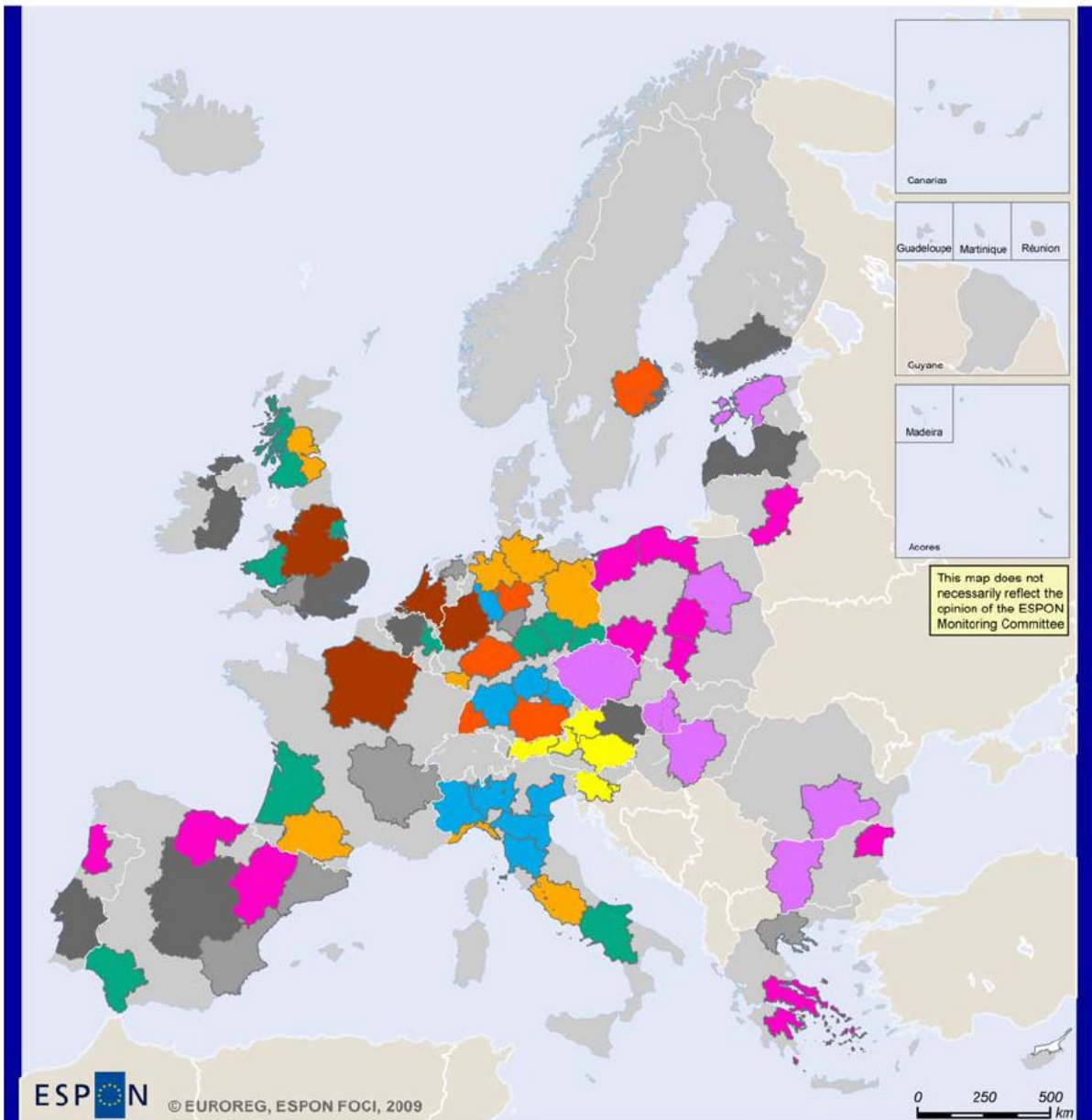
Spatial distribution of the metropolitan function “transport”



Significant locations	Index value
Frankfurt am Main	100.0
London	74.5
Amsterdam-Schiphol	63.6
Paris-Charles de Gaulle	53.8
London-Heathrow	53.6
Paris	53.4
Amsterdam	49.3
Hamburg	48.3
Rotterdam	43.2
Madrid	42.2

Database: own BBSR survey
Geometrical basis: GfK GeoMarketing,
BBSR LAU 2

Fig. D9: Spatial distribution of the metropolitan function “transport”
Source: BBSR (2011, 74)



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© Eurogeographics Association for administrative boundaries

Regional level: NUTS 3
Origin of data: ESPON project FOCI

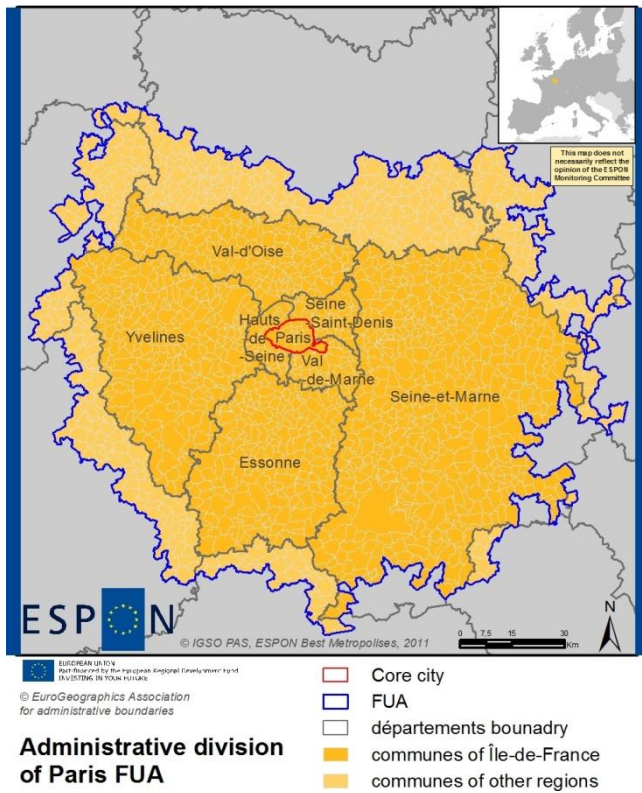
Source: ESPON 2013 Database

The most common types of metropolitan macroregions

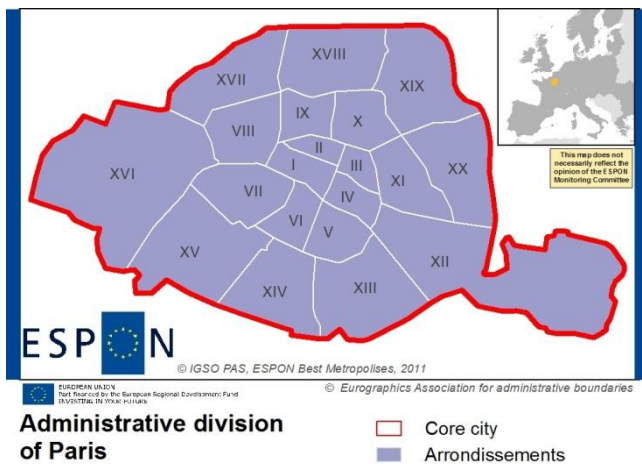
- 1. Monocentric service centers surrounded by regional hinterland with labour market problem (8)
- 2. Central service centers surrounded by industrialized regional hinterland (5)
- 3. Small service centre surrounded by mountain areas (5)
- 4. Polycentric metropolis in polycentric regions (4)
- 5. National growth poles surrounded by industrialised areas (9)
- 6. Restructuring cities in problem areas (10)
- 7. National growth poles surrounded by traditional rural areas (CEECs capitals) (7)
- 8. Smaller cities in peripheral areas (11)
- 9. Other macroregions – capital cities (8)
- 10. Other macroregion – non capital cities (7)

Fig. D10: Typology of metropolitan macroregions
Source: ESPON 2010, 22

D2. Paris, Berlin and Warsaw: selected information and comparisons

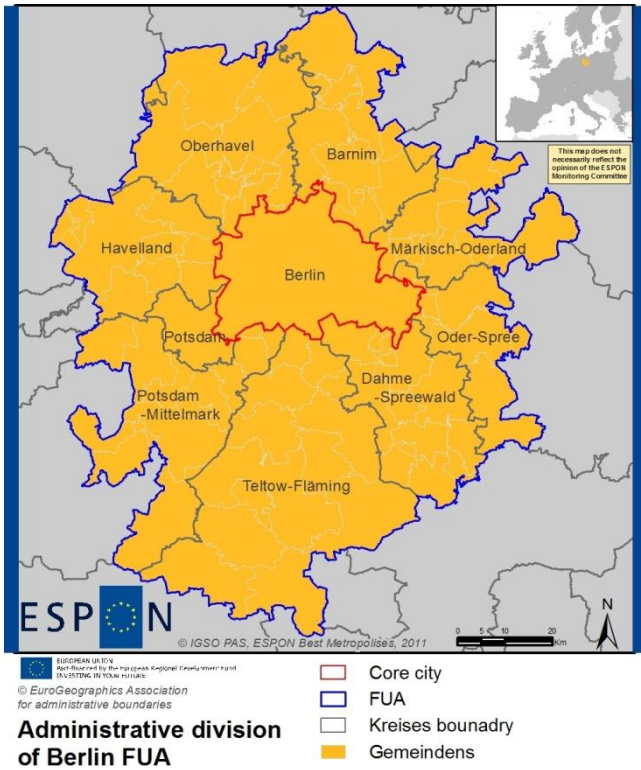


Name	Number of units	NUTS level
Région	Île-de-France + parts of 5 adjacent regions	NUTS 2
Départements	8 (within Île-de-France) plus 7 (only partially)	NUTS 3
Communes	1763 including 20 (districts) of Paris	LAU 2



Administrative division	Name of unit	Arrondissement
	No. of units (districts)	20
	Since when?	1859
No. of City Council members		163
District Council?		YES
No. of District Council members		354
Total no. of council members		517

Fig. D11: Administrative division of Paris FUA



Name	Number of units	NUTS level
Kraise	2 + 8 partially	NUTS 3
Gemeinden	98	LAU 2



Administrative division	Name of unit	Bezirke
	No. of units (district)	12
	Since when?	2001
No. of City Council members		141
District Council?		YES
No. of District Council members		72
Total no. of council members		213

Fig. D12: Administrative division of Berlin FUA

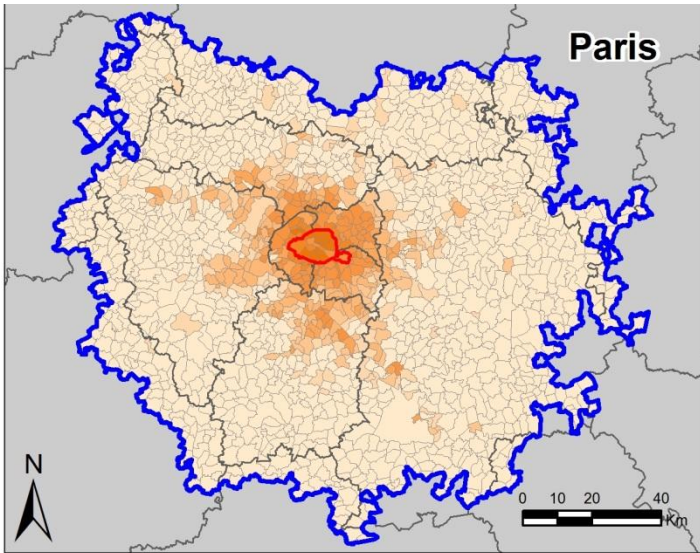


Name	Number of units	NUTS level
Powiat	6 + parts of 8 adjacent powiaty	LAU 1
Gmina	61	LAU 2



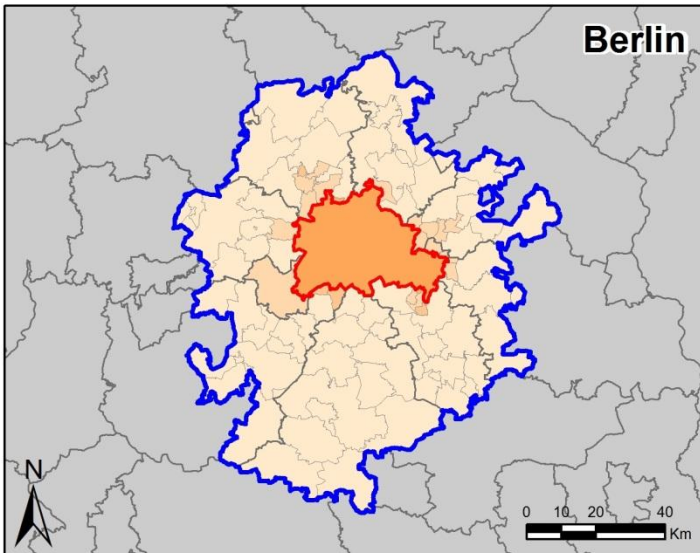
Administrative division	Name of unit	Dzielnica
	No. of units (districts)	18
	Since when?	2002
	No. of City Council members	60
District Council?		YES
No. of District Council members		409
Total no. of council members		469

Fig. D13: Administrative division of Warsaw FUA



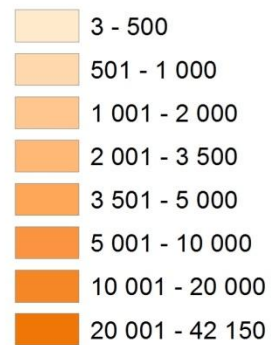
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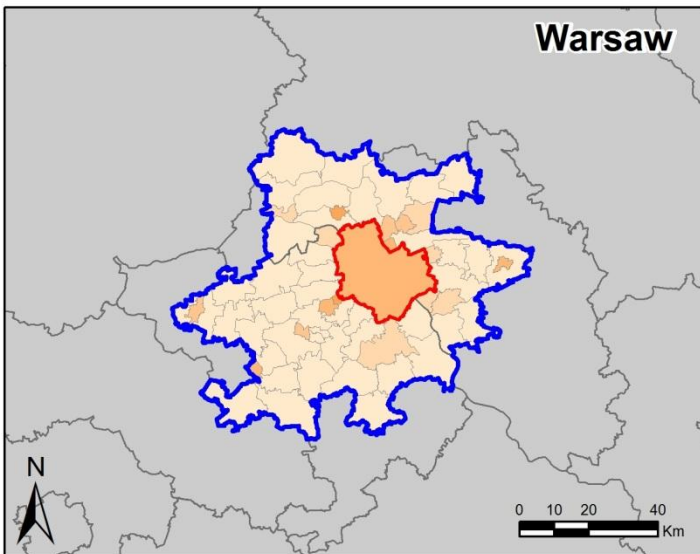


Population density

(inhabitants per km²)



- Core city
- FUA
- NUTS 3 region boundary



Level: LAU 2

Data sources:

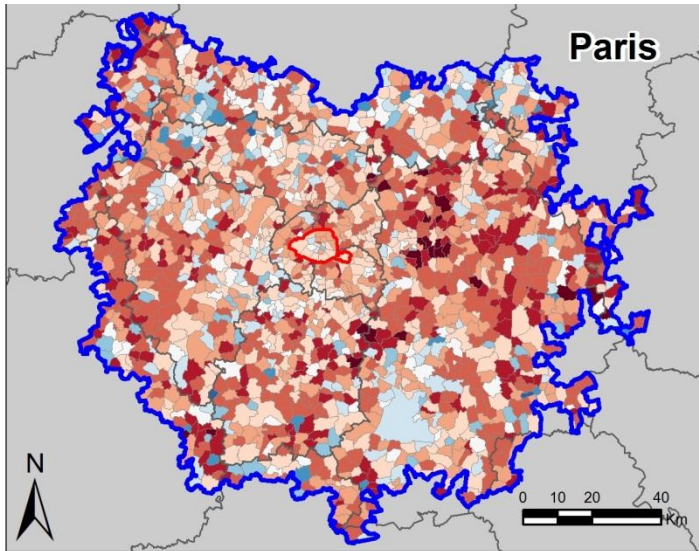
Insee, RP2008 exploitation principale for Paris,
Statistik Berlin-Brandenburg 2011 for Berlin and
GUS: Local Data Bank for Warsaw

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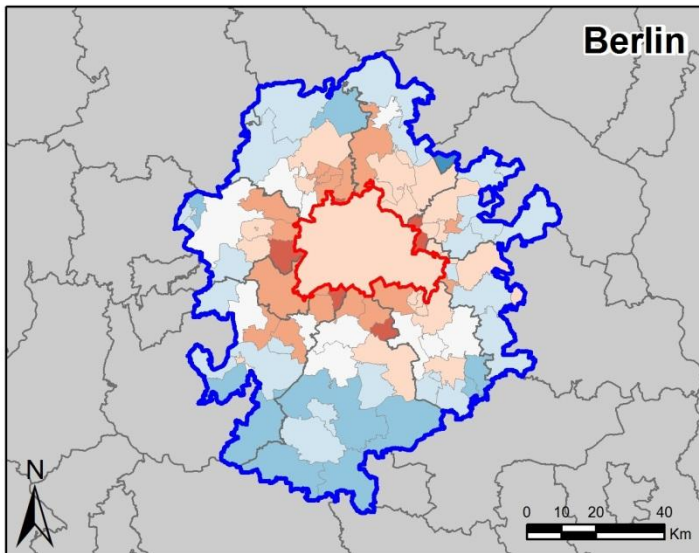
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Figure D14. Population density



ESPON

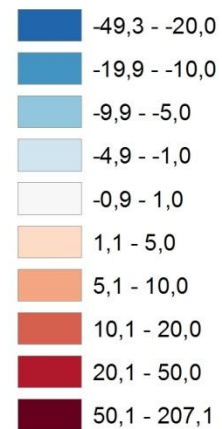
This map does not necessarily reflect the opinion of the ESPON Monitoring Committee



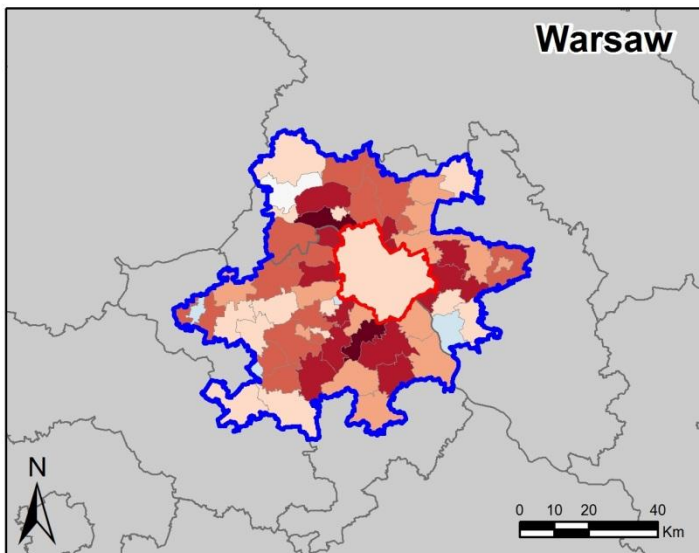
Population change

Paris: 1999 - 2008
 Berlin: 2005 - 2010
 Warsaw: 2000 - 2010

Paris: 1999 = 100%
 Berlin: 2005 = 100%
 Warsaw: 2000 = 100%



- Core city
- FUA
- NUTS 3 region boundary



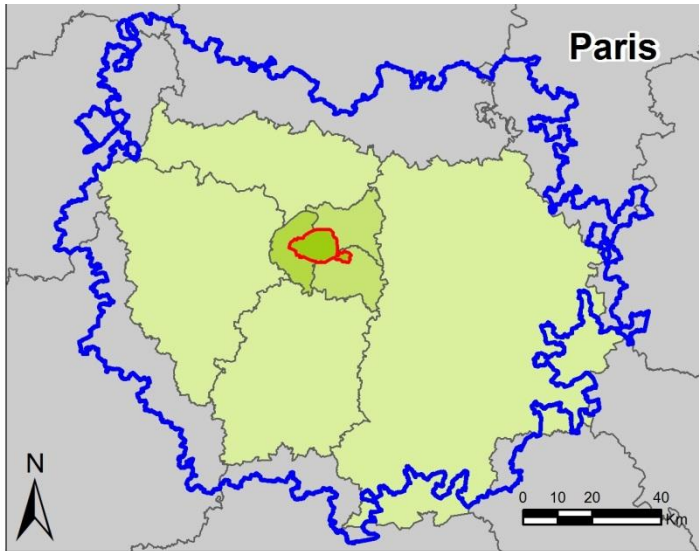
Level: LAU 2

Data sources:
 Insee, RP2008 exploitation principale for Paris,
 Statistik Berlin-Brandenburg 2011 for Berlin and
 GUS: Local Data Bank for Warsaw

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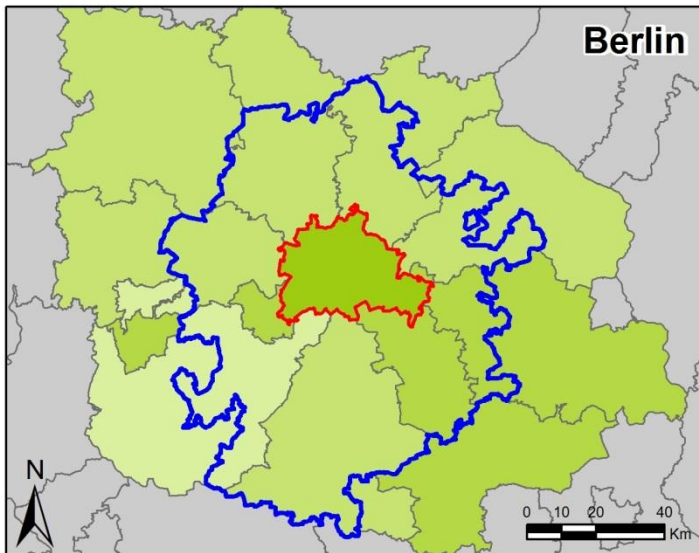
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Figure D15. Population change



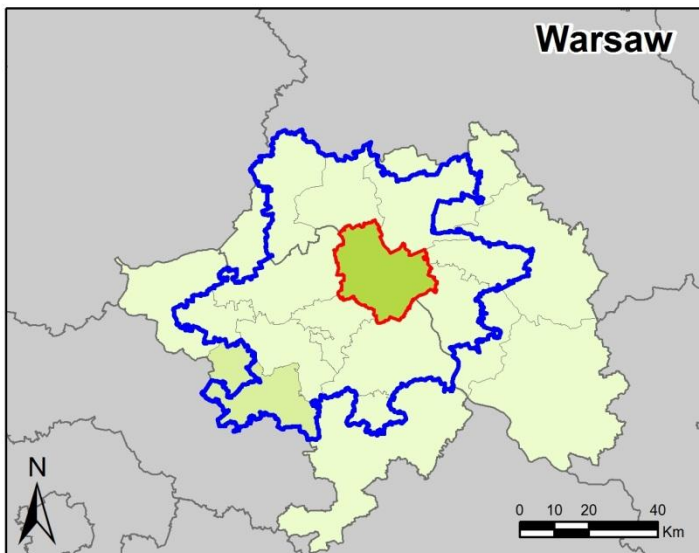
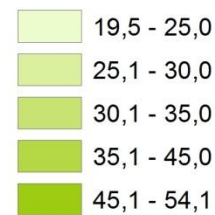
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Share of one-person households (%)

Paris: 2008
Berlin: 2009
Warsaw: 2002



- Core city
- FUA
- NUTS 3 region boundary

Level: NUTS 3, LAU 1 and FUA

Data sources:
Insee, RP2008 exploitation complémentaires for Paris,
Senatsverwaltung für Stadtentwicklung IV A2 Prakt for Berlin and
GUS: National Census of Population and Housing 2002 for Warsaw

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Figure D16. Share of one-person households

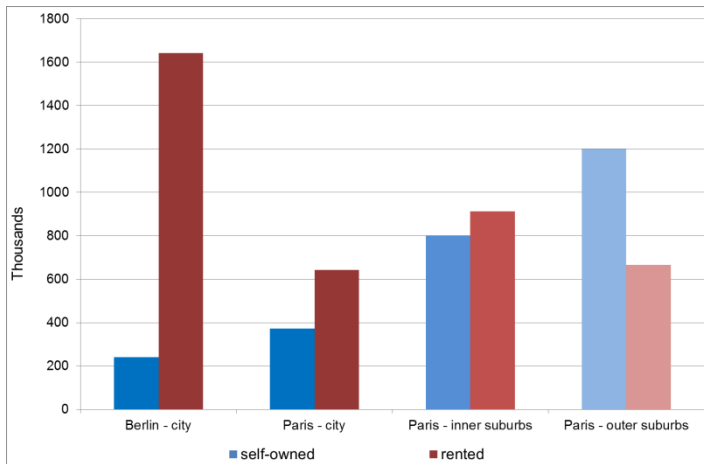


Figure D17. Dwellings according to ownership status in Paris and Berlin
 Source: INSEE, Enquête logement 2006, Datenerhebung SenStadt

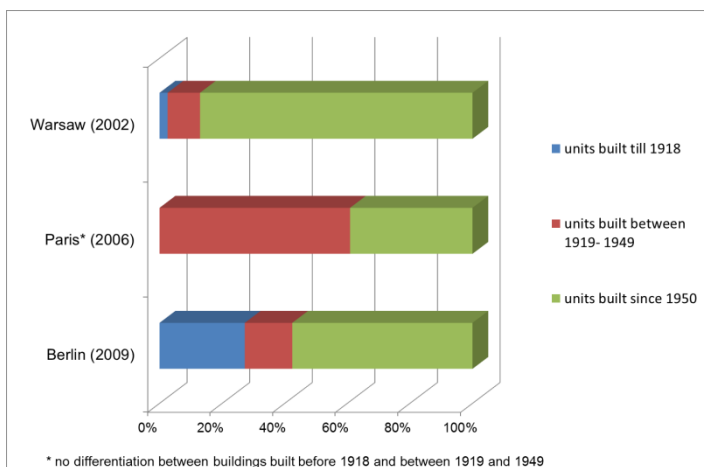


Figure D18: Share of housing units according to building age in the cities of Berlin, Paris and Warsaw
 Source: own calculations based on INSEE, Enquête logement 2006; Datenerhebung SenStadt Abt. IV A 1; Local Data Bank, GUS

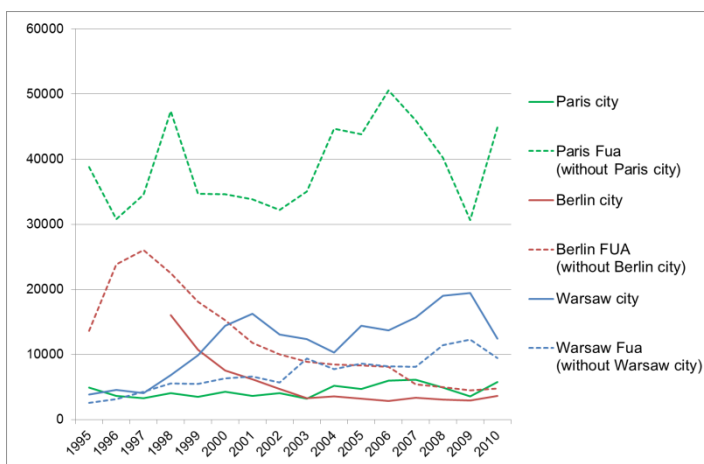


Figure D19: Number of new residential units
 Source: Ministère de l'Ecologie, du Développement durable, des Transports et du Logement; Statistische Ämter des Bundes und der Länder, 2011/2012; Local Data Bank, GUS

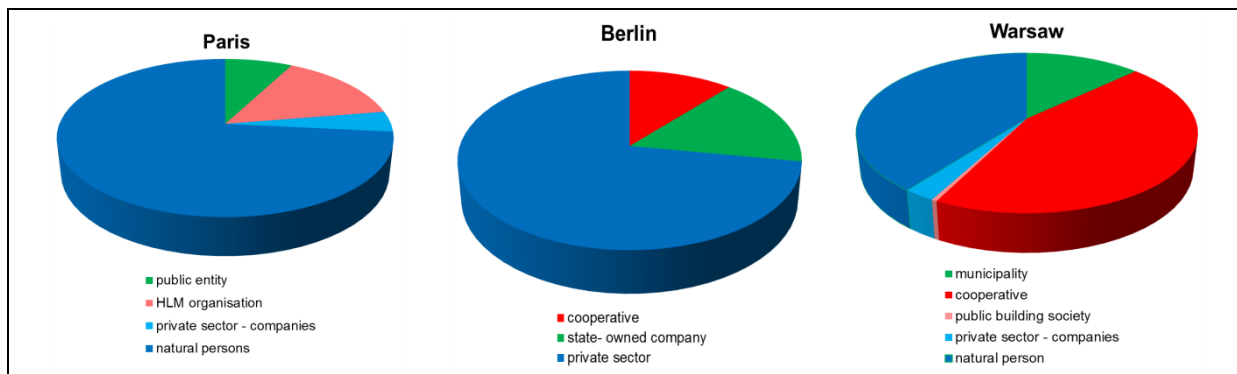


Figure D20. Ownership structures of housing units in Paris (2006), Berlin (2009) and Warsaw (2002)
 Source: INSEE, Enquête logement 2006; IBB Wohnungsmarktbericht, SenStadt; National Census of Population and Housing 2002, GUS

Tab. D1. Individual and public transport accessibility in Paris, Berlin and Warsaw metropolitan areas to three suburban cities

Metropolitan area	Direction	Suburban city	Population of the suburban city (thous.)	Distance to the centre of metropolitan area (km)	Road distance (km)	Average car travel time off-peak (min)*	Average car travel time (peak hours) (min)	Travel time (public transport) (min)
Paris	north-west	Argenteuil	103 (2008)	13	17	29	**	**
	south-west	Versailles	87 (2008)	17	30	34	**	30 (RER C)
	east	Noisy-Le-Grand	63 (2008)	14	18	21	**	**
Berlin	north-west	Hennigsdorf	26 (2010)	18	21	30	**	**
	south-west	Teltow	23 (2010)	17	21	29	**	**
	east	Nouenhagen bei Berlin	17 (2010)	19	22	27	**	**
Warsaw	north-west	Łomianki	17 (2010)	14	17	21	55	50 (BUS, METRO)
	south-west	Pruszków	57 (2010)	15	16	22	65	22 (KM; SKM), 27 (WKD)
	east	Sulejówek	19 (2007)	18	20	24	75	26 (KM; SKM)

* <http://czas.dojazd.org/>

**The gaps will be filled in the Draft Final Report.

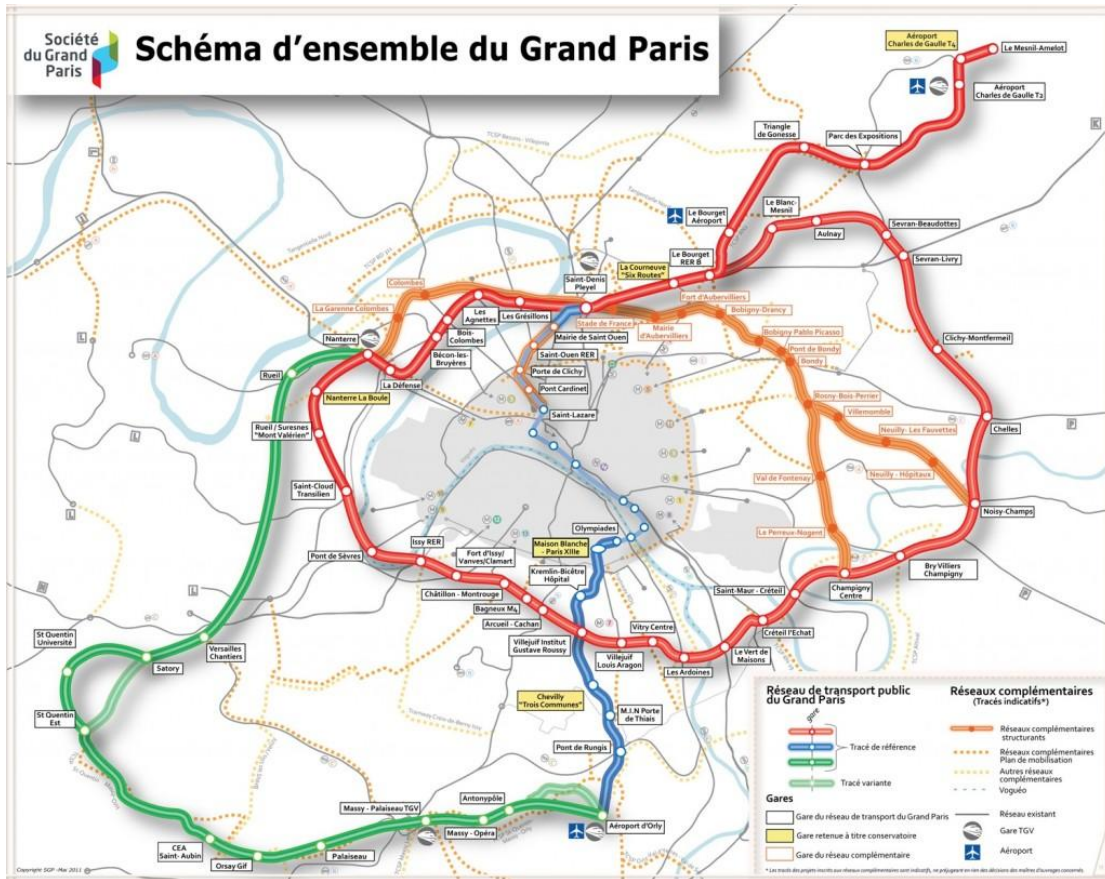


Fig. D21. Overall scheme of Grand Paris Express
 Source: http://www.societedugrandparis.fr/visuels/zoom/1319020838_she-final-26052011-labelgp-bd.jpg



Fig. D22. S-Bahn (including Ringbahn at the boundary of the city centre) and U-bahn lines and tariff zones in Berlin
 Source: http://u-bahnbilder.de/images/robert_moenchgesang.jpg

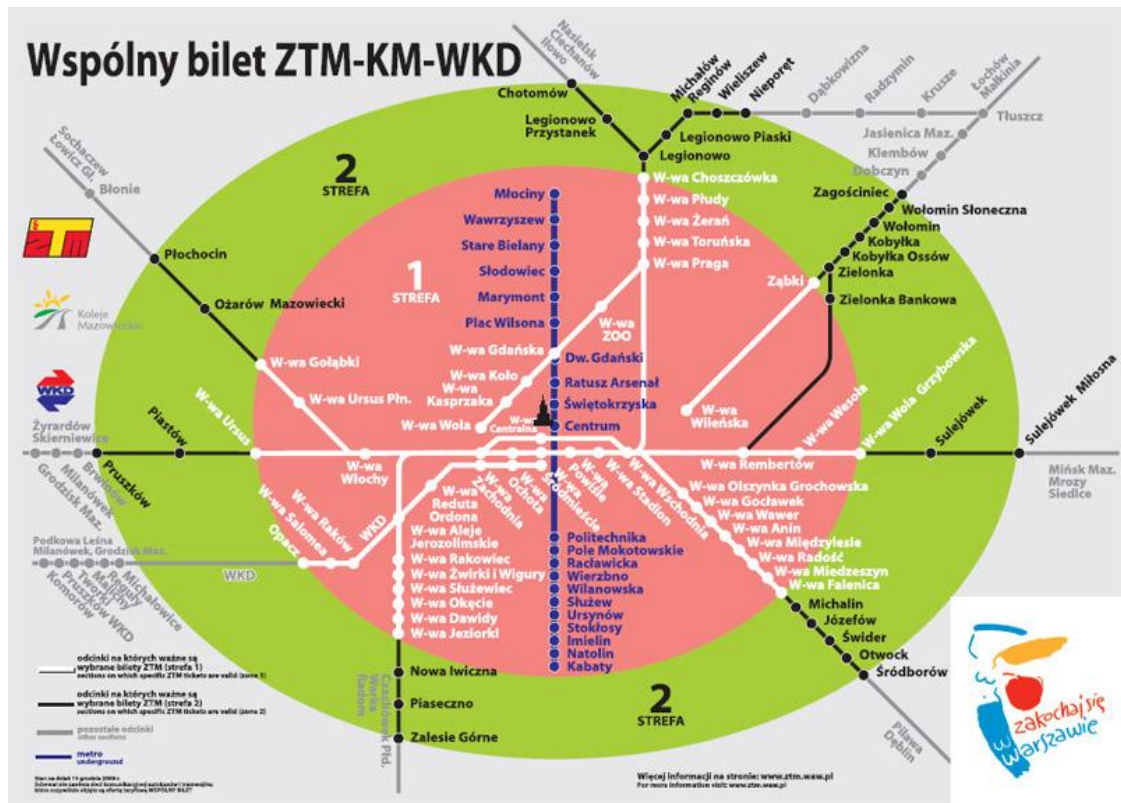


Fig. D23. ZTM-KM-WKD Integrated Ticket in Warsaw metropolitan area
 Source: <http://wawcity.pl/article.php?id=1883>.

Tab. D2. Population growth in Île-de-France region

Region	Population (1st of January 2006), thousands.	Average population growth rate (annual in %)			Average population growth rate: natural growth rate (annual in %)			Average population growth rate: net migration (annual in %)		
		1999- 2006	1982- 1999	1962- 1982	1999-2006	1982-1999	1962-1982	1999-2006	1982-1999	1962-1982
Paris	2,181.4	0.4	-0.1	-1.2	0.7	0.5	0.4	-0.4	-0.6	-1.6
Petite couronne (Inner suburbs)	4,326.4	1.0	0.2	0.6	1.0	0.9	0.8	0.0	-0.7	-0.2
Grande couronne (Outer suburbs)	5,024.6	0.7	1.1	2.9	0.9	0.9	1.0	-0.2	0.2	1.9
Communes de l'unité urbaine de Paris (Paris agglomeration)	3,635.2	0.6	0.9	3.1	0.9	1.0	1.1	-0.3	-0.1	2.0
Ile-de-France	11,532.4	0.7	0.5	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.8	-0.2	-0.3	0.1
Province (other regions)	49,867.1	0.7	0.4	0.8	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.4	0.1	0.3
France	61,399.5	0.7	0.4	0.8	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.3	0.1	0.2

Source: Insee, recensements de la population 1962, 1982, 1999 et 2006 ; état civil 1962-2005

Tab. D3. Directions of inflows and outflows to Berlin in 2010 by regions.

State of origin destination	In-migration		Out-migration		Migration balance
	total	%	total	%	total
Baden-Württemberg	7 291	4,9	5 221	4,0	2 070
Bayern	8 196	5,5	6 242	4,8	1 954
Bremen	1 105	0,7	674	0,5	431
Hamburg	3 470	2,3	2 794	2,1	676
Hessen	5 047	3,4	3 544	2,7	1 503
Mecklenburg-Vorpommern	4 281	2,9	2 802	2,1	1 479
Niedersachsen	6 761	4,6	4 888	3,7	1 873
Rheinland-Pfalz	2 170	1,5	1 331	1,0	839
Saarland	504	0,3	313	0,2	191
Sachsen	5 409	3,7	3 195	2,4	2 214
Sachsen-Anhalt	3 387	2,3	1 910	1,5	1 477
Schleswig-Holstein	2 807	1,9	2 477	1,9	330
Thüringen	2 155	1,5	1 293	1,0	862
Germany (total)	88 158	59,7	70 168	53,6	17 990
including Brandenburg	24 115	16,3	25 853	19,7	- 1 738
including Nordrhein-Westfalen	11 460	7,8	7 631	5,8	3 829
Foreign countries (total)	59 611	40,3	60 783	46,4	- 1 172
Total (Germany and foreign countries)	147 769	100,0	130 951	100,0	16 818

Source: Insee, recensements de la population 1962, 1982, 1999 et 2006 ; état civil 1962-2005

Tab. D4. Basic directions of migration flows in Berlin by districts in 2010.

District	In-migration		Out-migration		Migration balance		
	total	of which across the state border	total	of which across the state border	total	as a result of	
						internal	external
						migration	
Mitte	41 429	24 956	42 894	22 943	- 1 465	- 3 478	2 013
Friedrichshain-Kreuzberg	31 434	17 646	31 775	14 105	- 341	- 3 882	3 541
Pankow	30 580	16 787	26 793	12 759	3 787	- 241	4 028
Charlottenburg-Wilmersdorf	27 269	14 472	26 140	12 629	1 129	- 714	1 843
Spandau	15 296	8 162	12 232	5 747	3 064	649	2 415
Steglitz-Zehlendorf	22 000	10 893	18 969	9 980	3 031	2 118	913
Tempelhof-Schöneberg	26 214	11 734	24 732	10 282	1 482	30	1 452
Neukölln	26 843	13 222	27 434	14 629	- 591	816	- 1 407
Treptow-Köpenick	14 907	6 858	13 010	6 432	1 897	1 471	426
Marzahn-Hellersdorf	14 662	6 779	12 863	6 415	1 799	1 435	364
Lichtenberg	20 619	9 699	18 896	8 477	1 723	501	1 222
Reinickendorf	15 204	6 561	13 901	6 553	1 303	1 295	8
Berlin	286 457	147 769	269 639	130 951	16 818	-	16 818

Source: Statistik Berlin-Brandenburg.

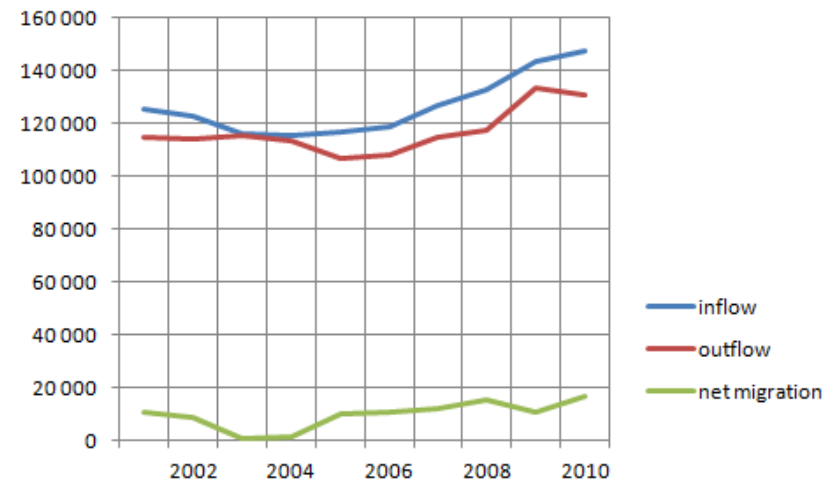


Fig. D24. Crude registered in-flow, out-flow and net-migration in Berlin, 2001-2010.
 Source: Statistik Berlin-Brandenburg.

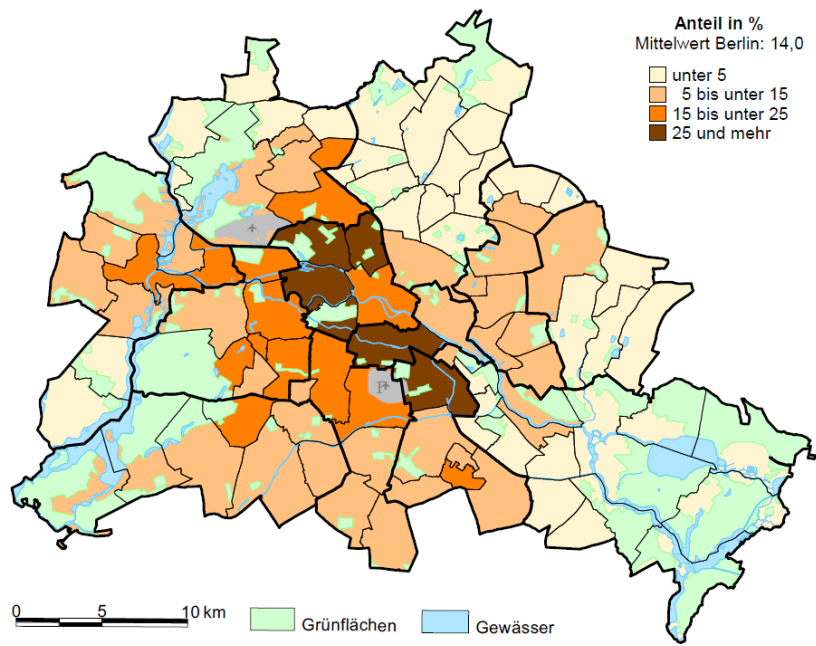


Fig. D25. Share of immigrants in total population, 2010.
Source: Statistik Berlin-Brandenburg

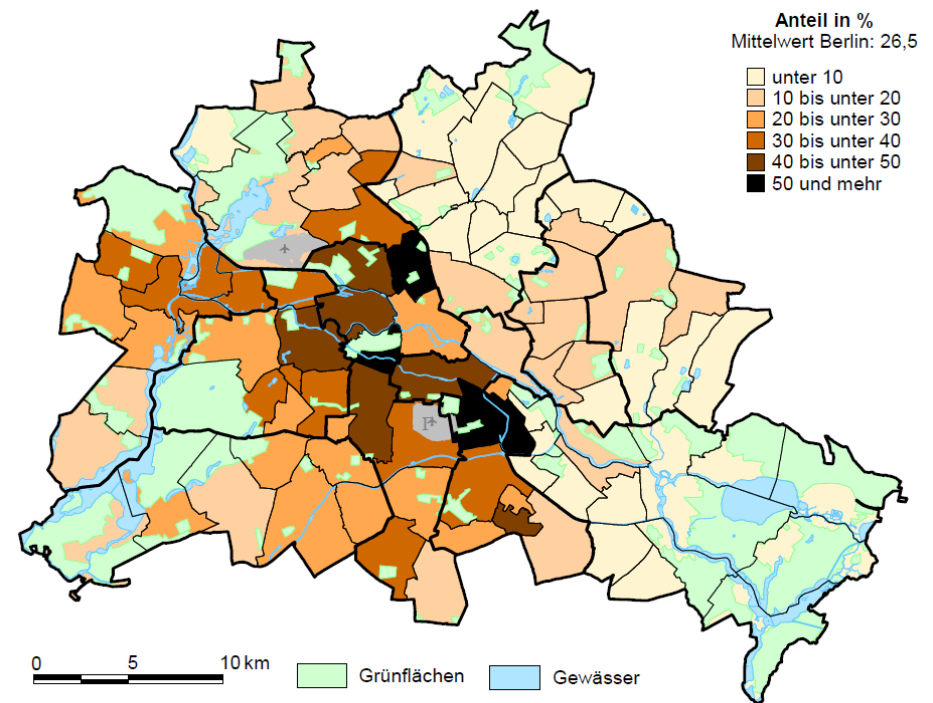


Fig. D26. Share of population with immigrant backgrounds in total population, 2010.
Source: Statistik Berlin-Brandenburg

Tab. D5. Crude registered migration in Warsaw's districts according to direction of origin and destination (without internal displacements).

District	Internal in-migration (Poland)		External in-migration (other countries)		Internal out-migration (Poland)		External out-migration (other countries)		Internal net-migration (Poland)		External net-migration (other countries)	
	2005	2010	2005	2010	2005	2010	2005	2010	2005	2010	2005	2010
Bemowo	1,419	1,810	12	46	1,006	1,202	0	22	413	608	12	24
Białołęka	2,809	2,204	36	44	603	1,047	48	26	2,206	1,157	-12	18
Bielany	1,277	1,080	49	49	1,012	1,098	77	28	265	-18	-28	21
Mokotów	2,542	2,051	82	122	1,891	1,939	0	78	651	112	82	44
Ochota	953	791	41	51	689	710	43	16	264	81	-2	35
Praga-Południe	2,028	1,502	44	66	1,428	1,534	49	30	600	-32	-5	36
Praga-Północ	809	547	36	22	486	624	13	7	323	-77	23	15
Rembertów	369	217	0	3	184	198	0	0	185	19	0	3
Śródmieście	1,056	860	68	101	993	993	8	27	63	-133	60	74
Targówek	1,130	1,243	7	18	896	1,149	15	14	234	94	-8	4
Ursus	1,140	1,012	12	13	435	675	9	1	705	337	3	12
Ursynów	2,160	1,590	44	58	1,213	1,538	0	18	947	52	44	40
Wawer	609	655	29	31	269	446	0	4	340	209	29	27
Wesoła	327	226	2	7	151	162	0	0	176	64	2	7
Wilanów	217	671	9	32	108	141	0	3	109	530	9	29
Włochy	510	461	6	16	334	364	4	2	176	97	2	14
Wola	1,337	1,431	39	49	1,037	1,047	0	27	300	384	39	22
Żoliborz	511	387	30	27	466	379	0	4	45	8	30	23
Warsaw (total)	21,203	18,738	546	755	13,201	15,246	266	307	8,002	3,492	280	448

Source: Local Data Bank, GUS

Tab. D6. Relative registered migration in Warsaw's districts according to direction of origin and destination (without internal displacements).

District	Internal in-migration (Poland)		External in-migration (other countries)		Internal out-migration (Poland)		External out-migration (other countries)		Internal net-migration (Poland)		External net-migration (other countries)	
	2005	2010	2005	2010	2005	2010	2005	2010	2005	2010	2005	2010
Bemowo	13.4	15.8	0.11	0.40	9.5	10.5	0.00	0.19	3.9	5.3	0.11	0.21
Białołęka	37.6	23.8	0.48	0.47	8.1	11.3	0.64	0.28	29.6	12.5	-0.16	0.19
Bielany	9.4	8.1	0.36	0.37	7.5	8.2	0.57	0.21	2.0	-0.1	-0.21	0.16
Mokotów	11.2	9.1	0.36	0.54	8.3	8.6	0.00	0.35	2.9	0.5	0.36	0.20
Ochota	10.4	8.9	0.45	0.57	7.5	8.0	0.47	0.18	2.9	0.9	-0.02	0.39
Praga-Południe	10.9	8.3	0.24	0.36	7.7	8.4	0.26	0.16	3.2	-0.2	-0.03	0.20
Praga-Północ	11.0	7.7	0.49	0.31	6.6	8.8	0.18	0.10	4.4	-1.1	0.31	0.21
Rembertów	16.3	9.3	0.00	0.13	8.1	8.4	0.00	0.00	8.2	0.8	0.00	0.13
Śródmieście	7.8	6.9	0.50	0.81	7.3	8.0	0.06	0.22	0.5	-1.1	0.44	0.59
Targówek	9.2	10.1	0.06	0.15	7.3	9.3	0.12	0.11	1.9	0.8	-0.07	0.03
Ursus	24.4	19.8	0.26	0.25	9.3	13.2	0.19	0.02	15.1	6.6	0.06	0.23
Ursynów	15.1	10.6	0.31	0.39	8.5	10.3	0.00	0.12	6.6	0.3	0.31	0.27
Wawer	9.3	9.2	0.44	0.44	4.1	6.3	0.00	0.06	5.2	2.9	0.44	0.38
Wesoła	16.1	9.8	0.10	0.30	7.4	7.0	0.00	0.00	8.7	2.8	0.10	0.30
Wilanów	14.7	32.0	0.61	1.52	7.3	6.7	0.00	0.14	7.4	25.3	0.61	1.38
Włochy	12.8	11.5	0.15	0.40	8.4	9.1	0.10	0.05	4.4	2.4	0.05	0.35
Wola	9.4	10.4	0.27	0.36	7.3	7.6	0.00	0.20	2.1	2.8	0.27	0.16
Żoliborz	10.3	8.1	0.61	0.56	9.4	7.9	0.00	0.08	0.9	0.2	0.61	0.48
Warsaw (total)	12.5	10.9	0.32	0.44	7.8	8.9	0.16	0.18	4.7	2.0	0.16	0.26

Source: Local Data Bank, GUS

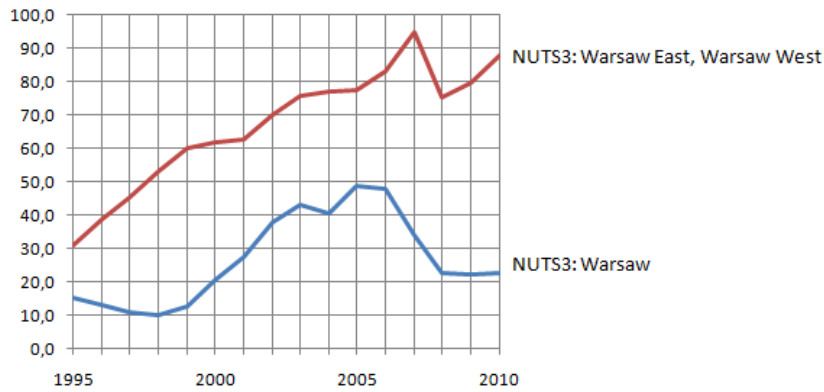


Fig. D27. Registered crude net-migration in Warsaw and external zones, 1995-2010 (thousands)

Source: Local Data Bank, GUS

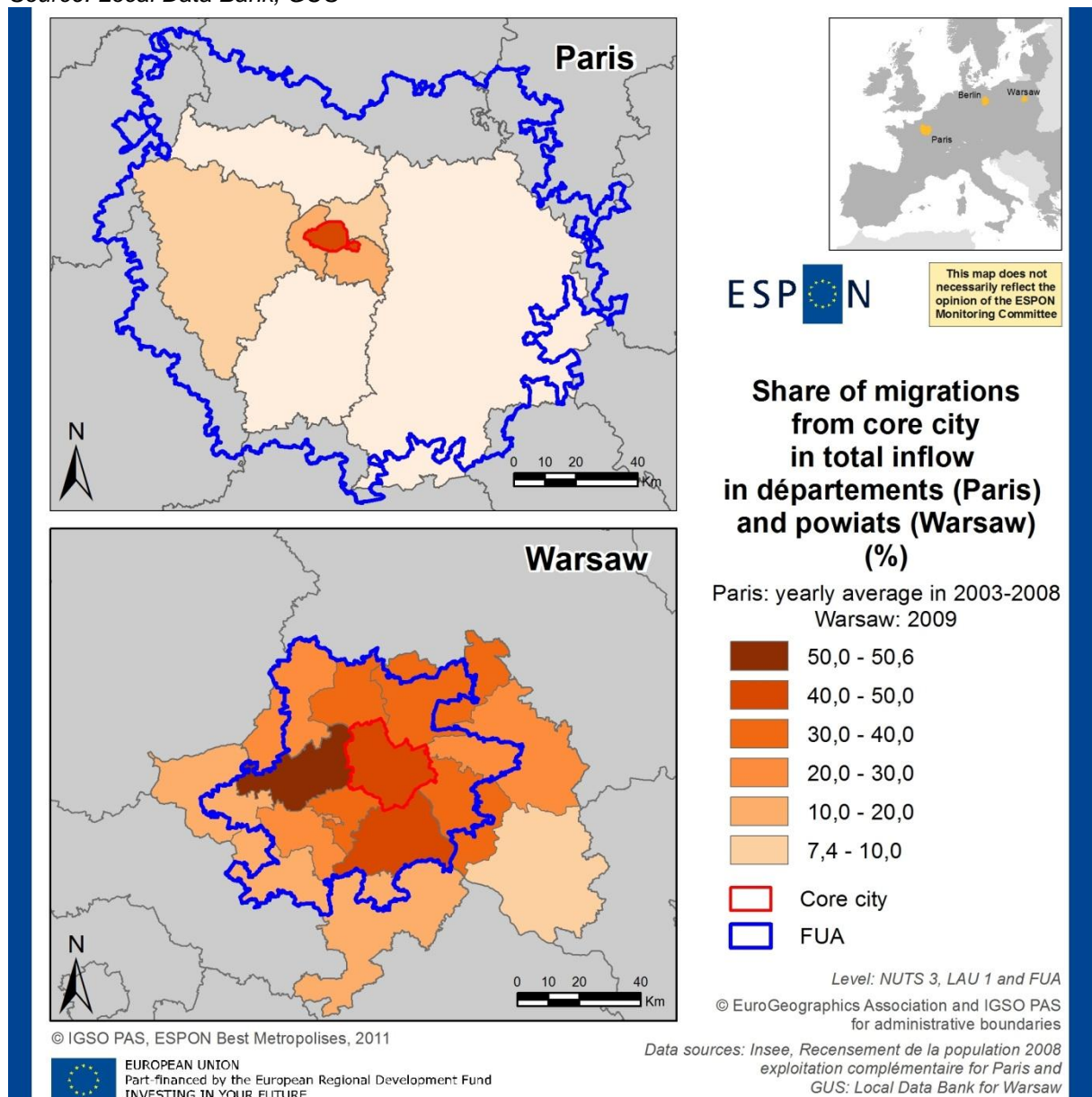


Fig. D28. Share of migrations from core city in total inflow in départements (Paris) and powiats (Warsaw)

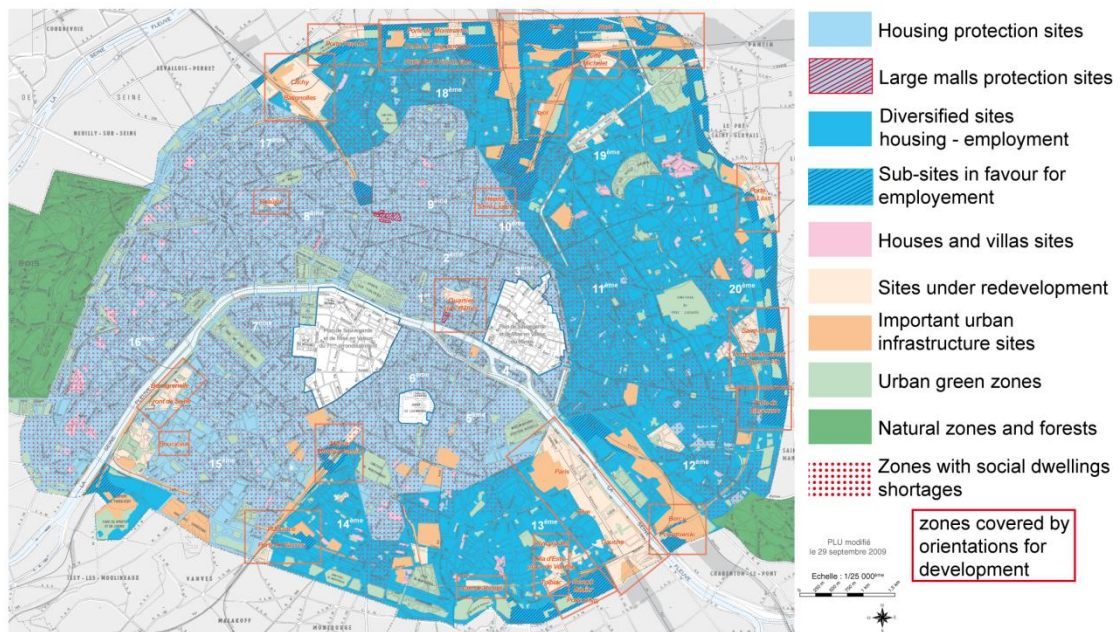


Fig. D29. Local urban plan of Paris (PLU): synthesis of directions for spatial organization (2009)
 Source: *Plan Local d'Urbanisme de Paris, modifié le 29 septembre 2009.*

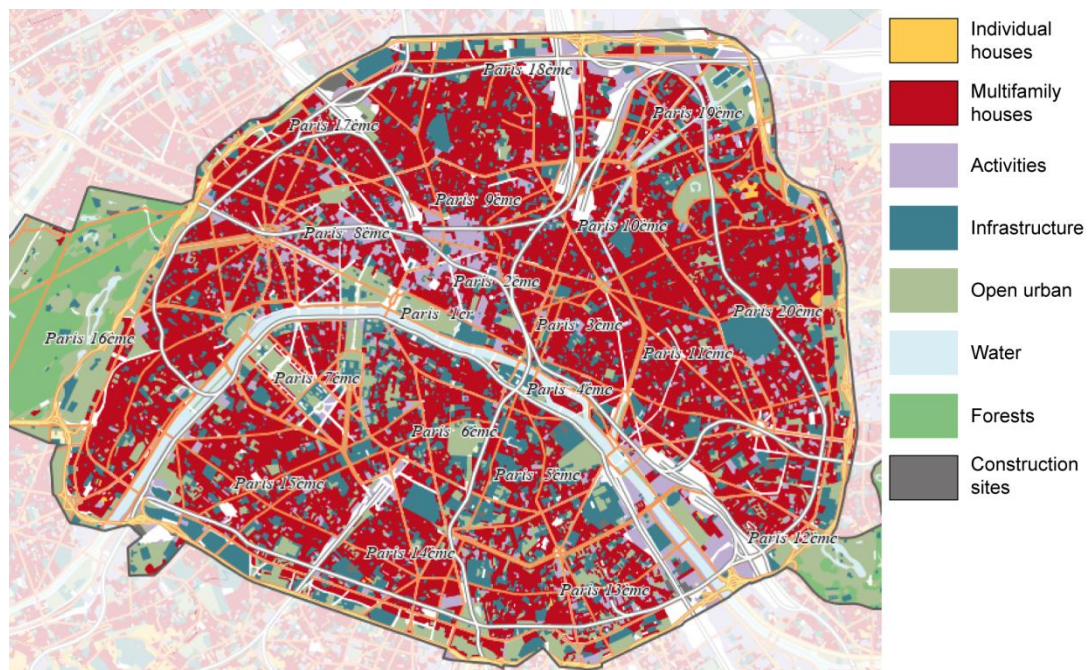


Fig. D30. Land use in Paris: simplified structure (2008)
 Source: *IAU idf, Occupation du sol 2008.*

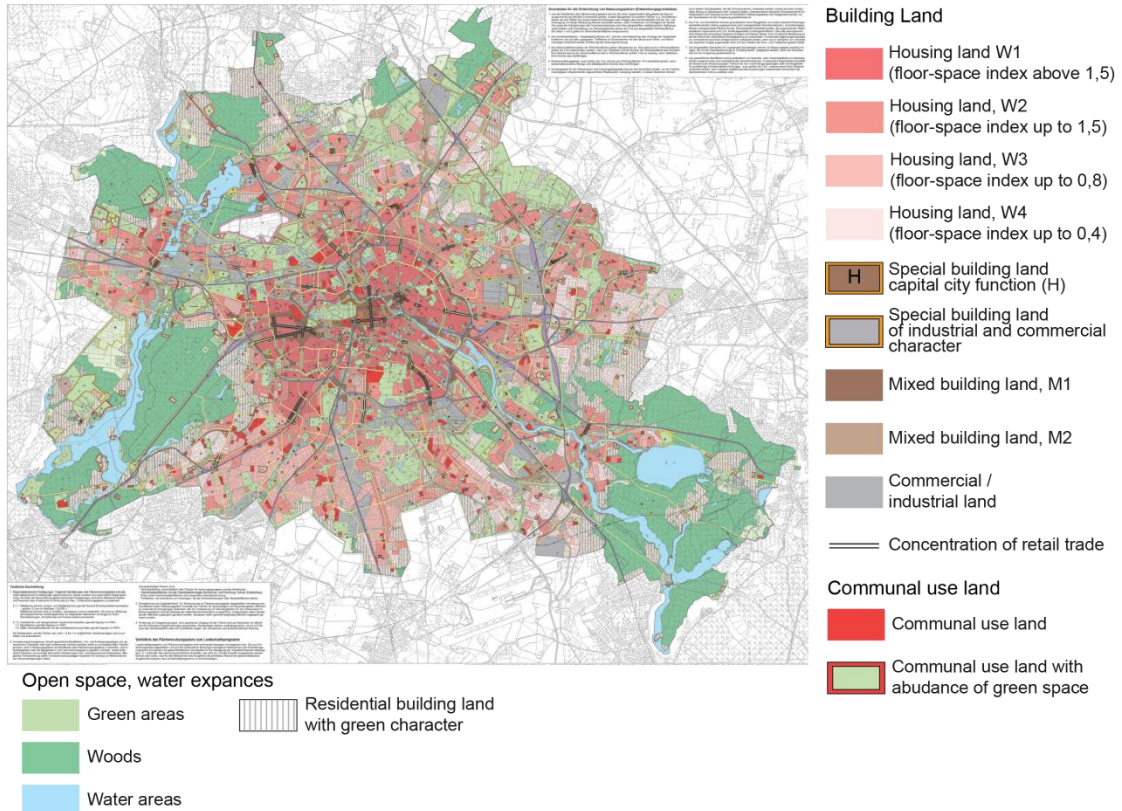


Fig. D31. Preparatory land-use plan of Berlin (2009)
 Source: *Flächennutzungs Plan Berlin, stand November 2009*

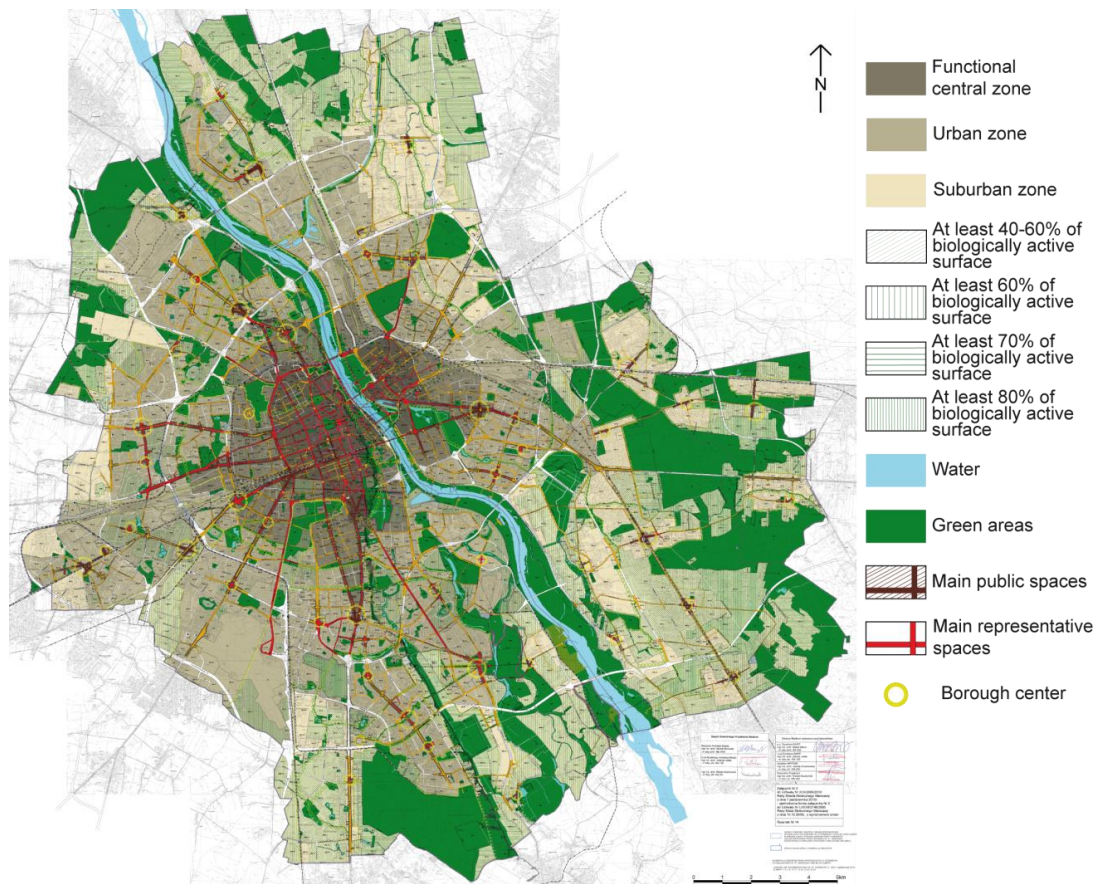


Fig. D32. Functional and spatial structure: directions for spatial organization in Warsaw (2006).

Source: *Studium Uwarunkowań i Kierunków Zagospodarowania Przestrzennego m.st. Warszawy, Rys. nr 14.*

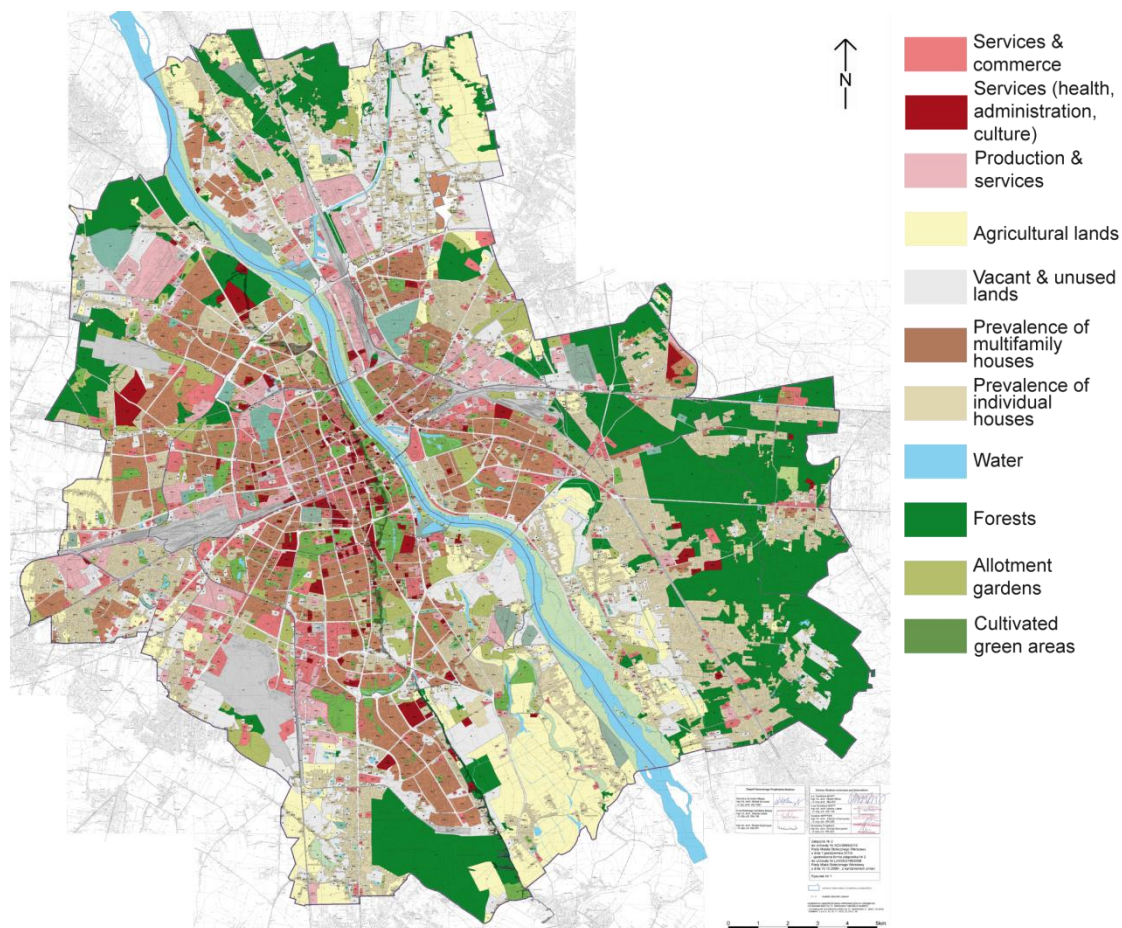


Fig. D33. Functional and spatial structure: land use structure in Warsaw (2006).
 Source: *Studium Uwarunkowań i Kierunków Zagospodarowania Przestrzennego m.st. Warszawy, Rys. nr 1.*

Annex E. Housing policies and life quality

E1. Legal regulations with respect to the affordability of housing

Table E1. Paris

Legal Basis	Original title	Content
Reform concerning Housing Funding	La réforme du financement du logement sous la conduite de Raymond Barre 1977	Change from construction subsidies to personal, direct subsidies for households (PLAI, PLA – replaced in 1999 by PLUS, PLS); support for becoming home owners; system of contracts (<i>conventionnement</i>) between the State and social housing providers;
Laws on decentralisation	Lois de décentralisation, 1982	Local authorities became responsible for local planning and social housing; Local Housing Programs (Programme Local de l'Habitat, PLH) were created in 1983;
Law Besson	Loi Besson du 31 mai 1990	The right to housing is a duty of solidarity for the whole society; local authorities are required to address the housing problems (funds to assist poor inhabitants)
Law on orientations for cities	Loi d'orientation pour la ville (LOV) du 13 juillet 1991	To support social cohesion and to fight against segregation and against concentration of social dwellings; role of PLH (Local Housing Programmes) was reinforced;
Law of November 14, 1996	Pacte de Relance pour la Ville du 19 juin 1996	Three types of special zones were created: 700 Sensitive Urban Zones (Zones Urbaines Sensibles, ZUS), 350 Urban Zones (Zones de Redynamisation Urbaine, ZRU) and 38 Urban tax-free zones (Zones Franches Urbaines, ZFU)
Law on Solidarity and Urban renewal, SRU	la loi relative à la solidarité et au renouvellement urbain de décembre 2000 (loi SRU)	20% of social housing on the territory of municipalities with more than 3 500 inhabitants (1 500 in IDF region) in agglomerations with more than 50 000 inhabitants; Local Urban Plan (Plan Local d'Urbanisme, PLU) replaced the former Land Use Plans (Plan d'Occupation du Sol, POS);
Act Borloo	Loi d'orientation et de programmation pour la ville et la rénovation urbaine, Loi Borloo, 2003	5-years program was initiated within each ZUS in order to archive certain quantitative results; 200 000 new social dwellings during 2004-2008, 200 000 social dwellings renovated; 2,5 billion €; National Observatory for ZUS was established in order to monitor their development;
Law on National Engagement in Housing, ENL	Loi du 13 juillet portant Engagement National pour le Logement (ENL), 2006	Support for local authorities for housing construction; improvement of housing offer (concerning rent-controlled dwellings); support for low and middle-income households in becoming homeowners (l'accession sociale à la propriété); reform of modes of social housing attribution (especially for "fragile" households);
DALO right	Le droit au logement opposable et portant diverses mesures en faveur de la cohésion sociale, loi DALO, 2007	Improve the offer of social housing (especially those with the lowest rent levels) for those who live in France but are incapable to get an apartment and to cover living expenses;

Table E2. Berlin

Legal Basis	Original title	Content
2. Home-building law	2. Wohnungsbaugesetz - WoBauG	Former central legal document for social housing in Germany; set up in 1950; regulated provision of rented dwellings and supported the acquisition of owner-occupied housing; replaced in 2001 by WoFG
Law on Social Housing Provision	Wohnungsraumförderungsgesetz - WoFG	Central legal document for social housing in Germany; it regulates the objectives, definitions and instruments of German social housing policy
Social Housing Access Permit	Wohnberechtigungsschein	Document which confirms the eligibility for social housing; regulated in WoFG
Law on Housing Allowance	Wohngeldgesetz - WoGG	Financial support instrument contributing to the rent; eligibility and amount of financial support is based on no. of persons in the household, expected rent level and household income.
Rent compensation programme	Mietausgleichsprogramm	Issued in the State of Berlin; after follow-up subsidies for owners of social housing estates were cancelled in 2003 rent levels increased. The "Mietausgleichsprogramm" provides compensation payments to inhabitants who cannot afford their dwellings anymore.

Law on Social Policy	Sozialgesetzbuch (SGB)	Regulates financial subsidies for those who cannot afford the renting level on the housing market.
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Table E3. Warsaw

Legal Basis	Original title	Content
Law on municipal government	Ustawa o samorządzie lokalnym	Put in place on March 8, 1990, regulates the tasks of municipalities, which among others include municipal housing. It stresses that satisfying the collective needs of a community belongs to the individual tasks of local government units, among which are: the issue of spatial order, real estate management, local housing, environment protection, social service and many more typical public services
Law on selected forms of housing support	Ustawa o niektórych formach popierania budownictwa mieszkaniowego	Put in place on October 26, 1995 concerns the support of selected forms of housing, among others the dwellings belonging to the TBS.
Law on protecting the rights of tenants, on the municipal housing resource and the changes in the civil code	Ustawa o ochronie praw lokatorów, mieszkaniowym zasobie gminy i zmianach w kodeksie cywilnym	Put in place on June 21, 2001, defines the obligations of local government units. It puts the obligation to create conditions concerning satisfying the housing needs of the community on the local government unit, which then on the regulations of and in the cases included in the act, provides social and temporary accommodation as well as satisfies the housing needs of low-income households.
Law on the financial supporting of social dwellings' creation, protected apartments, night refuges and houses for the homeless	Ustawa o finansowym wsparciu tworzenia lokali socjalnych, mieszkań chronionych, noclegowni	Put in place on December 8, 2006, regulates the form in how municipalities receive support for the realization of creation of different forms of social dwellings and those belonging to the municipality's housing reserve and are not classified and social.
Law on financial support to families in purchasing own apartments	Ustawa o finansowym wsparciu rodzin w nabywaniu własnego mieszkania	Put in place on September 8, 2006, defines the rules in how credit interests are supported concerning credits for dwellings, construction, purchase of dwelling, building contribution to housing cooperative.
Law on the ownership status of dwellings	Ustawa o własności lokali	Put in place on June 24, 1994 regulates the constitution of separate ownership of dwellings belonging to housing cooperatives.

E2. Housing cooperatives in Poland

An important development of housing cooperatives in Poland has begun in the mid of 1960s when they started to play a crucial function as the main developers, providing new dwellings. Over the following two decades the housings stock built and managed by the cooperatives continued to grow till the beginning of 1990s when a new type of private actors in the domain of housing construction have entered on the market. The legal frames of operation for housing cooperatives have also altered which has contributed for instance to the introduction of new forms of occupation within the buildings owned and administrated by cooperatives. Since 1994 (the act on the ownership of places), an additional form of ownership ('separate ownership') has been created. Currently, there exist four types of occupation of dwellings within the cooperatives' stock:

- (A) dwellings occupied by tenants on the cooperative right (cannot be inherited nor sold by tenant); these dwellings constitute the property of housing cooperative and their tenants are the cooperative's members¹ (which was often connected with the obligation for certain contribution for the cooperative);
- (B) dwellings occupied by the owners on the cooperative right for the place (dwelling can be inherited or sold by owner); broadly speaking, these dwellings constitute the property of a private person but more precisely, the owners possess the property right for the place;
- (C) dwellings occupied by the owners on the right for separate ownership (this group of owners owns not only a dwelling but also a part of common places in the building, including the land where the building stays); this type of owners gathers a full range of rights to the dwelling and common places which means that they are set on the same level of property as a housing cooperative; in order to manage the building in a proper manner, in case of at least one apartment on the right for separate ownership in a building, the housing condominiums (pl. *wspólnoty mieszkaniowe*) were created (according to the above-mentioned act in 1994);
- (D) dwellings occupied by tenants on the free market; these tenants are not the members of the cooperative, do not have to make a contribution but only pay a deposit.

Considering this complicated ownership structure within cooperatives' stock, it comes out that statistical data concerning dwellings within cooperatives' buildings are sometimes confusing. For instance, dwellings occupied by the owners on the cooperative right for the place together with dwellings occupied by tenants and private tenants are treated in the national statistics (i.e. Census 2002) as dwellings owned by housing co-operatives. As a result, the number of privately owned dwellings is underestimated. In addition, hardly ever does the internal structure of cooperatives' dwellings appear in any Polish statistics, making this feature rather vague and misleading.

¹ Currently, those who buy an apartment constructed by housing cooperative can choose if they want to become also a member of the cooperative.

E3. Life quality

The life quality is measured in the narrow context of housing conditions. To this end, the project focuses on four major axes that elucidate the quality of life in the context of the adjustment of the current housing offer to the population needs and requirements (Fig. E1): housing supply, changes in the ownership structure and living conditions as well as housing demand (both in private and public sector). The comparison of life quality between the three metropolises shall be elaborated in the general perspective using the dimensions enumerated; however, partial conclusions can be drawn from each thematic scope in order to apprehend how the three metropolises address the life quality question.

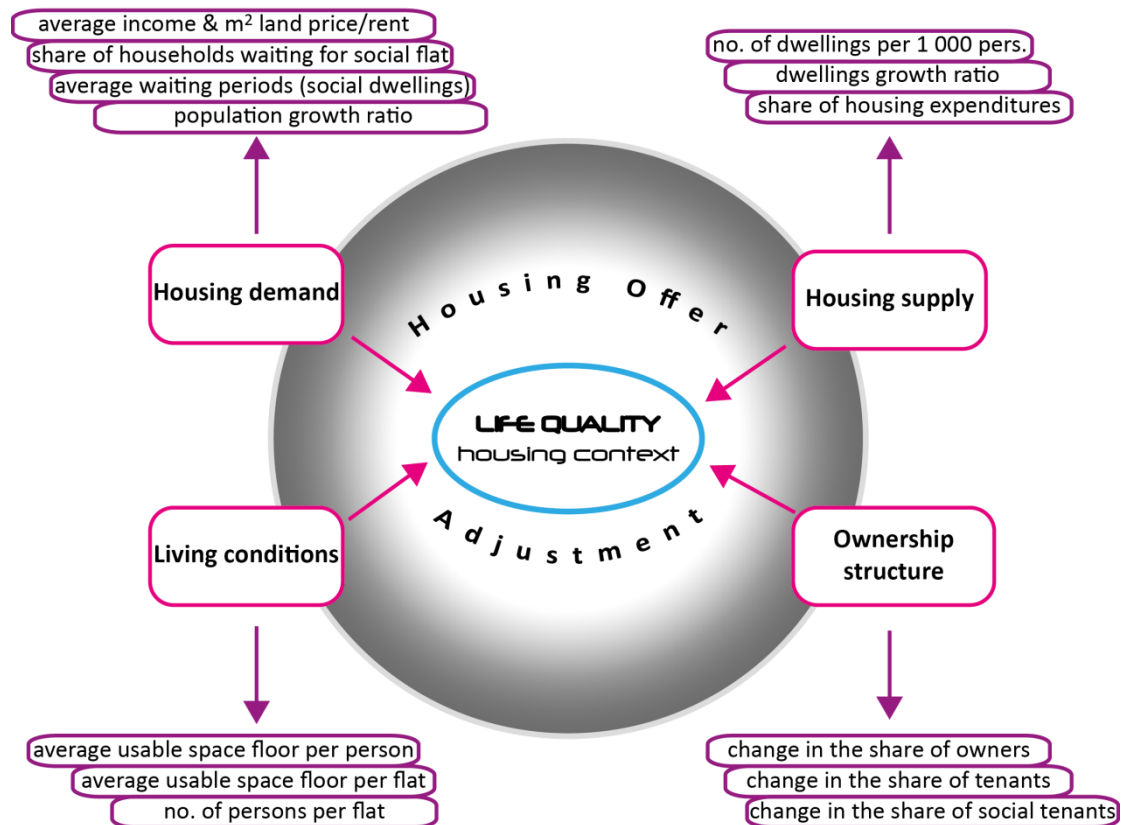


Fig. E1. The components of the life quality

The basic indicators proposed ensure the comparability of the issue discussed between the three metropolises and allow indicating the main potentials and bottlenecks of the housing markets in Paris, Berlin and Warsaw. The “housing supply” theme focuses in general on the housing dynamics which shall reflect to what extent the housing needs are addressed. The segmentation of housing market (diversity of housing occupation categories) presented in the second thematic component shall be interpreted as a better adjustment of local housing market to population needs as a wide range of households (according to their needs for temporary or permanent stay in the city and to their revenues) shall be satisfied with a differentiated offer. The “living conditions” theme demonstrates briefly the basic information about dwellings features while the last component concerns “housing demand” and is aimed to compare the access to the public and private housing sector. In addition, the attention shall be paid on the share of population with middle and lower revenues that are potentially excluded from the “free housing market”.

E4. Social Housing experiences from Berlin: Märkisches Viertel

In order to share the understanding and experiences made with different approaches to social housing in Berlin, altogether three examples for social housing have been selected. In this report, the first of these examples – that of the large-scale investment in the Märkische Viertel in the former West Berlin district of Reinickendorf – is described in detail. The other examples will cover another large-scale investment located in the east of Berlin as well as a small-scale social housing investment.

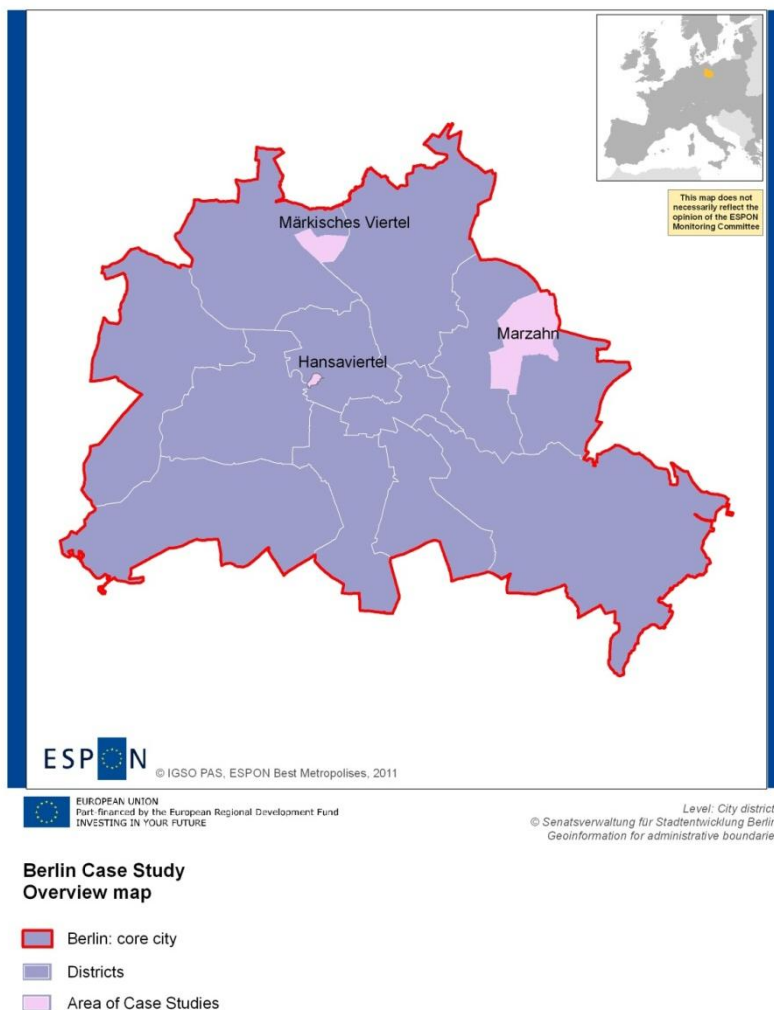


Fig. E2. Overview of social housing case study areas in Berlin

Facts & figures

Construction time: 1963 – 1974

Structure of apartment size: ca. 47 % 1-2 rooms; ca. 32 % 3 rooms; ca. 21 % 4 and more rooms

Dwellings: ca. 16,000

Inhabitants: 34,435 inhabitants

Median Supply Rent: (2010) 5.05 € per/m² (prognosis level Waidmannslust)

Number of levels: 5-18 floors

(BERNING 1990, p. 161; Wohnatlas 2011; Monitoring Soziale Stadtentwicklung 2010)

The Märkische Viertel (MV) is located in the district Reinickendorf, an out rim district close to the border of Brandenburg in the north-western part of Berlin. It was constructed in an area mainly dominated by small single family houses with low living standards. Up to 60,000 people were set to live in the 16,000 dwellings making Märkisches Viertel the biggest housing project in Berlin as well as in Western Germany ever planned and realised. In 1975 the maximum number of inhabitants was reached: 47,000 inhabitants (JACOB ET AL. 2004, p. 25). The housing estate was realised in close proximity to the Berlin wall causing a challenging situation regarding traffic and inner city transport connection (KNORR-SIEDOW & DROSTE 2003, p.69).

Planning

Berlin's general situation in the 1960's was characterised by economic prosperity and by a growing population also due to the large-scale migration of guest workers to Berlin (all TESSIN 1988, p. 495f).

As Western Berlin's spatial expansion was limited by the borders of the wall, the growing population conflicted with scarcity of available land for building. Having overcome the dramatic living space shortage after the Second World War, the objective of city planners was now to increase the living conditions for low income households (HARLAND 1998, p. 6). Building large housing estates was seen as an innovative solution following the model of urbanity by density ('Urbanität durch Dichte'), (TESSIN 1988, p. 504; HARLAND 1998, p. 6) which gained prominence in the 1960's urban planning in Western Germany. Although no experiences were available the limited financial resources and the limitations of the public transport net were important reasons for supporting this approach (TESSIN 1988, p. 498f).

In order to countervail the spread of bungalows and one family houses, the publicly-financed GESOBAU ('Gesellschaft für sozialen Wohnungsbau' – society for social housing construction) purchased land in the district of Reinickendorf (JACOB et al. 2004, p. 17). Under the planning authority of the Berlin Senate, the GESOBAU started constructing the Märkisches Viertel in 1963. With the aim to build the "town of the future" 20 international architects were involved in the construction (Berliner Forum 1971, p. 10). In architectural terms the innovation was that the different housing blocks were built towards a centre, therefore creating spaces between the blocks (TESSIN 1988, p.504 and BERNING et al. 1990, p.163). The participating architects designed individual housing blocks and influenced the layout of the apartments creating different types of apartments within a block. Despite this individualism, mainly small-sized apartments were built due to the lack of social housing and the estimated household size of 2.6 persons based on Western Berlin's average (JACOB et al. 2004, p. 17). Also some of the already existing family houses were included in the development of the housing estate.

Development

Facts & figures

Social data for district region Märkisches Viertel (MV1):

Unemployed rate (2009):	14.9 % (Berlin: 9.9 %)
Average Age:	42.1 years
People with migration background (2009):	34.7 % (Berlin: 13.7 %)
Share of Children under 6 years (2009):	7 % (Berlin: 5.3 %)

(Source: Monitoring Soziale Stadtentwicklung 2010)

Soon after construction, the first social conflicts were apparent. First disputes arose between the inhabitants of the earlier constructed low-standard family houses in the area (about 12,000) and the new neighbours living in the Märkische Viertel. Compared to the standards of the family houses, living in the housing estate was perceived as luxurious (KNORR-SIEDOW & DROSTE 2003, p.76f).

The second conflict was the lack of infrastructure for children. When constructing the Märkisches Viertel, the planners estimated an average household size of 2.6 persons. But as many families moved to the estate, the percentage of children under 15 years rose to 40 % in 1969 as share of the population in relation to an average of 13.8 % in Western Berlin (SCHERER 1969). As a consequence of the wrong assumption, there was an undersupply of kindergartens, school and playgrounds. In fact, only 3 primary schools were provided for 2800 school children in the beginning (ZEIT 08.11.1968). With nowadays 12 schools (7 of them primary schools), the authorities were able to resolve the shortage. Another infrastructure shortage was the existence of only two super markets that due to their monopoly position had a higher price level than comparable markets (ZEIT 08.11.1968).

The third conflict was caused by higher rent levels than expected due to the high standard of living as well as a rise of ancillary costs. As many inhabitants relocated from low-standard housing estates to the Märkisches Viertel, the rent increase was not affordable. For example people who came from homeless shelter had to pay 300 % more than before, therefore having rent arrears was not uncommon (SCHERER 1969). Additionally, the small apartment size was perceived as being not suitable for families with more than two children also leading to a discussion on development deficits of children growing up in small-scale apartments (BECK 1975, p. 54f).

For approaching these shortcomings constant renovations have taken place. In the 1980s the infrastructure was improved by ensuring easy-access entrances and the renovation of playgrounds. The second massive renovation started in 2008 and aimed at improving the energy efficiency of the estate through investments of about 440 Mio € done by the GESOBAU (KOHL 2008).

Nowadays, the MV has a very low development index and is also partially downgrading (HÄUßERMANN 2010, p. 39)². The inhabitant structure shows a higher unemployment rate than Berlin's average rate (14.1 % in MV in relation to 9.9 % in Berlin in 2009). Also a high share of unemployed persons under 18 years can be observed (21.9 % in MV, Berlin average 14.5 %) (HÄUßERMANN 2010, p. 39). Furthermore, the percentage of persons under 18 years with a migration background (56.1 %) is higher than Berlin's average of 43.1 % (HÄUßERMANN 2010, p. 39). Significantly higher is the percentage of children under 15 years living on social benefits – Märkisches Viertel has a share of 67.3 % of all children compared to 37,4% for Berlin in 2009 (HÄUßERMANN 2010, p. 39).

Assessment / lessons learnt

During the construction phase of the Märkische Viertel, there was an ongoing debate on the principles of urban planning. Basic points of criticism were the large dimensions of the estate and the small-sized individual units as well as the unexpected high rent level and the insufficient infrastructure within and around the estate. These factors led to the active formation of a so-called neighbourhood-movement ('Stadtteilbewegung'). After construction was completed in the 1970s, most of the criticism stopped. Looking at urban planning in general, the model of

² The development index is a key method of monitoring social city development in Berlin and includes 6 status indicators with socio-demographic data, and 6 indicators of dynamics including data on mobility.

'urbanity by density' and the construction of large scale housing estates in formerly rural areas, related to the constant growth of the German economy in the 1960s, came to an end – also influenced by the oil-crises and flattening of economic growth (Club of Rome) (HARLAND 1998, p.7). It was replaced by a focus on district development and a renaissance of the inner city. Nevertheless, nowadays the Märkische Viertel is perceived as attractive living environment for elder persons as the sizes of the apartments are sufficient and the ongoing investments of GESOBAU have ensured a solid living quality.

It is also often mentioned, that most of the inhabitants are satisfied and stress out the quality of the apartments and identifying themselves with the MV (AULICH 2011; OLOEW 2004). But still, the word Märkisches Viertel became a symbol for post war failures in architecture and planning in Germany (ZEIT 02.06.1989; SACK 1993; BERNING 1990, p.165).

Annex F. Public transport. Experiences from Paris and Berlin

F1. Transport on demand in Paris

Some experiences have been carried out in Paris metropolis regarding transport on demand. Roissy Airport and the big working area around is the main example since a transport on demand network has been settled for workers. First of all, the existing network does not fit their needs: there is a fast transport system linking Paris and the airport but for local trips there are only few buses which is unsatisfying for the workers. Furthermore, many Roissy airport workers work staggered hours and cannot use the traditional public transport network which is available only during the day. In 2008, 12 000 Seine-et-Marne inhabitants (in outer suburbs) worked in Roissy, 79% of them working out of hours. *Filéo* bus network - formerly called Allobus is a special network created in 1999 for the workers and available on demand. It allows 1500 workers per day to go to work. It is composed of 6 lines and available in 22 cities around Roissy, round-the-clock. Its users give a call 30 minutes before they want to drop in at the nearest stop. It has mainly been settled and subsidized by the STIF and it is operated by a private transport firm (Keolis). The fare system is coordinated with STIF system: the same tickets and season tickets used on Paris region network also function on *Filéo* network.

F2. Sustainability in Berlin

The motorization rate grew in Berlin after the reunification of Germany, particularly in the eastern part of the city. However, since 1995 it is stabilized and nowadays the low rate of motorisation with only 324 vehicles per 1000 inhabitants in 2008 is much lower than in many other German, French and Polish cities (SenStadt 2011). Low rate of motorization makes it much easier to deal with traffic issues than in other metropolitan regions. Moreover, in the centre of Berlin the reduction of movement of vehicles has been observed. It has been probably caused by the expansion of paid parking zones and an increase in the number of public transport passengers from 1061 mio. in 2000 to 1260 mio. in 2009. In the structure of means of transport used by Berlin's inhabitants, Metro (U-Bahn) and S-bahn constitute more than a half of modes usually chosen (fig. F1).

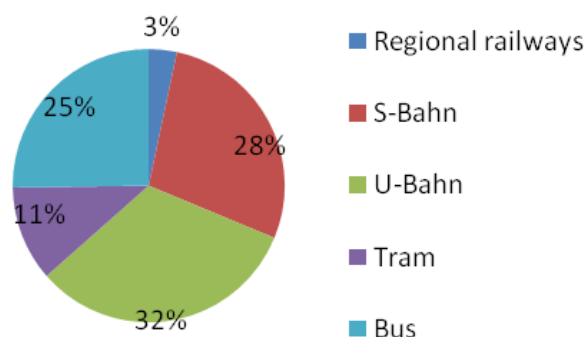


Fig. F1. Public transport modal share in Berlin
Source: *Stadtprofil Berlin*.

An increasing share of bicycle use and pedestrians over the last decade indicates also the quality of traffic multi-modality in Berlin (StEP-Verkehr 2011). About 650 km of bike paths, many Bike-and-Ride parkings and the possibility to transport bicycles in S-Bahn, U-bahn and in regional railways are good points of the public transport system in Berlin. Improvements in public transport were done also by the BVG in 2004 with the implementation of the Metroline concept for busses and trams (BVG 2004). These priority lines serve as special, supplementary links for S-Bahn and subways, with a frequency of at least 10 minutes. The implementation of the Metroline concept stabilised the number of passengers demanding the services of the BVG (StEP-Verkehr 2011).

F3. Public transport management in Berlin

The tariff in the Berlin metropolitan area is based on dividing the region in several sub districts, which are three for the case of Berlin with an inner- city, an outer- city and an surrounding district. The state of Brandenburg is divided into about 1300 sub districts, followed by a pattern of honeycombs and not necessarily sticking to political borders. The price of a ticket is calculated after an algorithm considering the number of sub districts touched by the travel route. Neither the distance of the travel route nor the choice of transportation means are considered for the price of the tickets (http://www.vmv-mbh.de/downloads/Vortrag%20VBB_Jens_Burghardt.pdf).

Financing of public transportation measures in the Berlin- Brandenburg region is based on three elements: earnings from sold tickets, subsidiaries by the states of Berlin and Brandenburg and additional subsidiaries from counties and cities. While subsidiaries are negotiated on the base of long-term traffic contracts, the division of earnings is calculated for every year, following a complex model and including every involved transportation company by considering their particular number of passengers, earnings and other parameters. The model for division of earnings is also included in negotiations on the traffic contracts. The VBB is executing both negotiations and contract controlling as a service provider for the states and counties³.

The range of companies carrying out the particular transport is wide, reaching from state-owned companies like Deutsche Bahn (DB) for regional and commuter trains (S-Bahn) or Berliner Verkehrsbetriebe (BVG) for Subway, Tramway and Busses in Berlin to small Bus-companies and smaller railway companies as well. The decision about the responsibility of each company about particular traffic is decided with the renewing of traffic contracts, which usually run for a long period (depending on type of the contract, in rail transport 10 years+).

In terms of market conditions, a problematic situation arises because of unique infrastructure within both the commuter train and the subway system in Berlin, which can only be operated on special trains. As a result, the owners of the particular rolling stock (DB for commuter trains, BVG for subway) have *de-facto* monopoly, which became important in the last years, when several management mistakes led to severe problems in S-Bahn traffic, but through the position of S-Bahn owner DB, a cancellation of the traffic treaty was impossible⁴.

In 2009, a technical defect occurred in Berlin S-Bahn and a train ran off the rails due to the deficits in maintenance. Since then, the service is partially interrupted, there

³ http://www.vmv-mbh.de/downloads/Vortrag%20VBB_Jens_Burghardt.pdf

⁴ http://www.ihk-berlin.de/linkableblob/1210976/7./data/S_Bahn_Ausschreibung-data.pdf

are fewer wagons per train, frequency of trains is reduced and temporarily the S-Bahn has to be operated at lower speed, thereby increasing inner-city travel times. The service was also interrupted during two last winters. These interruptions were also mainly caused by scarcities in maintenance. As a consequence of these interruptions and in order to improve the services, it is currently investigated whether the working assignment for the S-Bahn can be transferred to the city owned BVG company (which runs the subway, busses, trams and ferries) when the current contract terminates in 2017.

Annex G. Spatial visions

G1. Paris



Fig. G1. Haussmann's Paris (1853-1870)



Fig. G2. The Plan Voisin (Le Corbusier, 1925)

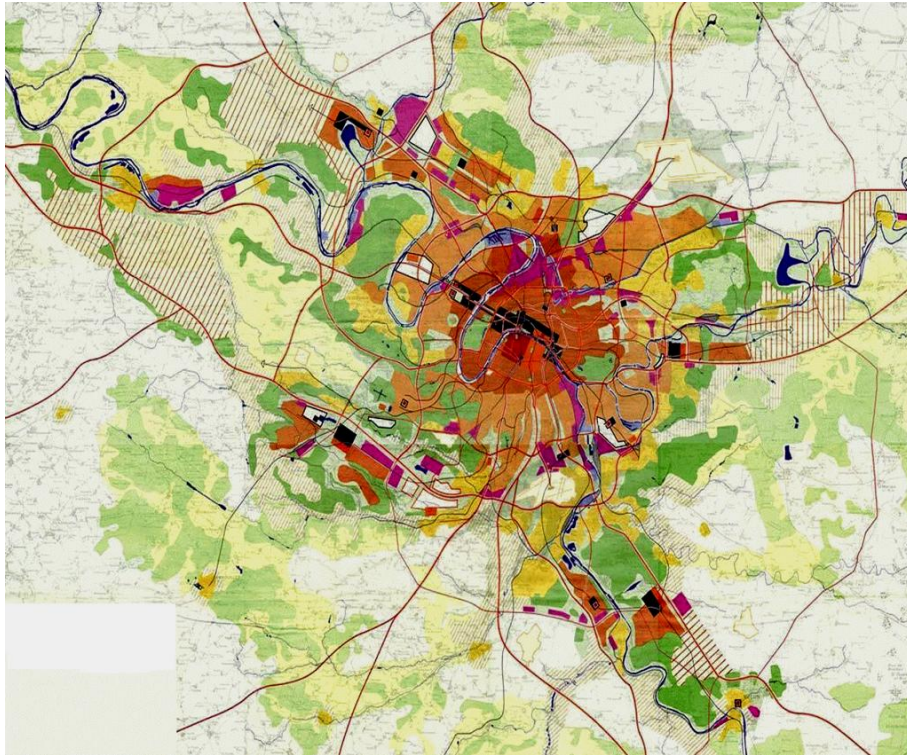


Fig. G3. SDAU – Schéma Directeur d'Aménagement et d'Urbanisme (1965)

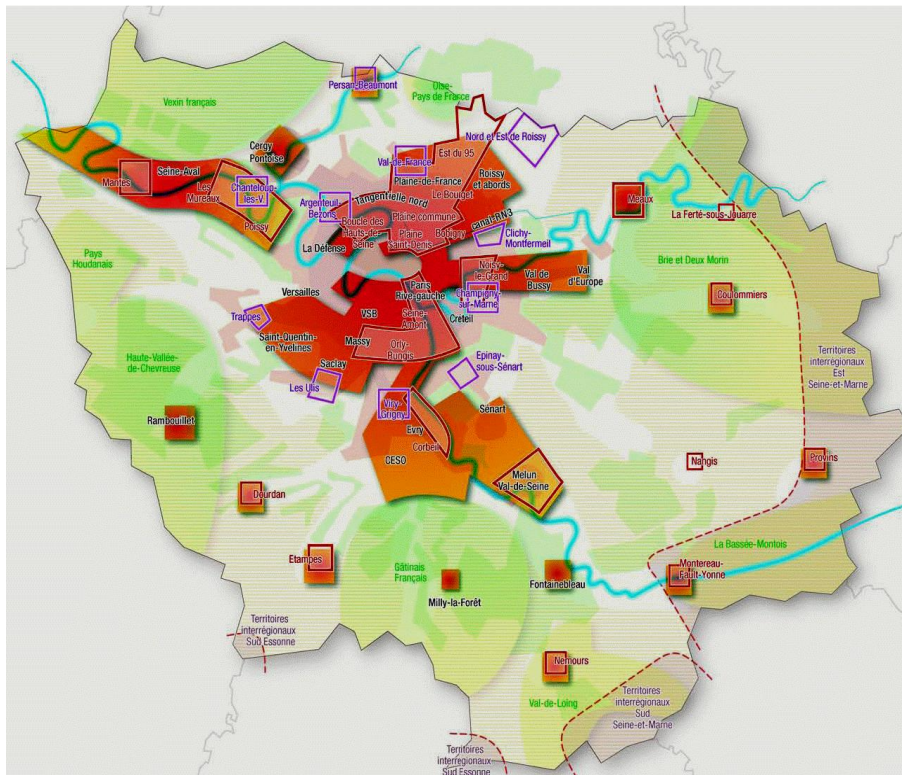


Fig. G4. SDRIF – Schéma Directeur de la Région Ile-de-France: La géographie stratégique et prioritaire (2008)



Fig. G5. Grand Paris: Éco-villes verticales (Jean Nouvel, 2009)

G2. Berlin

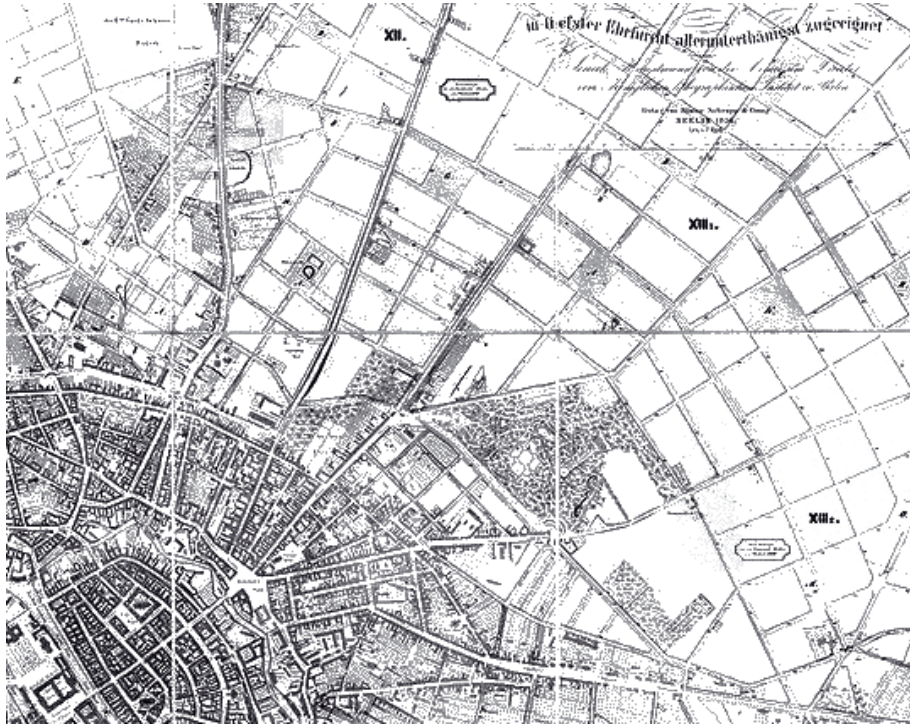


Fig. G6. The Hobrecht Plan for Berlin (1862)



Fig. G7. Competition "Capital Berlin": Hans Scharoun (1957)

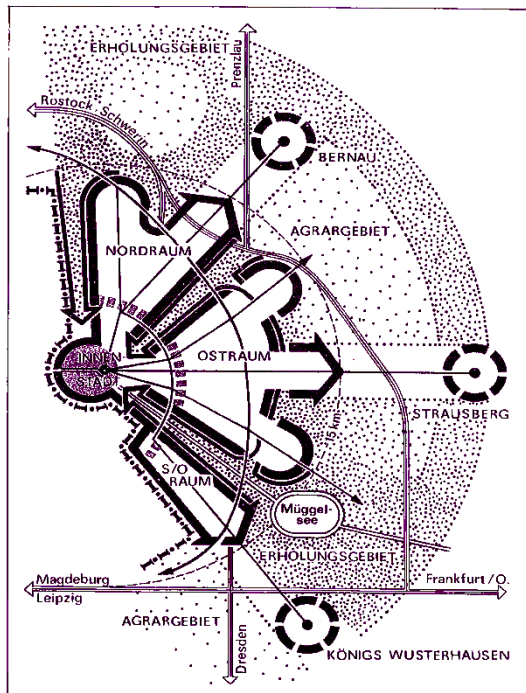


Fig. G8. Grundlinie der städtebaulich-architektonischen Gestaltung der Hauptstadt der DDR Berlin: Scheme of spatial structure and development of the city (Magistrat von Berlin Hauptstadt der DDR, 1987).

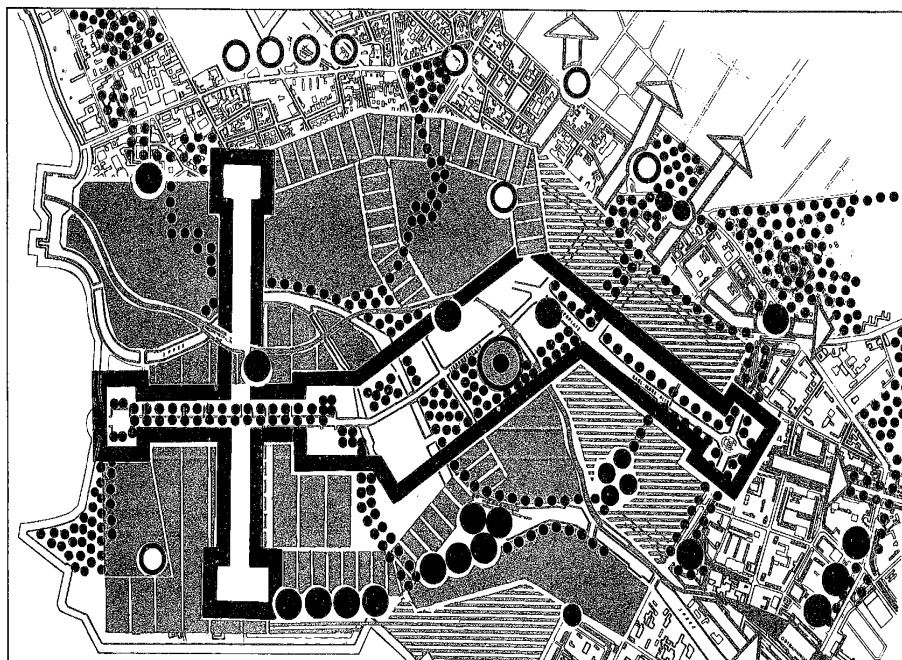


Fig. G9: Grundlinie der städtebaulich-architektonischen Gestaltung der Hauptstadt der DDR Berlin: Structure of city centre (Magistrat von Berlin Hauptstadt der DDR, 1987).

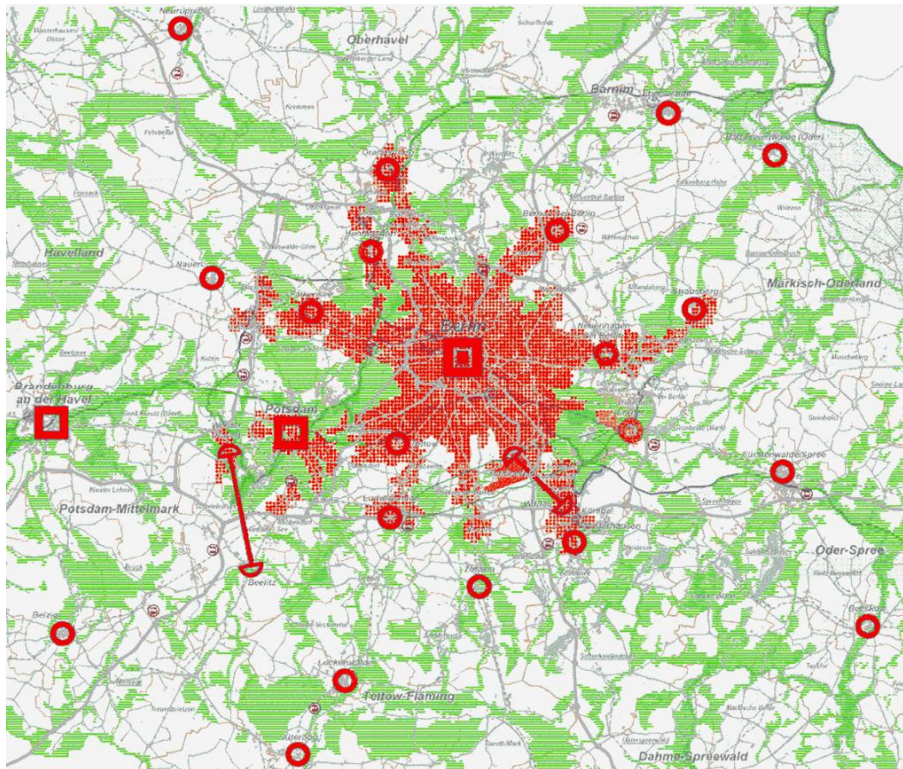


Fig. G10. LEP Berlin-Brandenburg: Settlement structure (Gemeinsame Landesplanungsabteilung der Länder Berlin und Brandenburg, 2009)

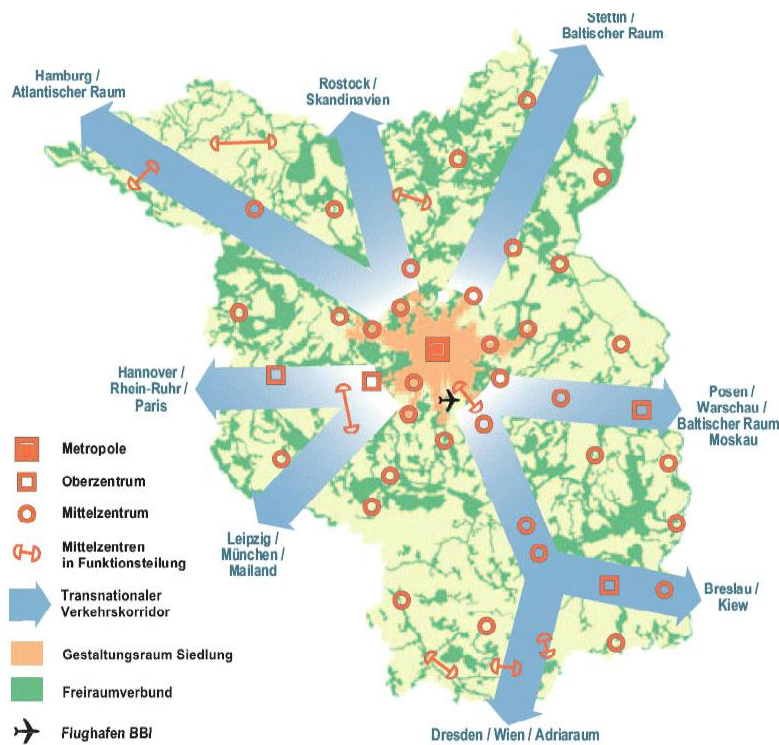


Fig. G11. LEP Berlin-Brandenburg: Spatial Vision Capital Region (Gemeinsame Landesplanungsabteilung der Länder Berlin und Brandenburg, 2009)

G3. Warsaw

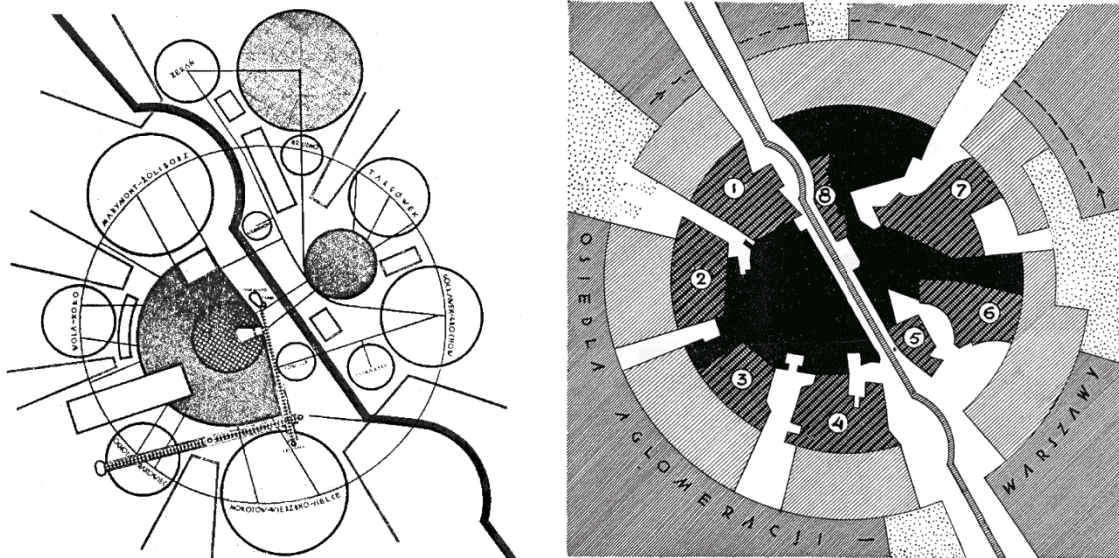


Fig. G12. Diagram for Monumental Warsaw plan (Warszawa Monumentalna), 1928-1929 (Stanisław Różański).

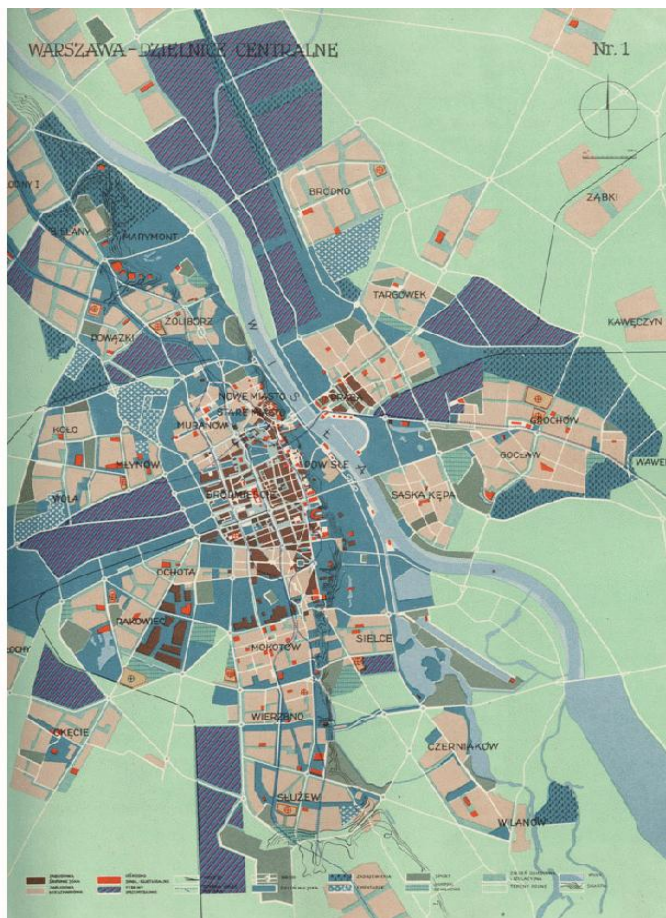


Fig. G13. Six Year Plan for Rebuilding of Warsaw, 1949 (Bolesław Bierut)



Fig. G14. View of Palace of Culture and Science, 1950-1955 (Lev Rudnev)



Fig. G15. General Plan for Warsaw, 1956 (Ciburowski, 1985)

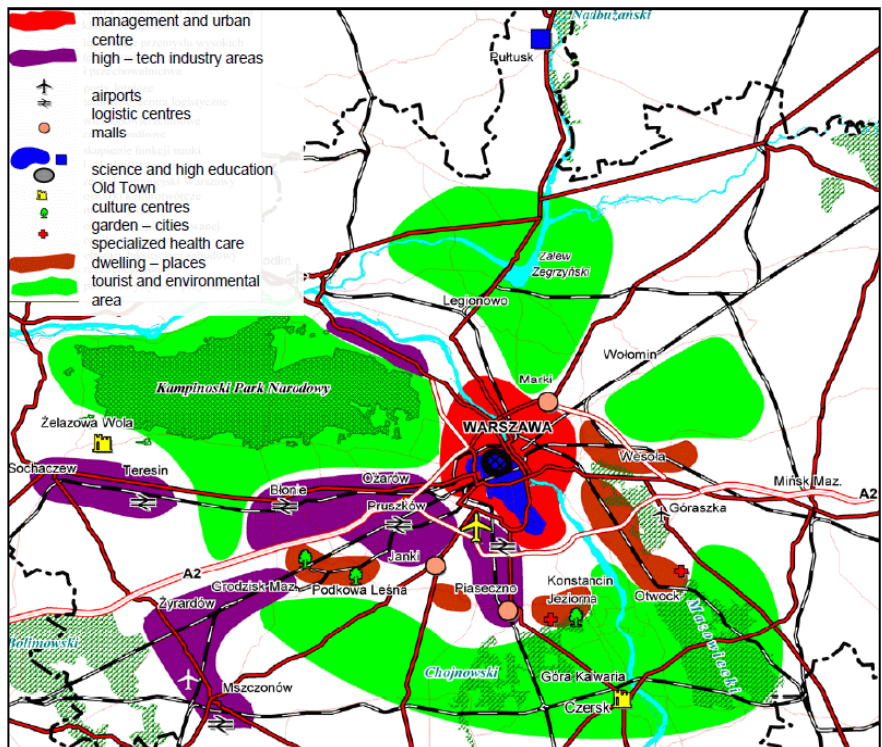


Fig. G16. Warsaw metropolitan area development nodes (Warsaw metropolitan area development nodes (Source: T. Sławiński, Mazovian Office for Regional Planning, 2006, with kind permission by the author)

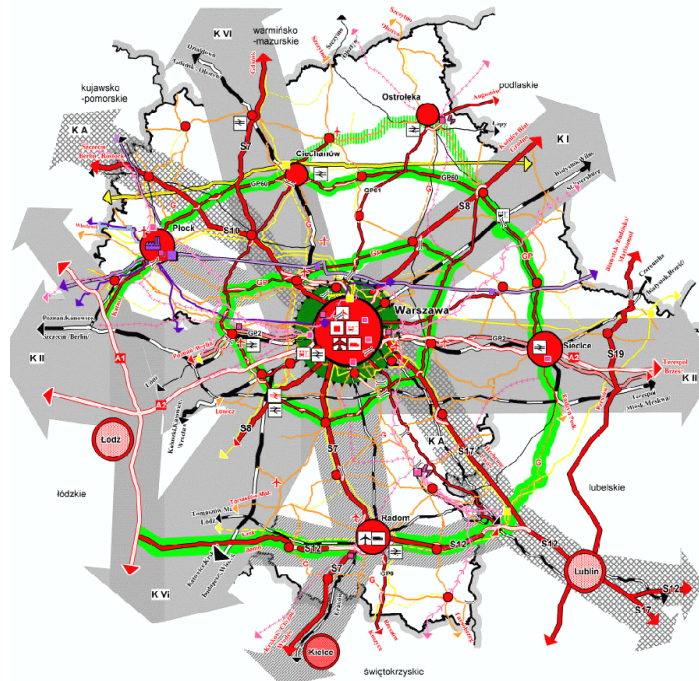


Fig. G17. Warsaw as node of European transport corridors (Mazovian Voivodship , 2006, 68)

Annex H. Best Metropolises and use of other ESPON projects' results

The Best Metropolises project takes advantage of the results of already completed and on-going ESPON projects. This kind of approach allows to: (i) verify or up-date to some extent the results of previous projects, (ii) deepen certain analyses formerly provided a more general scale, (iii) add new values and knowledge to previous investigations and contribute to developing the ideas for future research.

The Best Metropolises project benefits from the results of ESPON 1.1.1 and ESPON 1.4.3. which have produced the list of Functional Urban Areas (FUA) for 29 European countries and then enhanced it with additional delineation of densely populated nodes – Morphological Urban Areas (MUA). As the FUA corresponds to the employments pools and reflects, in general, the relationships between the core city and the surrounding municipalities, the use of this functional perspective was highly recommended in order to analyze the multidimensional process of metropolisation in Paris, Berlin and Warsaw in terms of its impact and its consequences. Using the methodology issued from above mentioned ESPON projects, the FUA of the three metropolises were delineated and the results of the Best Metropolises Project are presented within this spatial scale. In addition, the current project develops and enhances the comparison of functions between FUA (initiated in ESPON 1.4.3), particularly with reference to transport functions which, between the others, influence sustainable, economic performance of metropolitan areas.

The DEMIFER Project (Demographic and Migratory Flows affecting European Regions and Cities) presents the typology of regions based on demographic status (2005). Each metropolitan area from the Best Metropolises project belongs to different type: Warsaw belongs to the type “challenge of labour force” defined by a high share of young population in working age and a slight population decline, driven by a natural decrease rates that affects population growth; Berlin belongs to the type “challenge of decline” shaped by a negative natural population balance, as well as a negative migratory balance which lead the region into population decline situation; Paris belongs to the type “family potentials” – characterized by a slightly younger than average age structure and high natural population increases, as well as a positive net migration rate. Although this typology covers the NUTS-2, the differences between the three metropolises could be at least partly explained by preceding diversity. The DEMIFER project assesses also the effectiveness of policies towards migratory flows and points a few hints that shall ameliorate the stimulation of migration. The proposed approach was not in favor for direct aid for residential mobility but for improvement of living conditions in poor regions (i.e. by improving the availability of jobs, housing, schools and the quality of the environment) which would reduce the growing migration from underprivileged to affluent areas. In the light of this hypothesis/statement, the Best Metropolises project investigates the sustainability of metropolisation process in terms of complexity of policies towards improvement of living conditions.

The broad overview of current and future issues relevant to urban development provided by FOCI project (Future Orientations for Cities) constitutes an important basis for the analyses of various spheres (social, economic and spatial) of metropolitan areas and metropolisation.

As the Best Metropolises project intends to understand the trends and processes that appear within metropolitan areas, it may also benefit from the indicators for socio-economic polarization identified in the FOCI project. The indicators are related to the

economic and labour market (level of knowledge based employment), socio-demographic characteristics of society (household composition, level and structure of international and intra-urban migrations, notably suburbanization and gentrification) and political issues (social housing system, economic development policies and place based policies).

In the FOCL project, the disparities within metropolitan macroregions (between large urban centres and their regional hinterlands) were presented in the context of the correspondence of demographic processes, structural changes and labour market fluctuations. Using this typology, Paris, Berlin and Warsaw metropolitan macroregions were classified as three distinctive types: Paris as a polycentric metropolis in polycentric regions, Berlin as a monocentric service center surrounded by regional hinterland with labour market problem, and Warsaw as a national growth pole surrounded by traditional rural areas. The above mentioned typology contributes to better understanding of regional and national stakes for development of these three metropolitan areas. In addition, this typology synthesizes the crucial features that determine specific logic of metropolitan areas development.

Another ESPON project that we refer to is CAEE (The Case for Agglomeration Economies in Europe) which focused on the examination of the relationship between agglomeration economies and city-regional/metropolitan governance (using examples of Manchester, Barcelona, Dublin and London). According to the project's results, the basic internal disparities of the development within metropolitan areas corresponded to the highest rates of economic growth mostly in service sector activities (as measured by employment change) at the metropolitan core whereas older manufacturing industries tended to survive in pockets in smaller urban centres at the metropolitan periphery. Hence, the results of this project are treated as a starting point for certain key issues investigated in the framework of Best Metropolises project, such as: the assessment of the impact of metropolisation on territorial functional integrity and sustainable economic development.

Moreover, the CAEE project provides the evidence-based knowledge about the diversity of governance arrangements and instruments for steering the development of metropolitan areas and enumerates several features of 'ideal type model' for efficient managing of agglomeration process (i.e. a supportive national context, strong technical capacity, metropolitan/city-regional institutions or networks that seek and achieve significant 'vertical' influence, strong political leadership able to construct strong 'horizontal' connections across municipal authorities and with other public and private stakeholders organisations, etc.). These findings are verified and deepened by Best Metropolises Project (especially in Activity 7) through an investigation of other examples of metropolitan areas.

The ATTREG project (Attractiveness of European Regions and Cities for Residents and Visitors) investigates the human mobility flows (both long-term and short-term – tourists) using the distinction between 'top-workers/creative class' and opportunity-driven' migrants (low skilled) as well as it examines the drivers for the mobility. Considering the preliminary results of the project, the number of population of more densely populated areas increases, whereas in Eastern countries and peripheral regions there are severe to very severe population losses, but Eastern European capital cities reinforce their position. For instance, Warsaw is one of the eastern European cities which exhibits positive attraction rates consolidating its position and widening the population and skills breach in its national systems. In the same time, the strongest economic core regions of Europe have a moderate attraction capacity with the exception of Paris and Berlin, which are probably starting to suffer from dimension (and congestion) diseconomies.

The results of ATTREG project provide the evidence about general migration trends and 'push' factors in Europe. Furthermore, the project defines the particular positions of European metropolitan regions in the context of their attractiveness in Europe. This attractiveness is subsequently investigated in a narrower manner in the Best Metropolises project in terms of intra-metropolitan migrations in Paris, Berlin and Warsaw (Activity 6).

The assessment indicators showing the attractiveness of municipalities within metropolitan areas in the Best Metropolises project (Activity 3 & 4) may be also compared with the methodological approach proposed in ATTREG project which distinguished six components of 'territorial capital' that are translated as attraction factors (environmental capital, antropoc capital, economic capital, social & cultural capital, human, institutional capital).

The 1.4.2. Project (Preparatory Study on Social Aspects of EU Territorial Development) was aimed to examine four thematic fields concerning i.e. access to social services, housing, employment, education in the reference to social-territorial relationship within these fields. The analysis concerning living conditions and quality of life in the Best Metropolises project shall be embedded in the broadly discussed scientific literature of 1.4.2. Project, referring to housing and territorial development issues. The authors analysed the diversity of housing sector in Europe within four aspects: growth in real house prices (2003), dwellings completed per 1000 inhabitants, home ownership, housing quality (e.g. an average area of living accommodation, dwellings lacking basic amenities). Thus, the following indicators were proposed as possible and complex measures of disparities in housing supply and housing quality, and the inequalities of housing access (e.g. housing affordability indicator I – house price to income ratio, housing affordability indicator II – rent to income ratio, tenure structure – share of social housing, dynamics of housing investment). The above mentioned indicators (after certain modifications) have been also used in the Best Metropolises project in order to provide the knowledge about housing sector and living conditions in Paris, Berlin and Warsaw metropolises (Activity 3).

Despite the fact that the METROBORDER Project (Cross-Border Polycentric Metropolitan Regions) was focused on specific type of metropolitan regions, its outcomes are relevant also in case of the Best Metropolises project. The METROBORDER project addressed the question of functional integration by using a series of indicators, namely cross-border commuting, public transport, the similarity of GDP per capita and the residents' citizenship. Among the mentioned indices, the public transport indicator (number of lines and number of trips per day/week) is also crucial in the Best Metropolises Project for the identification of patterns of daily traffic volumes within metropolitan areas and enables the elaboration of the assessment of changing transport habits of inhabitants (Activity 5).

The METROBORDER project has also developed the thematic of institutional integration in order to manage properly cross-border metropolitan regions. The need for multi-level cooperation was strongly recommended with a wide range of actors involved in the governance (municipal actors, economic actors, and the possible delegation of mandates to a stable 'supraregional' institution). This approach is also adopted in the Best Metropolises project. However, according to METROBORDER there are neither common trends nor forms of governance that would suit in various metropolitan regions, therefore the local specificity compel particular structure of governance.

One of the key issues investigated within the ESPON project 1.2.1. (Transport services and networks: territorial trends and supply) was the role of transport network in more sustainable spatial development. The project delivered an important insight

into the accessibility of various regions in Europe by the presentation of transport networks and their efficiency. The project also enumerated the policy recommendations aimed to ensure territorial cohesion of European space. The amelioration of transport network and its efficiency is important especially in the short-term period as that is the only way to avoid gridlocks and relocation of enterprises. This hint might be useful in the assessment of the public transport offer and the effectiveness of transport policies towards labour market evolutions (including changing transport habits) within three metropolitan areas examined in the Best Metropolises project (Activity 5).

The transport policy with the main emphasis on accessibility issue and its impact on regional development, cohesion and polycentricity was a topic raised by ESPON project 2.1.1 (Territorial impact of EU transport and TEN policies). The recent studies on the accessibility are carried out within TRACC project (Transport accessibility at regional/local scale and patterns in Europe). The project investigates (among the others) the link between accessibility at the different levels and for different modes of European regions and their economic development. The above mentioned problematic appears partially in the Best Metropolises project aimed to comprehend the mobility conditions and public transport offer in the light of their influence on metropolitan development.

The key objectives in the on-going POLYCE Project (Metropolisation and Polycentric Development in Central Europe) are closely associated with the thematic scope in the Best Metropolises project as they refer to the links between processes of metropolisation and polycentric development as well as to the challenges and perspectives of future urban development.

The first finding in POLYCE, concerning polycentricity (based on commuting data) in studied metropolitan areas, highlighted a difference between functionally integrated urban system of Wien and urban systems in former communist countries, dominated by capital cities and hierarchical subordination of smaller sub-centers in the metropolitan area. In the Best Metropolises project, the comparison of daily mobility patterns in the three metropolitan areas reveals similar diversification of commuting matrix between Paris, Berlin and Warsaw which may be also confirmed by the influence of historical and political conditions and circumstances on metropolises' development.

In addition, one of the key objectives of POLYCE project is to elaborate the urban/metropolitan profiles. To this end, the POLYCE makes an assumption about differentiation of metropolisation process due to the functional specialisation of metropolises which shall be presented using hierarchical approach (benchmarking). The question of differentiation of metropolitan development is also addressed in the Best Metropolises project but from a different perspective as an initial hypothesis stated that Paris, Berlin and Warsaw vary in terms of historical heritage and their position within European urban system which influenced their specific development. Thus, the functional differentiation of studied areas in the Best Metropolises project is not considered as a final outcome of analysis but rather as a proxy for the analysis of different modes of governance and for the assessment of policy measures to guide development processes. Hence, further parallel investigations within POLYCE and Best Metropolises projects provide complementary results which shall allow elaborating general conclusions applicable for other studies of European metropolitan areas.

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