



## The ESPON 2013 Programme

### **EDORA**

(**E**uropean **D**evelopment **O**pportunities  
for **R**ural **A**reas)

Applied Research Project 2013/1/2

Interim Report

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## Executive Summary

The over-arching aim of the EDORA project is to develop a better understanding of the development opportunities and challenges facing diverse types of rural areas in Europe. The underlying demand for such knowledge is to support targeted policy development, relating (*inter alia*) to job creation and social change. The sectoral (agricultural) bias in available data relating to rural development means that the more inductive approaches which have been popular in the ESPON programme carry with them a strong risk of slipping into “well trodden paths” which associate rural development disproportionately with the agricultural industry and the farming community. This has necessitated a deliberate attempt to follow a more deductive methodology, whereby a review of conceptual and theoretical literature directs the choice of empirical data and analysis. This Interim Report reflects mainly upon this theoretical groundwork.

The original rationale for the project (the need to understand the processes leading to the increasing differentiation of rural areas, and the potential impact of EU Sectoral and Horizontal policies) has been reinforced by the onset of the Recession, which will both pose challenges and present opportunities for rural Europe.

One of the initial tasks of the project has been the preparation of nine thematic reviews of recent literature, covering demography, employment, business development, rural-urban relationships, cultural heritage, access to services of general interest, institutional capacity, climate change, and farm structures. Each of these has followed a standard structure, first reviewing the “state of the art”, then considering the implications for rural drivers of change, opportunities and constraints. The focus will now move on to consider future trends and policy implications. The findings under the first two headings are summarised by theme in Section 5 of this report.

A more synthetic approach is then adopted: Three “Grand Narratives” of rural change have been identified. These may be defined as overarching social and economic trends which play a role in the differentiation of rural areas. Individual rural areas are complex and highly variable environments, which may be viewed as the starting points of “pathways of change” which are determined by drivers of change mediated by local characteristics which act as constraints or provide opportunities for development.

The Grand Narratives are:

- (a) The Agri-centric Narrative, which charts a slow transition from “productivism” to a variety of , “para-“, or “peri-productivist” orientations.
- (b) An “urban-rural” narrative relating to processes of urbanisation, counter-urbanisation, regional enlargement, and evolving forms of peripherality.
- (c) A narrative of “Capitalist Penetration” which reveals a variety of local-global tensions as rural areas seek to adapt to new configurations of economic power.

It is felt that whilst all these have value as a means of structuring the explanation of rural differentiation, a fourth overarching theme; “Connexity” may also be helpful. This is a generic term for the increasingly (spatially) interlinked nature of many aspects of life; (economic, social, ideas and innovation, policy, the environment, and so on), which avoids becoming tied to conventional dichotomies, such as urban-rural, or local-global.

The three Grand Narratives, and Connexity all resonated with the individual themes to some extent. Two other dimensions of differentiation were also repeatedly mentioned in the thematic papers. These relate firstly to decline and disadvantage, and secondly to the European dimension, or macro-regions within it, (such as the NMS12, EU15, the Nordic, Baltic or Mediterranean areas).

The EDORA typology is not intended to have a direct connection to the Grand Narratives, although the latter play an important background role through the rationale for its classification methodology. Rather the typology is an elaboration of the Dijkstra-Poelman urban-rural classification, representing a range of rural socio-economic environments which act as starting points for individual highly differentiated pathways of change. It is hoped that the typology will prove a useful framework for analysis of rural

change. It highlights the need to move away from outdated concepts of rurality as synonymous with agriculture, as urban residuals, or the “no-mans-land” between urban functional regions.

The typology adopts a relatively simple hierarchical multi-criteria approach, in which rural regions are first distinguished from urban, then “depleting” from accumulating, and those in which the primary sector is still important from those which are more diversified. The “agricultural” regions are then classified into Semi-subsistence, Para- and Peri-Productivist. The diversified regions are divided into “New Rural Economy” and “Declining Fordist” regions. At present this typology is implemented using a relatively small number of indicators. It is anticipated that further development will allow the empirical basis to be broadened and strengthened.

The role of the twelve “Exemplar Region” reports is to deepen our understanding of processes of change in specific contexts, hopefully in ways which allow generalisation and enhance the Grand Narratives. These analyses have also highlighted several cross-cutting themes, demographic ageing, population decline and deprivation, the role of tourism and the importance of landscape public goods, the concept of “hub settlements”, and a lack of consensus over the benefits of change. A number of typical trajectories of development were identified among the exemplar regions.

The Country Profile reports are envisaged as providing intelligence on macro-scale patterns of rural differentiation across the ESPON space. Progress has been hampered to some extent by the need to establish the project database and the typology first. A pragmatic two-stage solution has been adopted, incorporating the Dijkstra-Poelman classification as a basis for an initial overview analysis. Sparsity of secondary data for certain themes has necessitated the use of qualitative approaches. It is too early to present overall conclusions, but a clear “roadmap” to completing this task has been established.

Considerable progress has been made with the EDORA database. Appropriate indicators were proposed by the authors of the thematic reports. Data is stored in a series of Excel spreadsheets, whilst metadata is compiled in an Access database. A full explanation is given of the choice of base year and treatment of missing values. An explanation is provided of the difficulties associated with coverage of the Western Balkans. Other risks and challenges are reviewed.

The report concludes with a brief account of the methodology to be used for the Future Perspectives analysis (Activity 2.26), some initial thoughts on policy implications, and an overview of planned research during 2009-10.

# 1 Introduction

The EDORA project belongs to the first strand of the ESPON 2013 programme: “Applied research on territorial development, competitiveness and cohesion: Evidence on European territorial trends, perspectives and policy impacts”. As such it is intended to “create information and evidence on territorial challenges and opportunities for success for the development of regions.” It requires a cross-thematic and applied approach.

The over-arching aim of the project is to develop a better understanding of the development opportunities and challenges facing diverse types of rural areas in Europe. The underlying demand for such knowledge is to support targeted policy development, relating (*inter alia*) to job creation and social change. In particular, insights should support the practical implementation - across a range of policy fields – of spatial development principles which have evolved out of perspectives presented in the Fifth Cohesion Report, and elaborated in the recent Territorial Cohesion Green Paper. In particular the project should support the further integration of the Lisbon and Gothenberg agendas into the post-2013 Common Agricultural Policy (CAP).

Three key issues are fundamental to the project specification;

- the need to better understand patterns of differentiation, between different kinds of rural area,
- the nature of the different opportunities for development which each of them faces, and,
- the way in which such opportunities depend upon, and may be strengthened by, interaction between rural and urban areas.

Addressing these issues requires a research approach which fully reflects recent conceptual advances, and constructs hypotheses derived from contemporary interpretations of the process of rural change in the full range of European rural environments. At the same time it requires a comprehensive utilisation of available data sources, so that robust and empirically valid findings can form a firm foundation for policy recommendations.

The sectoral (agricultural) bias in available data relating to rural development means that the more inductive approaches which have been popular in the ESPON programme carry with them a strong risk of slipping into “well trodden paths” which associate rural development disproportionately with the agricultural industry and the farming community. This has necessitated a deliberate attempt to follow a more deductive methodology, whereby a review of conceptual and theoretical literature directs the choice of empirical data and analysis<sup>1</sup>. This Interim Report reflects mainly upon this theoretical groundwork. Whilst the empirical analysis phase “overlaps” to some extent, and has begun, it is anticipated that the Draft Final Report will have a richer empirical content (indicators, forecasts, maps etc).

This report is structured as follows: After this introduction the next two sections provide reminders of the background to the EDORA project, and of the methodology adopted. These sections are brief, since they summarise and update more thorough presentations within the inception report. Section 5 summarises progress and findings in Activity 2.11; the thematic review of conceptual and policy literature of **drivers** of rural change in Europe, and the associated development **opportunities** and the **constraints** (D.O.C.). A more integrated/holistic view is then adopted, as Section 6 describes the common “pathways” of rural change, and the “Grand Narratives” which underlie them. Section 7 marks a transition from a conceptual to a empirical approach, with the presentation of a first draft of a new rural typology, intended as an appropriate framework for analysis of territorial rural development trends. Sections 8 and 9 continue the empirical focus with more in-depth descriptions of the process of rural change within a range of regional contexts, and a systematic review of standard indicators for rural areas across each of the 27 Member States (MS) based upon the DG Regio extended version of the OECD urban-rural typology. Section 10 describes progress with compiling the EDORA database of rural development indicators. The final three sections of this report are forward-looking, as they relate to activities mainly scheduled for later in the

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<sup>1</sup> See also EDORA Inception Report Annex p2.

project. Section 11 reflects on the continuing elaboration of the Future Perspectives task, especially the implications of progress with Activities 2.11 (thematic reviews), 2.12 (Pathways of Change and Grand Narratives), and 2.22 (Typology). Section 12 presents some initial thinking about policy implications. The report concludes with a brief preview of planned research activity during 2009-10.

## 2 Background

This section begins with a brief summary of the arguments (conceptual, empirical and policy-related) which provided the original rationale for an ESPON 2013 project on rural change. (A more detailed account was provided in the Inception Report, which need not be repeated here.) This will be followed by a consideration of the implications of the current recession, which has increased the urgency to generate conclusions and recommendations which may inform and guide European, national and regional policy-makers in their efforts to support rural communities as they pass through a major structural transition in the economy.

### 2.1 The Original Rationale for EDORA

The invitation to tender which led to the commissioning of the EDORA project was a response to a number of observations, both empirical and policy-related. These have been discussed in both the Proposal document and the Inception Report, and need only be summarised here:

- (a) The recent academic literature has generated a number of new “interpretations” of what is happening to rural communities and economies, and a new lexicon of “buzz words”, such as “rural restructuring”, “ecological modernisation”, “the consumption countryside”, “multifunctionality”, “post-productivism”, “neo-endogenous development”, the “network paradigm”, and “globalisation”. However, the spatial development implications of these remain obscure.
- (b) Both these theoretical discourses and available empirical analysis point to increasing differentiation and complexity in the countryside, rather than increasing uniformity or standardisation.
- (c) A wide range of both community and member state policies impinge on these complex processes of change in the countryside, although the latter are at the same time poorly understood, and inadequately reflected in policy design and implementation.
- (d) A particular concern is the need for a clearer understanding of the drivers of rural change, and the opportunities for, and constraints to, rural development as a background to the debate about the specification of Pillar 2 of the CAP in the programming period due to begin in 2013.
- (e) More generally, the requirement for all EU policies to further the Gothenburg and Lisbon objectives, and to reflect the Territorial Cohesion objectives set out in the recent Green Paper can only be fulfilled on the basis of a better understanding of the current processes of change, and likely future trends affecting different kinds of rural area within the EU.

### 2.2 The Implications of the Current Recession

The current recession, although triggered by a specific crisis in financial markets (the “credit crunch”) has all the marks of a cyclical restructuring process which will place new pressures upon rural areas and lead to accelerated adjustment. A recent forum organised by the OECD Territorial Development Policy Committee highlighted a number of recession issues with particular relevance to rural areas:

- The reversal of the “commodity boom” since the summer of 2008 has had serious consequences for employment in resource-based industries, especially those tempted to invest and borrow in recent years. It is argued that rural economies will emerge from the current cyclical adjustment into a new phase in terms of the long-term structural change process.
- Rural labour markets are especially vulnerable, due to their small size, the dispersed nature of job opportunities (high travel-to-work costs), and incidence of discouraged workers and disguised unemployment.



- The situation of rural labour markets in certain contexts may be exacerbated by return-migration, or a reduction of remittances, from urban areas which are themselves badly affected by the recession.
- Rural workforces are commonly contracting and ageing, due to well established demographic trends and migration. This presents special challenges in terms of preparing for and responding to the anticipated upturn – when it comes.
- Rural economies are commonly dependent upon SME's which are especially vulnerable during the "credit crunch" due to their dependence upon bank loans, their lower credit worthiness and so on.
- The policy response to recession tends to be centralised, and "urban-centric" – addressing issues which are characteristic of cities and industrial areas, and their structures, (infrastructure, public construction, manufacturing bale-outs) but less appropriate to the needs of rural areas.
- The response has so far been short-term, rather than addressing the issue of structural change.
- Rural governance capacity often limits the effectiveness of recovery packages in the countryside.
- The concept of a "Green New Deal" and ecological modernisation could provide key components to a policy approach to the recession in rural areas.

Thus to some extent the justification for the EDORA project has changed and intensified since it was originally commissioned, during the summer of 2008. Clearly it will be important that the description of rural Europe reflects (as far as data sources will allow) the current situation (rather than that before the recession), and that the Future Perspectives analysis takes account of the current accelerated restructuring. Whilst it is not within the remit of this project to consider "emergency measures" to help rural areas cope with recession, it is important that longer term policy recommendations consider the implications of the changed world into which Europe will emerge when recovery arrives.

### **3 Refinement of the EDORA Conceptual Framework.**

The overall approach used by the EDORA research team has been presented in the proposal, in the Inception Report, and in its Annex. The following section seeks to avoid undue repetition, but rather to show how working with the conceptual literature, and beginning to explore the empirical resources, has led to some refinements to the various elements of the methodology, and the way in which they will interact with each other.

The EDORA Inception Report, and its Annex, introduced the terminology of "Drivers, Opportunities and Constraints" (D.O.C.) and "Grand Narratives". The former provides a focus and a means of structuring the thematic review of rural change (Activity 2.11). Thus *"it would seem appropriate for the conceptual framework of this project to be based upon a more disaggregate thematic approach, which allows us to distinguish "drivers" of change, from regional or local structures and characteristics which either allow development "opportunities" to be exploited, or act as "constraints" which hinder such exploitation."* (EDORA Inception Report p3). The Inception Report Annex (also p3) described Grand Narratives as *"typical development paths for different kinds of rural regions"*.

Whilst the D.O.C. concept has successfully provided a structure for the Activity 2.11 thematic reports, the notion of "Grand Narratives" has evolved and different aspects may be distinguished. Two additional concepts/terms have crept into the EDORA vocabulary: *"pathways of change"* and *"rural environments"*.

As a result of work on Activity 2.12 the term "Grand Narratives" is associated with overarching social and economic trends, which act upon a variety of rural (and urban) environments. The Grand Narratives thus provide a holistic, integrated view of the drivers featured in the thematic reviews of Activity 2.11. However it has also been recognised, in the course of work on Activities 2.12 and 2.22, that such high level "Grand Narratives" cannot be simply or directly linked to a finite number of different kinds of rural regions. This is a reflection of the sheer variety and individualism of rural environments within the ESPON space. The precise "pathway of change" followed by a specific locality will depend upon a highly individualistic assemblage of characteristics and potentials. Many of these are not yet captured by available quantitative indicators. It is therefore not feasible to develop an EDORA spatial typology which corresponds with

either the Grand Narratives of change, or with individual “pathways of change” for specific rural regions. Instead the EDORA typology seeks to identify a finite number of generic types of *rural environment* (defined in terms of economic structures and trends) which may be conceived as determining, in broad terms, the starting point for a variety of individual pathways of change.

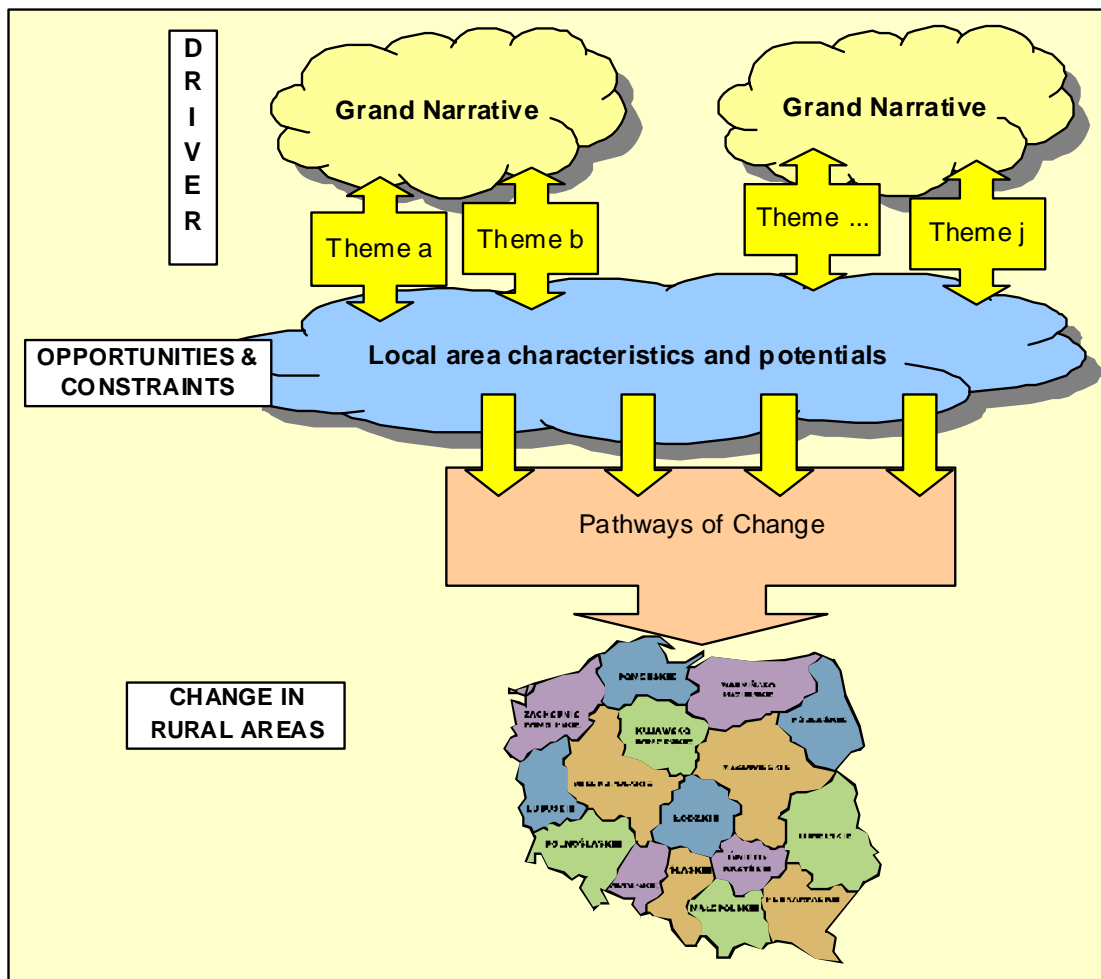


Figure 1: Overview of the Updated EDORA Conceptual Framework

## 4 Main Research Tasks of this Reporting Period.

The following bullet points provide a quick summary of activity during the first nine months of the project. More detailed accounts of the findings are provided in subsequent sections of this report.

During the first phase of EDORA the main focus of research effort has been upon establishing a knowledge base relating to the upper half of Figure 1, i.e the conceptual research of Activity Group 2.1:

- Activity 2.11 (Section 5) has sought to draw together “state of the art” information on the drivers, opportunities and constraints, structured according to nine socio-economic themes. Later the work within these themes will continue with a forward-looking dimension and a focus upon policy implications.
- Activity 2.12 (Section 6) has generated a more holistic overview, attempting to identify the key “Grand Narratives” which bind the thematic drivers of change together.
- Activity 2.13 (and 2.24) applies the knowledge generated by 2.11 and 2.12 to particular “Exemplar Regions”, to provide illustrations of the specific “pathways of change” followed there. This work is summarised in Section (a).

Additionally, good progress has been made in respect to empirical and presentational activities (Activity Group 2.2)

- Each of the thematic reviews of the D.O.C. has generated “wish lists” of relevant indicators. As far as possible these have been translated into specifications for the EDORA database (Activity 2.21, 2.26). A substantial body of secondary data and metadata has been assembled (see section 10).
- The EDORA typology (Activity 2.22) is an attempt to identify the main generic types of rural environment (at a NUTS 3 level) upon which the drivers of rural change act, and which will form the starting point for future evolution. A first draft of this typology is presented in Section 7.
- A more comprehensive coverage of rural areas across the ESPON space is intended through Activity 2.23, which provides country profiles based upon a standard set of indicators and the DG Regio (extended OECD) rural-urban typology of NUTS 3 regions. This work is reported in Section 9.

It is too early in the project work schedule for substantial activity on the final empirical activity (2.25 Future Perspectives), or the Policy Related Activities of Activity Group 2.3. Nevertheless short reports relating to these activities are included in Sections 11 and 12.

## 5 The Thematic Reviews:- Drivers, Opportunities and Constraints

The following subsections each provides a brief summary of key issues raised by one of the nine themes for which EDORA partners have carried out a review of recent literature. Each of these summaries is derived from a draft working paper (WP1-9). These follow a common structure, the substantive sections summarising the “state of the art”, drawing implications for the EDORA conceptual framework, considering future perspectives, and, finally, policy implications. At the first Consortium Meeting it was agreed that the first version of these reports should focus particularly upon the first two of these sections. The final version, including future perspectives and policy implications are due to be delivered to the lead partner at the end of June 2009 (see Appendix 3).

The content of these working papers is predominantly conceptual, rather than empirical, at this stage. The thematic approach in this section is followed by a more synthetic view in Section 6, where the focus shifts to the identification of the “Grand Narratives” which run through some or all of the separate themes.

References to specific literature are, on the whole, excluded from this summary, full bibliographical details are provided in WP1-9.

### 5.1 Rural demography

Population is a necessary condition for development. Changes in population in any geographic area are the sum of changes in natural population (births and deaths) and migration patterns. Pre-industrial society development was mainly influenced by natural population change; in Europe today migration patterns are of much more importance.

This makes demography a complex driver. Migration can add to or subtract from the natural population, and processes of out-migration and in-migration to an area can work in parallel. Until the 1970s, the dominant migration trend for rural regions in Europe was outmigration. People typically left to avail themselves of better economic prospects or an education. This trend still continues today in some parts of Europe – in particular people leave the more sparsely populated and peripheral regions, and many rural regions in the CEECs. In general it is the young people who leave; cities are a common destination, but there is also movement up the settlement hierarchy within rural regions and within functional regions. In many European countries the outmigration is to a national destination, but that from the NMS12 is typically international. The fact that so many young people leave, and that in some cases more women than men leave, means that the fertility rates in the rural region can fall (unless there is compensatory in-migration).

Overlaid on this in many rural regions is the process of counterurbanisation. In many European countries there has been a process of deconcentration in the cities since the 1970s. In some cases the consequence has had negative connotations for the recipient rural areas: urban sprawl. In others, though, counterurbanisation has brought benefits to the rural areas, introducing new people who have contributed to the local economy and helped to make a rural area which can out-perform urban areas. Counterurbanisation tends to impact on accessible rural areas. These areas become highly connected to the nearby cities. Larger functional labour markets which blur the urban/rural boundary develop, and people commute for work, mainly (but not exclusively) from the rural areas.

The general outcomes of these trends are that many sparsely populated regions are depopulating. In the NMS12 this trend is more widespread with many rural regions depopulating due to both low fertility rates and out-migration. There is marked a difference in demography trajectories between the Pentagon countries and the NMS12. Many accessible rural regions have stable or increasing populations due to the effects of counterurbanisation.

## 5.2 Rural employment

The rural employment theme is central to all of the Grand Narratives described in Section 6. The literature is very diverse, and deals with many facets of rural labour market change. For the sake of clarity this brief summary will focus upon just four of these; farm diversification/pluriactivity, the spread of the “New Rural Economy”, “regional enlargement”, and labour market segmentation.

The increasing importance of both on-farm diversification and off-farm jobs for farm household members is a familiar theme in the rural development literature, and needs very little explanation here. What is particularly interesting in the EDORA context is the increasing recognition that this is a survival strategy associated with particular kinds of farm business/household, and for particular kinds of rural area. These have recently been termed “peri-productivist”, to distinguish them from businesses and areas which opt to compete on the basis of specialisation, technology and strong links with agri-business (para-productivist<sup>2</sup>).

The “New Rural Economy” (NRE) is a term associated with the structural shift away from primary sector activities and towards secondary and private services employment. The increasing dominance of the NRE, especially in intermediate rural areas suggest that much that has been written in recent years by economists, geographers and regional scientists, about the drivers and processes of restructuring, industrial change and growth is of direct relevance to EDORA and our understanding of rural change and differentiation. This includes, for example, the work on “the Second Industrial Divide”, much of what has been written on clusters, post-Fordism, innovation, learning regions and so on.

Employment counter-urbanisation occurs when economic activities formerly associated with urban locations migrate into the accessible countryside. This has been increasingly common in the past decade or so, as a response to urban congestion, increasing car availability/dependence, the advent of new information technology (which has reduced the need for face-to-face contacts and transactions), changing logistical requirements, and so on. At the same time commuting patterns have become increasingly extended, and many farm households have become reliant upon off-farm jobs, often located at a distance from the farm. The aggregate impact of these changes can be a changed, and more integrated, relationship between urban centres and the accessible countryside. In such cases it has become more difficult to conceive of distinct urban and rural labour markets, since both have become part of a process of “regional enlargement”. This process seems, superficially at least, to provide a opportunities for employment growth and diversification for accessible rural areas, though there will often be negative externalities in terms of community cohesion, environmental impacts and so on.

Labour market segmentation theory argues that there are significant differences between the way in which different “strata” in the labour market operate, and that there are “structural” barriers to movement between such “segments”, which mean that investment in human capital is not sufficient for progression. Clearly if labour market segmentation does exist it will tend to hamper some groups/areas from fully participating in the more remunerative activities in the NRE. The extent of this and the geographical pattern of the effects is not entirely clear at the present time. However perhaps some tentative conclusions may be gleaned by study the distribution of “vulnerable groups”, such as those lacking in education or training qualifications, or those in the older age cohorts. Both of these groups are more numerous in the southern member states.

## 5.3 Rural business development

Entrepreneurial opportunities in rural areas are driven by production push and pull factors and by consumption trends. Farmers are being pushed out of production or out of certain production activities, so marginalising rural households, but at the same time CAP is pulling them into alternative farming

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<sup>2</sup> The “para” is added in recognition that productivism must operate within limits set by regulation to prevent environmental damage, to ensure that minimum levels of public good are provided, and to safeguard food standards and animal welfare.

activities or providing alternative employment opportunities. In terms of consumption, niche markets are being created for agricultural and food products and there is demand for tourism, recreation and amenity services. The entrepreneurial opportunities have been assisted by policy – CAP support has been important, but also policies that have developed hard infrastructure, or provided training.

The fact that an opportunity exists does not imply that it will be converted into establishing and growing a business. In rural areas there are three significant factors that will aid or constrain the conversion process: the operation of local business networks, the ability to innovate, and the operation of local/regional clusters. Although rural businesses are generally constrained by factors such as size of the labour market and the distance to markets many achieve good survival rates.

Business networks can facilitate the flow of products, of people, of information, of knowledge and even labour or financial resources. New firms that can connect to networks that mobilise local and non-local resources will benefit. However, highly localised networks can act as a constraint by “locking firms in”, and depriving them of the benefits of wider contacts. The ability to innovate depends not only on a firm’s characteristics, but also on the ability of the area to support innovative activities. This is highly varied, and the disparities between innovative and non-innovative regions are growing. The region needs to be able to create and support an environment for innovation. The association of local firms and public organisations into interest clusters, such as rural tourism, increases competitiveness by affecting the productivity and efficiency of individual businesses, stimulating innovations, and supporting entrepreneurship.

#### **5.4 Rural-Urban relationships**

Economic linkages between urban and rural areas are driven in part by the industrial and demographic structure of rural economies and societies. Within this, the balance between input and output linkages is crucial. Such linkages determine both the amount of income injected into an area and the degree to which further income is generated and contained. Hypothetically, lower paid rural employment may stimulate rural-rural multipliers but in some cases may prove less significant than the income lost through higher paid employment in urban areas, driven by commuting and household consumption away from the place of residence. Initially, rural out-commuting is likely to be most prevalent in rural areas adjacent to urban centres and employment centres. However, further improvements in infrastructure will expand the rural commuting zone and associated economic (dis)benefits into more peripheral areas.

The existence of quality rural services (both public and private) can itself present a number of opportunities for rural development. Of course, peri-urban rural areas will benefit indirectly from their relative accessibility to good quality urban services, and similarly, the use of rural services by urban residents may help to sustain them, and in turn present further development opportunities. The spatial distribution of services in rural areas and urban-rural interactions arising through town-hinterland relationships are also particularly significant with regard service access and provision.

Business networks facilitate the flow of products (commodity networks and supply chains) especially where rural tourism is concerned. The spread of Information, knowledge, labour and financial resources between rural and urban areas is also facilitated through networks and both formal and informal business networks may connect rural areas to the urban centres. Policy efforts to support and regulate the operation of business networks have contributed to the establishment of alternative business networks while policy efforts to increase the supply of communication technologies have also assisted the spread of networks.

The presence of effective rural-urban collaboration involving the public, private and voluntary sectors has potentially great significance for rural development. The impacts of rural-urban partnerships are likely to be highly dependent on local, and ultimately *ad hoc*, contextual factors. Constraints to rural development may be felt in the form of political and cultural differences on both sides. Ultimately, all forms of rural-urban collaboration have the potential to open up rural economies and societies to new forms of knowledge, ideas, innovation and entrepreneurship, which evidence suggests can help drive rural development and performance in a positive way.

As well as contributing to the demise of rural services counterurbanisation can also contribute to other forms of social and economic exclusion in rural areas. Likewise, increased demand for rural housing can result in the exclusion of local people from the housing market, which in turn can force people into rented accommodation and exacerbate rural out-migration. Indicatively, a decline in transport costs could well mean an expanding (urban) market for rural products. In a rural-urban context, infrastructural improvements will influence the flows of commodities and services between rural and urban areas, giving rise to trickle down, or polarization, effects and constituting a potentially important driver of rural change.

## 5.5 Cultural heritage

Rural development perspectives identify tangible and intangible aspects of cultural heritage as potential assets which are a property of people and of place and with direct, indirect and non-use values. The historical association between people and place in rural areas is an endogenous development asset. However, processes of economic integration and modernisation may dilute cultural identity with place that, in turn, might lead to the devaluing of traditional rural practices and lifestyles. Population decrease may also weaken the cultural capacity of a region. These developments are typical for peripheral areas and former industrial areas. Cultural identity in rural areas is generally connected to farmers' embeddedness in the land, but the transformation of the rural economy has led to change in historical cultural practices.

The disappearance of a farming culture is connected to processes of land abandonment (and conversion) in marginal and mountainous areas, whereas processes of 'urban sprawl' are at work in Europe's rural metropolitan areas. The historical association between people and place is reflected in the cultural landscapes of rural Europe. Farm adjustment is a significant driver of change in the cultural continuity of agricultural landscapes, given agriculture is, and will continue to be, the most important use of land in Europe. As UAA increases in areas of agricultural intensification, homogenisation of cultural landscapes could occur.

The implications of these changes for rural development trajectories are complex. Migration itself is an important driver of rural development. Immigration flows of groups with different cultural identities and practices represent both a potential opportunity and constraint for rural development related to cultural heritage. Rural areas experiencing positive net migration typically have a strong metropolitan influence and migrants can have urban lifestyles and values which diverge from traditional agrarian lifestyles and values. Processes of urban-rural migration to remoter rural areas are less likely to be influenced by economic factors (e.g. wage differentials, social mobility or accessibility to urban centres), as they are by the cultural and environmental attractiveness of rural areas. As a result, forms of cultural expression, cultural activity and cultural organisation can reflect a plurality of contemporary local identities which enriches area resources.

A major economic development opportunity for rural areas is to directly exploit cultural heritage assets by making them accessible for recreation, leisure and tourism and through product differentiation in the quest for market share. The agrarian traditions which are highly valued in a European context offer significant opportunities for commoditisation of built attractions, marketing and branding in exportable production, and for revenue generated by visitor experiences as part of integrated rural tourism development. Rural regions containing or close to natural areas (such as natural parks) or with a high density of built heritage attractions have a stronger potential to attract visitors, as do areas with distinct historical and authentic cultural practices which are constructed as part of their territorial identity .

Potential constraints in valorising these rural resources for development can be social, financial, physical and human. The extent to which cultural heritage qualities are an opportunity for development is often dependent upon the strength, nature and quality of rural-urban linkages, accessibility, strong institutional partnerships and forms of policy support and intervention to support the commodification of cultural assets with public good characteristics.

## **5.6 Access to services of general interest**

Provision and accessibility to services of general interest is a primary driver of change for rural areas. There is little doubt that the state of provision and accessibility to services of general interest in rural areas will largely condition their capacity to maintain and attract population and to break the rural deprivation “vicious circle”. What is needed is public action focused on territorial cohesion that continues and boosts efforts already carried out by different administrations. On the other hand, the availability and accessibility to services of general interest in rural areas will also depend on a number of drivers that will condition accessibility needs and demands of rural residents and, therefore, the goals of policy action. These drivers of change are (Bowden and Moseley, 2008): first, demographic factors including population size, structure and average age; second, socioeconomic structure; third, degree of cultural change; fourth, available income; fifth, increased personal mobility and communication capacity; sixth, the orientation of public action and; seventh, demands of non rural residents. Specifically, it needs to be observed how the provision of and access to services of general interest likewise impact upon these drivers of change depending on the type of rural area.

An improvement in accessibility conditions to services of general interest in rural areas will contribute to the goal of equal opportunities and to reduce regional disparities. The key elements to incorporate rural areas to global economy are: accessibility to IST technology, new mode of urban demand in rural areas, counter-urbanisation and new forms of governance. Increasing liberalisation and globalisation requires governments to take actions in order to guarantee the principles of territorial equivalence and equal access to services of general interest. Provision and access to services of general interest are central to the EU cohesion and regional policy, reflecting the goal of territorially equilibrated development. However, in reality the centralisation and reduction of services (see below) and lagging provision of e.g. IST services in rural areas often tends to disadvantage rural regions, thus de facto increasing spatial disparities.

While the characteristics and histories of the various services differ from country to county, a few overarching developments can be observed: (a) There is a growing trend of privatising formerly public services. (b) Both private and public services are becoming increasingly cost-sensitive due to more competition, more price-conscious consumers and less public subsidies. (c) Cutting down or centralising services is commonplace now due to more restrained public budgets (compared to the 1960s and 1970s when services were generally expanded). Where these general trends combine with local factors of economic and demographic decline, a vicious circle may be set in motion, making it less and less attractive for businesses and households to locate or remain located in a certain rural area. In some cases the resulting depletion of population calls into question or even forces local and regional policy-makers to substantially modify the existing settlement hierarchies and regional planning frameworks (e.g. central place system).

## **5.7 Institutional capacity**

Institutional capacity refers to the degree to which new modes of governance effectively inhibit or resolve societal and/or administrative problems and challenges. It is connected with such factors as the power, information and knowledge which different forms of governance have in order to undertake and tackle societal and administrative problems. However, in different countries, political cultures and geographic areas partnerships work in very different styles and with very different results. Local governance not only forms a territorial alternative to sector based policies, but also advances endogenous development by building the capacity of communities to adapt to external changes. It is important for local governance structures to have the capability and competence to network and interact in order to act where necessary with other regions, and to build coalitions and partnerships directed to specific goals. However, encouraging interaction between regions can lead instead to interregional competition and thereby inhibit valuable flows of knowledge between actors in competing regions.

Local governance can resolve territorial disadvantages and reduce negative impacts, if it supports innovation and development policies. It is also important to promote networks and construct socially accepted strategies and projects, in order to create the preconditions for project implementation. New



instruments and institutions have been created for the governance and regulation of rural space and new actors have become more involved in rural governance. Resistance to some of the proposed changes has been an important factor in making local rural society active in new governance structures.

Institutional capacities are diverse: there is a mixture of initiating and developing ideas and activities and, on the other hand, of steering and managing new processes. To be effective, though, it is essential that local governance arrangements relate to multi-level governance structures, (although the most effective form of this relationship is still to be developed). Until now, state–local level power dynamics have dominated the governance structures, but increasingly private and civic sector actors will become involved.

Partnerships in different forms have an important position in rural development policies. Policy discourse has highlighted the need for the involvement of the citizens and communities in partnerships. The formation of partnerships will take place at a local level, but the initiative originates from state level. A constraint for the work of rural partnerships is their short lifespan. Those rural partnerships which have been able to extend their existence very often spend a lot of time and energy on this activity. Partnership development is also often constrained by a lack of democratic legitimacy, by a lack of administrative resources and institutional support, and by tensions between powerful and the powerless members of the partnership.

## **5.8 Climate change**

Climate on planet Earth is something that has always changed, but its present speed of change is now much faster than previously envisaged. This change is primarily caused by human activity. Man will be affected by climate change, but future climate change can be affected by changes in human action. Rural areas will be affected, and will also be involved in making changes for the future.

While the effects of climate change will be global, very little can be said meaningfully about the local impacts of climate change: these will be diverse. Every region and locality will experience its own form of climate change. Research at this level is only just beginning to emerge. In Europe, this diversity in agriculturally-dependent areas will mean that some (mainly in northern Europe) will have the potential to introduce new crops and varieties, increase their productivity and cultivate larger areas of land. Others, though, will face problems of water shortages, desertification and a reduction in the land areas available for cultivation.

Planning for such changes at the local level is essential, and well-developed and timely adaptation strategies could lead to beneficial outcomes. One part of this planning is for scientific information to be produced that explains what climate change means for individual localities (there is a role here for ESPON). However, this needs to be examined and acted upon at the local level in order to plan for adaptation. This implies that there are local institutions with the capability to undertake this task and that public concern is at a level to provide them with a mandate to make changes that anticipate the full effects of climate change.

Local government, almost without exception, is at present inexperienced at developing integrated and co-ordinated responses to the challenges of climate change at the local level based on the latest scientific findings. Analysis of the RDPs for 2007-2013 suggests that the type of activity needed is more advanced in the countries of northern and western Europe; Mediterranean areas have developed policies but lack the institutional and professional ambition to tackle the issue; eastern European states lack public concern and the necessary institutional framework.

## **5.9 Farm structural change**

The declining importance of agriculture in the rural economies is an inevitable trend in response to economic development and the inelastic demand for agricultural goods. This is therefore a very important and stable driver of rural change. It is also a very important determinant of differentiation between

regions, since during periods when the profitability of farming is under pressure, there is a tendency for activity to be concentrated in the most productive areas, whilst more marginal regions are forced to retrench and (if alternative opportunities exist) diversify. Where alternative opportunities are scarce, especially in remote or peripheral areas, the consequence of the slow decline of farming activity may be out-migration, particularly of the young and better educated elements of the population, resulting in a “*syndrome of disadvantage*” A key constraint in the process of agricultural decline is the level of education, training and “tacit knowledge” among ex-agricultural workers. There is also the possibility of labour market segmentation in rural areas, which presents less tangible barriers to movement of farm workers into the New Rural Economy.

Clearly the continuing *structural change of farm holdings*, the increasing contrast between large “commercially orientated” holdings and small pluriactive and diversified units, whether supported by policy intervention, or simply the result of market and technology trends, is a major factor in the process of increasing differentiation between rural regions, especially where agriculture continues to play a major role. This polarisation has important implications for the locus of market power and the degree to which rural areas are integrated into the globalised economy. Large scale commercialised holdings tend to be tied into supply chains which are often controlled by multinational companies and supermarket retailers, for whom price is normal basis of competitive advantage but for whom food quality and traceability have gained importance since the 1990s. Small scale producers tend to be attached to shorter, locally embedded supply chains, often competing primarily on quality rather than solely on price. However, they are often facing more problems than large scale producers to comply with food quality and traceability standards set by legislation or by supermarket retailers.

Another driver of rural change is the increasing value placed by society upon rural environment, culture and heritage, and the increasing ability of the urban population to access recreational amenities. They present important diversification opportunities in areas where the environment is favourable. The question is that if these processes play important role in the restructuring of the agricultural sector. Generally, opportunities present themselves through the process of commodification of public goods and multifunctionality.

The more accessible rural areas of the EU frequently coincide with the more fertile and productive farmland, in which specialisation and large-scale commercial systems, integrated into globalised agri-business supply chains, are a development option for some farmers. On the other hand good access to large numbers of very mobile and affluent consumers presents an opportunity for small-scale producers of niche and high quality products which may be sold directly to urban consumers or marketed via “short supply chains” Such areas generally exhibit more positive (or less negative) trends in population and employment, through the process of “counter-urbanisation”, which reflects the attractiveness of the residential and working environment, “agrarian” quality of life, and the absence of urban congestion. These areas have been described as “accumulating”.

## **6 Grand Narratives underlying Rural Change**

### **6.1 Introduction**

As we saw in Section 5, 9 thematic papers have been produced as draft Working Papers 1-9. These draft theme papers have been synthesised in the draft Working Paper 10. This summarises our current thoughts on the narratives that are emerging from early versions of the theme papers.

At the point when we began the synthesis of the thematic papers (early February 2009) some material had been submitted for the sections of most pertinence to WP10 by all nine theme authors. In some cases this was relatively complete; in others it was clear that sub-sections were still to be written and/or second authors still had to provide text. Since that time some authors have been working on revised versions; we have also asked them for further elaboration of certain issues. At the time of writing this interim report (mid-April 2009) three papers (Demography, Rural-Urban Relationships and Farm Structural Change) had submitted second versions.

Revisions to the theme Working Papers and the synthesis Working Paper 10 will be made before the Final Report. We envisage this as an iterative process between the theme papers and the synthesis with adjustments and responses made in each to reflect later development in the papers.

Theme paper authors were given briefing notes on some pre-established grand narratives of rural change, derived from the literature with the caveat that these might develop or change over the period of the project. The authors were asked to reflect upon these strands within their Working Papers.

### **6.2 Three Grand Narratives of Rural Change**

There are a number of “grand narratives” of change which might be used in organising our own work in EDORA. In this early draft we highlight just three. The first is agri-centric and employs concepts such as agri-industrial productivism, post-productivism and the consumption countryside; and local food networks. This draws on authors such as Marsden (2003) and Crowley, Walsh and Meredith (2008). The second focuses on accessibility to urban labour markets, distinguishing between accessible and remoter rural areas, and is implicit in many official typologies of rural areas, such as those of DEFRA, OECD and the CEC, as well as the ESDP. A third draws on theories of globalisation, divisions of labour and capitalist penetration, considering the roles of local and global capital and how these seek to exploit rural resources.

#### **6.2.1 An agri-centric narrative**

Marsden (2003) distinguished between three models of agricultural and rural development in Europe – an agro-industrial model, an alternative post-productivist model, and a nascent rural development model, each with their own dynamic.

Marsden argued that recent CAP reforms have essentially been attempts to deal with the growing crises of legitimacy in the dominant agro-industrial model: “to keep in place the basic principles of the industrial system while at the same time highlighting a rational conception of food quality”. In competition with this, he argues, an alternative post-productivist model of the countryside has been promoted in north-west Europe, particularly, in order to shape the countryside socially and morally “in ways which continue to make it attractive and lucrative to aspiring ex-urban groups”. Marsden argues that it is in those regions least exploited by either the agro-industrial or the post-productivist model, ie. “peripheral rural regions”, that an emergent sustainable rural development model may instead hold out greater hope. This model he sees as based on local food production through “re-embedded local food supply chains”, with a truly sustainable development dynamic offering “pathways out of contradiction”. This may be related to local development models such as LEADER.

### **6.2.2 An urban-rural narrative**

An alternative “grand narrative” is that which prioritises urban-rural interactions, and typologies of rural areas according to spheres of urban influence, generally measured in terms of Euclidian distance or travel-to-work areas. According to the final report of Espon 1.1.2 (Urban-Rural Relations in Europe) “commuting is one of the biggest forces of change in the countryside.” One detailed investigation of this approach is the SERA report (Copus et al 2005), which drew attention to two large scale processes of change; a long established “urbanisation” trend drawing population and economic activity out of more remote rural areas into urban and accessible rural areas, and a more recent “counter-urbanisation” flow out of urban regions into accessible rural areas. As a result of these two flows, the report argued, the accessible parts of the OECD’s Significantly Rural (SR) group of regions represent a zone of growth, with an economic structure increasingly similar to that of the Predominantly Urban (PU) regions. By contrast the Predominantly Rural (PR) regions, especially in the more remote parts of the EU are still being depleted of population and economic activity through cumulative self-perpetuating cycles of decline – a reference back to Myrdal’s cumulative causation thesis. Ultimately, peripheral regions are thought to have less ‘economic potential’. Peripherality is thus viewed as a “consequence of the location of a region in relation to all other regions, and their economic size/importance. Quite simply, a region which is close to centres of economic activity will have a range of advantages over one which is located further away, and vice versa.”

### **6.2.3 A narrative of capitalist penetration**

Much has been written about the globalisation of production, the move towards flexible specialisation and a global division of tasks across huge distances. For any given locality in late modernity (rural or urban), future prosperity may be profoundly affected by the manner in which global capital seeks to exploit local resources such as land and labour, unless local capital itself is able to underpin development. Rural areas characterised by low wages, a compliant, non-unionised workforce, and lower levels of regulation, may be particularly prone to exploitation by international capital, leading to increased dependency and peripherality. On the other hand, rural areas with highly educated and skilled populations, strong institutions and social capital may be sites of innovation, prosperity and security. Another scenario is that local, rather than global, capital may underpin successful local economies, seeking to develop products which depend upon a local identity for their market niche, so ‘selling the local to the global’. These dimensions of capital are, in principle, independent of distance to urban centres and of reliance on agriculture, although in practice there may be historically contingent associations with these factors. Woods (2005, 33) has stated that “globalisation is therefore, in essence, about power – about the lack of power of rural regions to control their own futures, and about the increasing subjection of rural regions to networks and processes of power that are produced, reproduced and executed on a global scale.” However, as Woods also recognises, people and policy-makers in rural areas are not entirely passive in the face of global forces, with many opportunities to resist and negotiate these forces, so seeking to exert agency and remain competitive in a globalised world. This emphasis on global competitiveness in a world where localities are increasingly interconnected and interdependent is the main thrust of the EU’s Lisbon Strategy, which sets out the EU’s aspiration to become the most competitive and dynamic knowledge-based economy.

Each of these narratives leads to slightly different conclusions about how to promote rural growth.

Two papers were clearly focused on a single one of these narratives: Farm Structural Change on the agri-centric narrative; and Rural-urban Interactions on the urban-rural narrative. The Demography theme paper’s focus was very much on urban-rural migrations, and other theme papers made pertinent points related to one or other of the grand narratives but these were generally implicit within the text rather than being explicit. Contributions were made to each of the three grand narratives, although the political implications of globalisation were less prominent than we anticipated.

Our readings of version 1 of each report for evidence that European rural change might best be characterised in terms of one or other of the three pre-set grand narratives suggested to us that each had

relevance, and that perhaps another cross-cutting narrative might also be explored, summed up with the old English word, 'connexity', meaning connectedness and interrelatedness (Mulgan 1997).

### 6.3 Connexity

Working Paper 10 begins by discussing connexity in terms of the relationship of rural areas with extra-rural ones. Five types of connexity are discussed in this context, as depicted in Figure 2:

1. *Economic Connexity* Examples would be supply chains that cross the rural 'boundary' linking them to distant places, and the out-commuting that takes place from rural areas of Europe where counter-urbanisation has taken place.
2. *Social Connexity* The exodus of young people to cities for higher education, and the need for a critical mass of population in order to deliver services would be examples in this category.
3. *Ideas and Innovation Connexity* This type of connexity is particular prominent in the Rural Business Development theme paper which stresses the importance for businesses to network and cluster, including making links with higher education institutions.
4. *Policy Connexity* The connexity discussed in this section is more one way than the relationships described above. Policies emanate from world, EU and national sources and impact on the development of rural areas.
5. *Environment Connexity* is slightly different from the others in this section. Rather than being an extra-rural /rural relationship, what rural man does to the environment, and how climate change impacts on rural areas, is spatially indiscriminate.

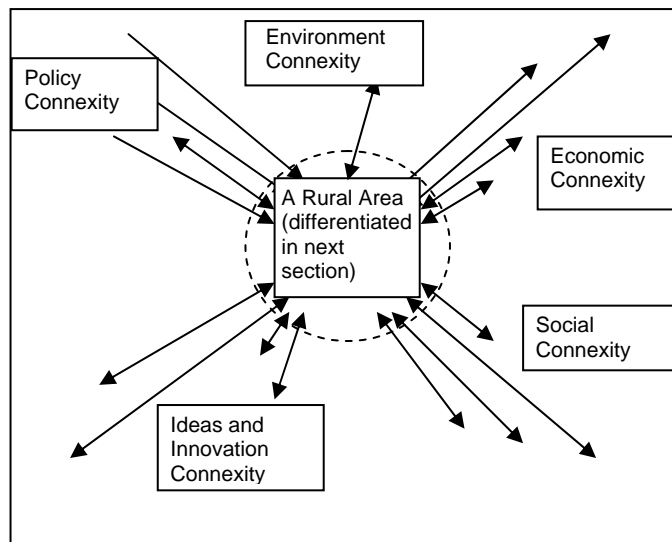
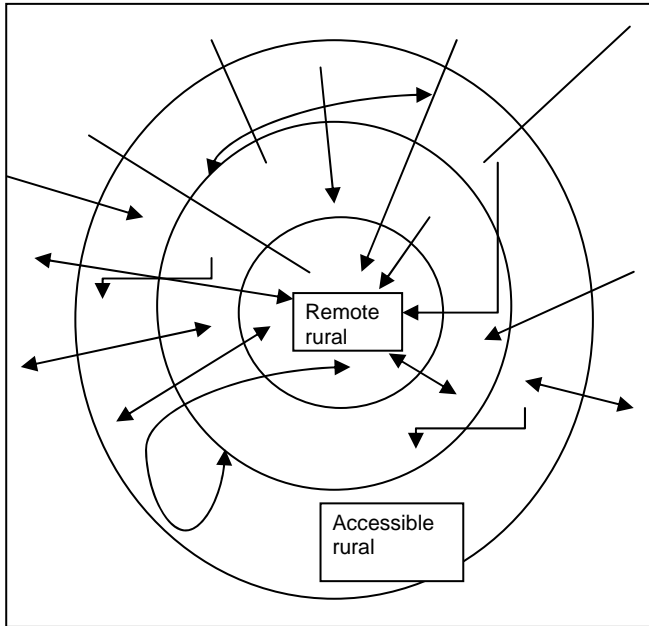


Figure 2: Connexity

#### 6.3.1 Differentiated Rural Areas and Connexity

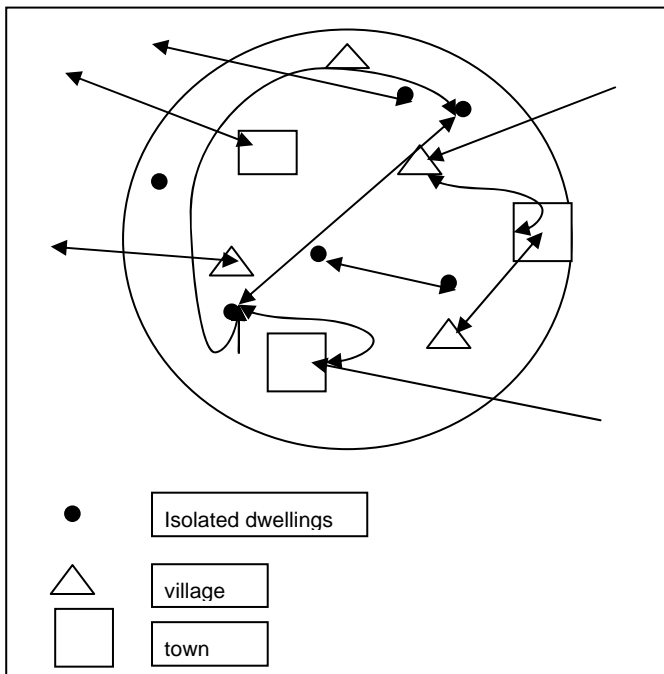
The extra-rural/rural connexity described in the theme papers is not always with an unspecified rural space, but sometimes can be assigned to certain rural types. This is also the case for some of the intra-rural connexity described. Accordingly, Working Paper 10 draws out three popular conceptualisations of rural space connexity from the theme papers, and these are each considered in turn:

1. *The relative remoteness of rural areas* This is depicted in Figure 3. A prominent example of extra-rural connexity with a specific tier of remoteness is of how counter-urbanisation impacts significantly on accessible rural areas and depopulation is common in remoter rural areas.



**Figure 3: Connexity and remoteness of rural areas**

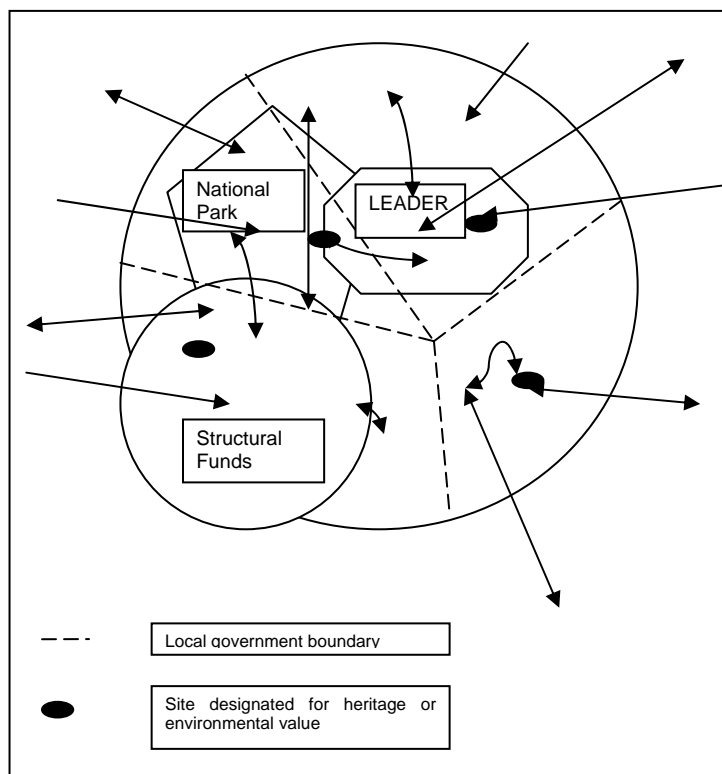
2. *Rural Settlement Patterns and Connexity* (Figure 4) Extra-rural connexity with specific settlements was hardly at all evident in the theme papers, and we are therefore asking theme paper authors whether this was because of a (rectifiable) oversight, or because EU level statistics are not stratified in this way. There was more discussion of the settlement hierarchy in terms of intra-rural relations, and in particular in terms of service delivery.



**Figure 4: Connexity and rural settlements**

3. *Rural areas were also defined by territorial governance.* The messy and overlaid nature of the conceptualisation of rural space by territorial designation is captured in Figure 5. An example of how extra-rural connexity related to different designated areas is how some sites or areas may have

environmental or heritage designations that constrain infrastructure or economic development; other areas may be given the funding for such developments.



**Figure 5: Connexity and Territorial Governance**

The intra-rural connexity described in many theme papers was often less differentiated, with discussions of 'local' connexity through partnerships, clusters or networks, for example. Some of the intra-rural connexity was at the micro scale, with family, neighbours or friends being seen as important in both economic and social activities.

## 6.4 The Three Grand Narratives in the Thematic Papers

Working Paper 10 reviews the original grand narratives in the light of the commentaries in the theme papers.

### 6.4.1 Urban-Rural Grand Narrative

The analysis of connectivity above, and the theme papers, drew out many of the trends within this narrative: the shift of some people from rural areas to the cities, the processes of counter-urbanisation and commuting patterns, and the impacts of these on other areas of life, such as service delivery. The differences are drawn between the accessible rural areas where commuting and employment counter-urbanisation are common, and the remote areas of some of the EU which are still being depleted of population and economic activity and are caught up in self-perpetuating cycles of decline. This narrative was particularly prominent in the Rural-urban Interactions paper, the Demography paper, and the Access to Services Paper.

### 6.4.2 Capitalist Penetration and Globalisation Grand Narrative

Rather than simply noting interdependencies of the rural with the global, what this section is really interested in is the politics of globalisation, which is essentially about power and the lack of power of

some rural regions to control their own futures, The Cultural Heritage theme paper paid most attention to these powerful exogenous processes. In spite of universalising tendencies of modernisation, some rural areas retain traditional cultures as a resource for local development. The revalorisation of cultural diversity is seen as a resistance to globalisation. Endogenous development, based on the derivation of competitive advantage from local assets, as outlined in the Institutional Capacity paper, can similarly be conceptualised as resistance in this way. This theme is also addressed in the Rural Employment and demography papers. There is therefore much within the theme papers that could be argued to be about globalisation as a political process but it is not portrayed in this way at present. The theme paper authors will be asked to explore this further, and in particular to look at how power is exerted over rural areas and the impact it has.

### **6.4.3 Agri-centric Grand Narrative**

This narrative is well documented in the Farm Structural Change theme paper. In essence it constructs and deconstructs the narrative that rural areas are inextricably linked to agriculture, as many were in the past. In those where agriculture is significant, farming may be a productivist activity, it may be a means of preserving traditional environments, or it may be as a response to consumer demands for a variety of specialist products. In the EU as a whole the primary sector accounts for less than 10% of total rural employment, and in a third of rural regions its share is less than 5%. However, in more remote rural areas in CEECs this sector still employs 25% of the workforce. The declining importance of agriculture is a continuing trend in most member states as their prosperity grows, but this is differentiated by region with productivist activity concentrated in the most productive areas, and those on marginal land retrenching and, where possible, diversifying. EU policy has also reflected, and driven, the changing role of agriculture within rural economies: the CAP remains a battleground between those who emphasise and advocate an agricultural sector policy as against a wider, more territorial rural development policy.

### **6.4.4 Other narratives**

A couple of other narratives seemed to cross a number of the theme papers which are not captured easily in the 'grander' narratives outlined above. The first is a concern for those places and people 'left behind' in terms of rural development: the declining areas, and the people who are excluded from the opportunities afforded by the changes taking place. Living in remote rural areas, especially those in decline and with few services exacerbates the types of social exclusion that deprived people in all areas suffer because of the distances they need to travel to meet their basic needs.

The second narrative is about Europe. The importance of EU policy is regularly referred to in the theme papers. There is also a tension between discussions of 'One Europe' and several Europes in some papers. This is particularly pronounced in the distinctions often drawn between EU15 and the New Member States.

## **6.5 Conclusions**

This is the first version of a synthesis which draws out the main narratives from nine theme papers. At this stage, these theme papers were early drafts, and as such we expect them to change before their final versions, which may in turn trigger substantial alterations to this synthesis. We also hope that this draft will cause the theme paper authors to reflect further on the narratives we have been pursuing, and will draw to their attention our contention that they understate the importance of settlement patterns, of globalisation and of social exclusion.

In terms of concluding on the content of this version of Activities 2.11, we have drawn out what we think are important narratives of rural development. However, none of these simplify our depiction of rural change, either singly or taken as a whole. This is not an omission on our part: what needs to be conveyed about the present state of rurality is its complexity.



Our impression, having written the draft Working Paper (WP10) is that the 'connexity' narrative may be a useful further theme. It allows extra-rural space to be seen as a whole, and unhampered by definitions of 'global' and 'urban'. It also introduces connexity within rural space which is not a feature of the original grand narratives. However, in writing up the three original grand narratives, it seems important to retain at least the 'globalisation' and the 'agri-centric' narratives alongside the connexity narrative. As with other exercises that 'map' relationships, connexity could be argued to downplay power, which is a central theme in the globalisation narrative. The agri-centric narrative is useful to retain because it reinforces the case for conceptualising rural as a distinctive space, rather than one that is simply related to other (dominant?) spaces. The urban-rural narrative is somewhat subsumed within other narratives in this approach: much of it within the connexity narrative, but where it appears as a powerful force (a threat) to rural areas, this could be construed as its close relationship with globalisation.

We also make reference at the end to the plight of those places and people 'left behind', and for whom change is problematic. The narrative of Europe, and Europeanisation, also might deserve some attention in later versions. We welcome comments on whether these are important to retain, and on the main narratives that we have derived from the theme papers.

## **7 Towards a New Regional Typology of Rural Development Environments**

The relationship between the EDORA typology (Activity 2.22) and several other research tasks, particularly 2.24 and 2.13 is rather like the proverbial chicken and egg. Thus although the typology was intended to play a role in the selection of the Exemplar Regions, its categories should also reflect the “holistic narratives” which emerged from them. The timing of the typology development also seemed problematic, in that it was scheduled to begin before the final outcome of Activity 2.12 (the synthesis of the D.O.C. theme reports) had provided a clear picture of the Grand Narratives. The research team have followed a rather pragmatic approach to these issues, and since, in any case, the development of the typology is scheduled to continue until June 2009, the version described below should be considered as a first draft, which will subsequently be refined and elaborated.

Furthermore (as was already mentioned in Section 3) the precise role of the typology has been clarified. Regional typologies are essentially static, rather than dynamic. The EDORA typology should therefore be viewed as a snapshot of a process of regional differentiation across Europe. It is essentially an attempt to show the distribution of a set of broad generic types of rural development environment, which may be conceived as the starting point for continuing change in the future. Typologies are always a simplification of a complex reality (represented for example in the Exemplar Region Reports). The EDORA typology cannot reflect the full richness of variation across rural Europe. However it is hoped that it will act as a useful heuristic device, a framework within which to explore the processes of rural change and differentiation, and the principal dimensions of future perspectives. Should it prove its value in the research context it may also prove to be a valid structure for the development of policy guidelines.

### **7.1 Methodological Considerations**

#### **7.1.1 A Simple Cartographic, Disaggregative, Multi-Criteria approach.**

A recent review of rural typologies (Copus *et al* 2007, see also Weingarten *et al* 2009 forthcoming) has highlighted the advantages of disaggregative/deductive multi-criteria approaches to typology building for policy related purposes. In essence these relate to:

- (a) Avoiding an outcome which is driven by data availability; which in the rural development field means a danger of being overly agrarian in focus.
- (b) The ability to pre-determine the classes/types so that they reflect the policy questions for which the typology has been developed.
- (c) Ease of interpretation.
- (d) Modest data requirements.

Clearly the same arguments apply in the case of EDORA.

In addition, the EDORA typology will be enhanced by a pragmatic use of statistical maps at every stage to guide the choice of type criteria, and to check the regional implications.

In the case of the above study the starting point for the typologies was a set of “Generic Policy Issues” (GPI) derived from a careful analysis of policy documents relating to EU rural development policy. In the context of EDORA the role of the GPI is taken by the Grand Narratives described in Section 6. We will return to this in section 7.2.

#### **7.1.2 Compatibility with the Extended OECD Urban-Rural Typology**

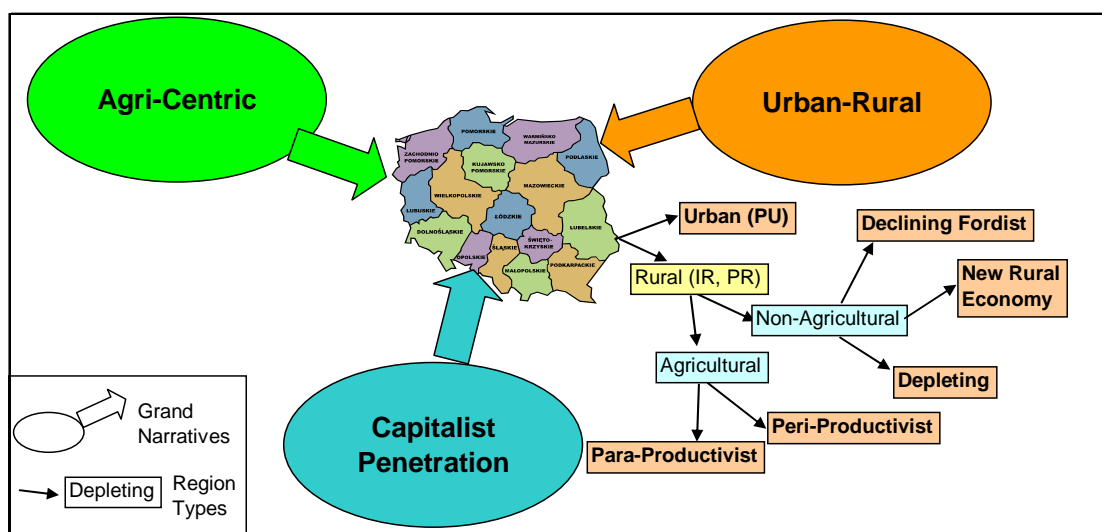
The extended OECD urban-rural typology (Dijkstra and Poelman 2008) is a significant step forward as a practical tool for analysis of rural change, and as such it has recently gained widespread recognition in EU policy contexts. Earlier studies (Copus *et al* 2006) have shown that accessibility is can play an important role in explanations of differential performance of rural regions. The Dijkstra-Poelman typology

is therefore adopted as the starting point of the EDORA typology. In particular it is used as a means of defining (and excluding from further analysis) the urban NUTS 3 regions of Europe.

It has one significant shortcoming in an ESPON context, it covers the EU27 only. Further work will be required to apply it to the non-EU countries within the ESPON space.

## 7.2 Links with the Grand Narratives and the Thematic Reports

Its perhaps important here to re-emphasise the fact that the GN are at a relatively high level of abstraction – they describe overarching themes/dimensions of change, which have various “strands”, and which will “play out” differently in different kinds of region. The three GN also combine to affect each region in different proportions. So in each region there will be a more or less unique development path, reflecting the unique combination of the three GN, their various strands, and also geographical characteristics and potentials.



**Figure 6: The relationship between Grand Narratives and the EDORA Typology**

The three original GN (the implications of connexity have yet to be incorporated in this section) define the underlying architecture of the (draft) EDORA typology. The description of the various types is further enriched by material from the thematic reports (Activity 2.11). Figure 6 illustrates the resulting “decision tree”. The hierarchy of disaggregative criteria begin by distinguishing urban from rural regions (**Urban-Rural GN**)<sup>3</sup>. The next level distinguishes those regions in which the Primary Sector (or rather agriculture) plays a significant role, from those which have more diverse economies (**Agri-Centric GN**). Finally the agricultural regions are divided into “Para-Productivist” and “Peri-Productivist” types and the diversified regions are sub-divided into “New Rural Economy” and “Declining Fordist” types. The grouping of regions at this level in the hierarchy is an attempt to reflect the **Capitalist Penetration GN**.

Before describing the data sources and criteria used in the draft version of the EDORA typology it is perhaps helpful to provide a brief further explanation of the agricultural and diversified region types:

**Para- and peri-productivist agriculture** are “styles of farming” described by Crowley, Walsh and Meredith (2008). In the Farm Structural Change Thematic Report (Activity 2.11) these two groups are described as follows:

<sup>3</sup> In Figure 6 the “Depleting” group of regions is shown as a sub-division of the Non-Agricultural group. In later versions of the typology it was found to be more appropriate to place the depletion – accumulating dichotomy immediately after the urban-rural definition (and before agriculture-non agricultural) within the “decision tree”.

*“The inclusion of the term “productivist” at both extremes emphasises the fact that almost all farm businesses are still responsive to market demands , and absorbing technological change to some extent. At the para-productivist end of the spectrum productivism is ameliorated by regulation to provide environmental protection, food safety, animal welfare and so on. At the other end of the pathway production for the conventional commodity markets is a minority element of the system, alongside on-farm diversification and off-farm employment, and a contribution from subsidies designed to reward farmers for provision of environmental public goods.”*

In addition to these two types, the draft typology distinguishes regions dominated by “**Semi-Subsistence**” farming<sup>4</sup>. Following what appears to be the consensus in the academic literature, this type is confined to the NMS12. Regions with many small pluriactive farm businesses within the EU15 are considered to be of the peri-productivist type.

The diversified (“non-agricultural”) regions have been sub-divided into two types. The first comprises those which have followed a relatively dynamic development path in recent years, usually (though not exclusively) from an agricultural starting point, to become relatively prosperous on the basis of a mix of secondary and tertiary activities. This group is denominated “**New Rural Economy**” (**NRE**). This is a relatively large and heterogeneous group. Many of the features and processes associated with modern economic growth (innovation systems, clusters, flexible specialisation, knowledge-based activities and networks, high levels of human capital, supportive social capital and “institutional thickness”) and are evident in this group. SMEs play an important role in the economies of these regions. The private services sector is strong. They are generally quite accessible, or incorporate many medium-sized settlements, and have relatively high levels of GDP per capita.

The other “non-agricultural” region type, “**Declining Fordist**” have a development path associated with secondary activities, which are at the other extreme of the development spectrum, characterised by heavy industries and “Fordist” companies, which tend to be labour and capital intensive rather than knowledge intensive. The private services sector is relatively under-developed here. These regions have for some reason failed to restructure. Many have suffered high levels of unemployment, low incomes, degradation of infrastructure and living environment. GDP per capita tends to be low and lagging behind in terms of growth rates. Many of these regions are rather heterogeneous, in terms of settlement patterns, incorporating relatively densely populated industrial areas along with rural hinterlands<sup>5</sup>.

### 7.3 Data Sources

The approach used to develop the draft EDORA typology utilised a relatively small number of indicators in order to obtain a simple “overview” of the distribution of the types described above. These indicators were selected partly because they have complete, or near complete coverage of NUTS 3 regions within the ESPON space. The limitations of this “skeletal” database of “core indicators” are of course appreciated, and the intention is to elaborate the typology by adding additional data once the overall structure is established.

The following data sources are currently incorporated into the decision tree (more details in Table A1.2):

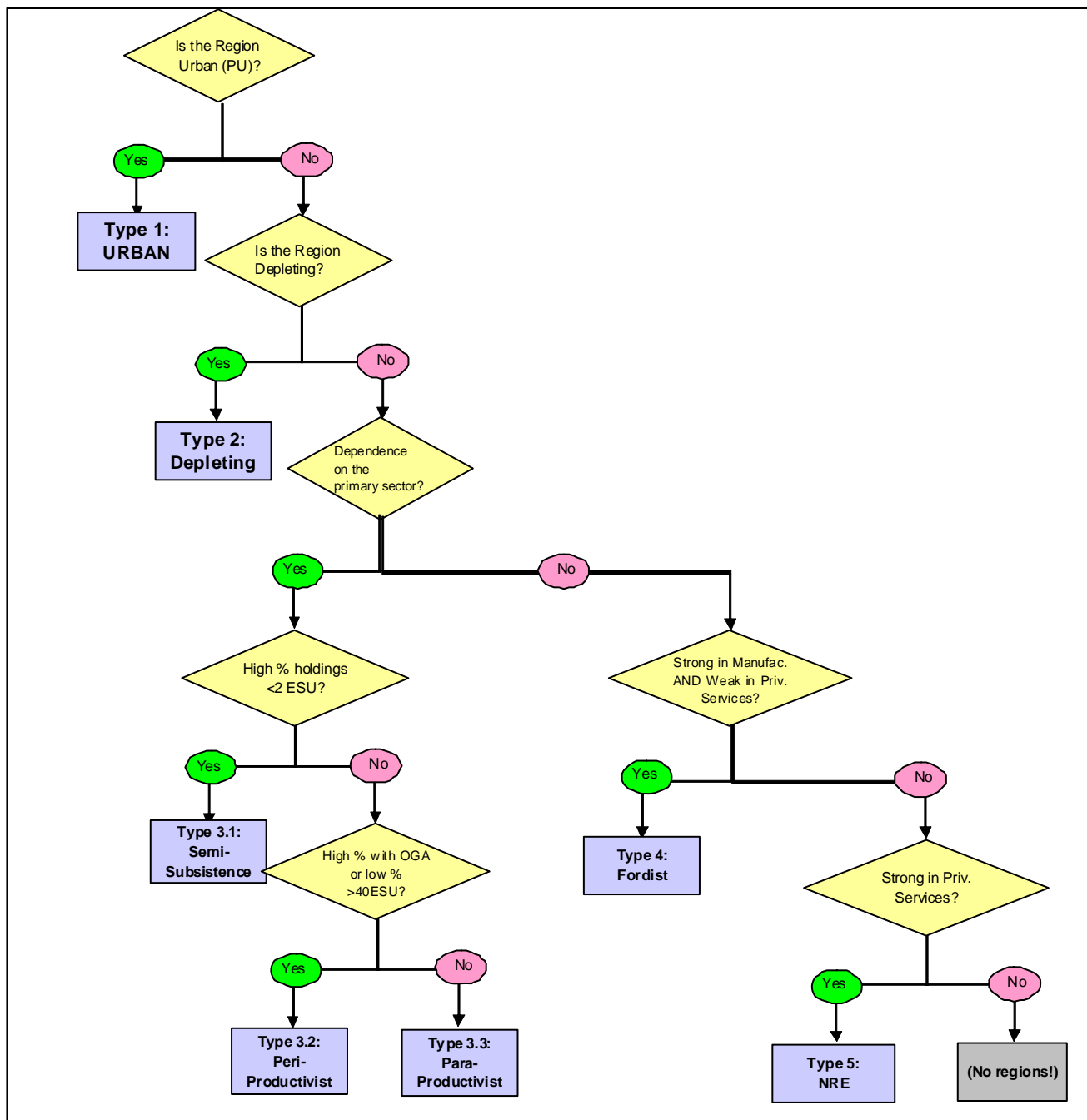
- (a) The Dijkstra and Poelman (2008) urban-rural codes.
- (b) The population trend typology produced by Mats Johansson (ESPON Programme 2008).
- (c) Gross value added by sector – (the Eurostat REGIO Database).
- (d) European size units data from the European Farm Structures Survey – (the Eurostat REGIO database).

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<sup>4</sup> This type is not yet shown in Figure 6, which was drawn at an earlier stage of the development of the typology.

<sup>5</sup> Clearly the configuration of NUTS 3 region boundaries has an impact upon the definition of types. However the well-known implications of the Modifiable Areal Unit Problem (MAUP) have to be balanced, in a pragmatic way, with considerations of data availability.

(e) Farm holders with Other Gainful Activities (OGA) from the European Farm Structures Survey – (the Eurostat REGIO database).

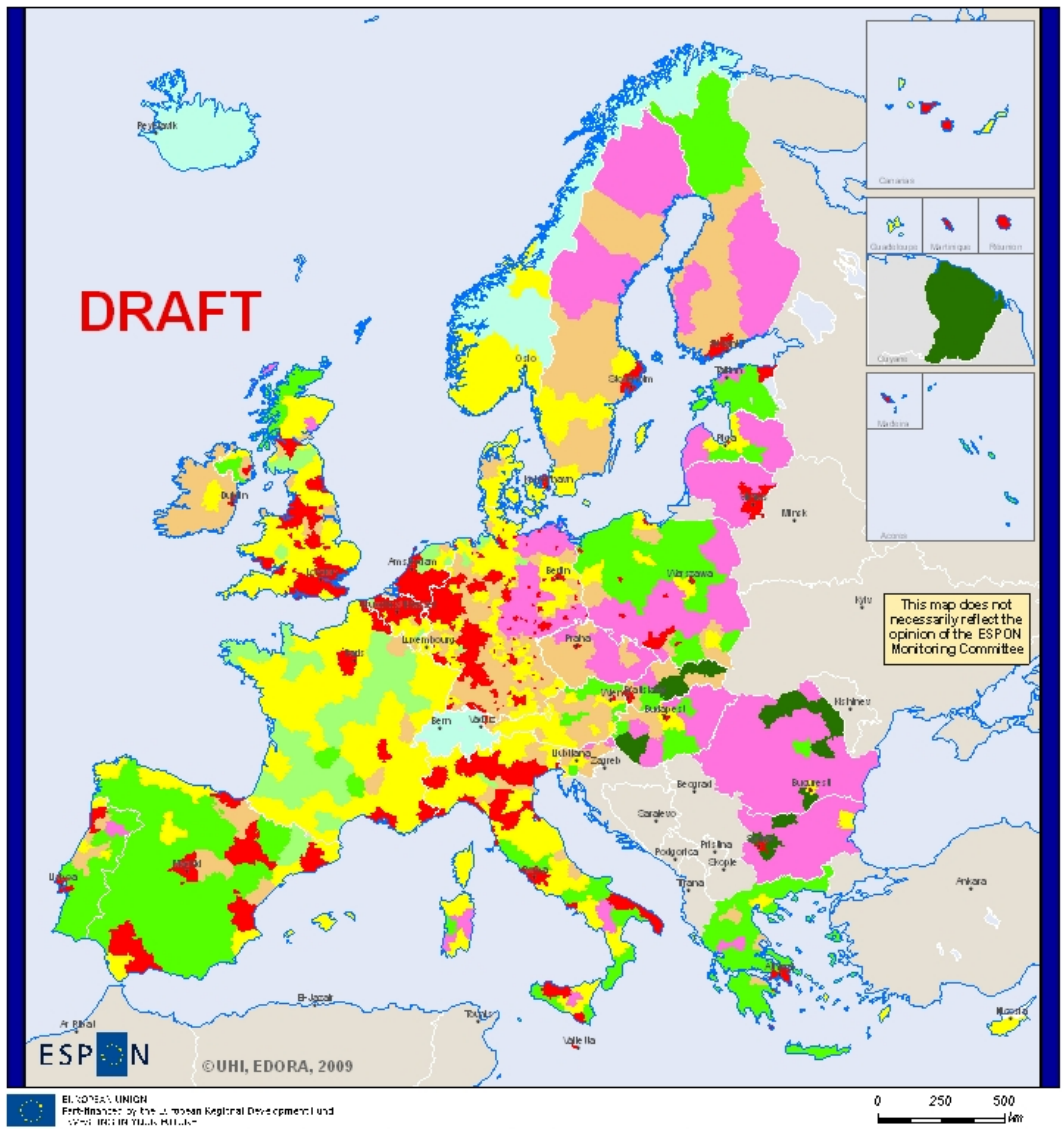


**Figure 7: The EDORA Draft Typology Decision Tree**

Figure 7 shows the decision tree developed for the draft EDORA typology, whilst Table A1.1 shows the precise criteria used to distinguish the types. Note that, in the interests of clarity the different types of rural area within the Dijkstra-Poelman typology are not shown separately here, though they are retained within the database.

It is also important to appreciate that following through the sequence of criteria shown in the decision tree is necessary in order to arrive at a mutually exclusive classification of ESPON regions which may be mapped (see below). However any of the individual criteria may also be applied separately, or in various

combinations. The results of applying the Primary Sector sub-types criteria and the Diversified Rural Economy sub-type criteria to all rural regions are mapped in Appendix 1. The advantage of this procedure is to allow “overlaps” to be explored. For example many of the “depleting” regions are also “semi-subsistence regions”, though they do not show up as such on the maps because the “depletion” criteria is higher up the decision tree than the semi-subsistence one.



**Draft Typology of Rural Development Environments (7 type version)**

- NUTS 3**  
**Types**
- Urban
  - Depleting Rural Regions.
  - Primary sector dominated rural economy (combined).
  - - With Semi-Subsistence Agriculture.
  - - With "Peri-Productivist Agriculture"
  - - With "Para-Productivist Agriculture"
  - "Fordist Mixed Rural Economy" with strong manufacturing sector.
  - "New Rural Economy" - mixed, strong in both private services and manufacturing.

**Figure 8: The Draft EDORA Typology of Rural Development Environments**

## 7.4 The Draft EDORA Typology

The map of the draft EDORA typology (Figure 8) shows that most of the Depleting regions lie in an arc from N Sweden and Finland, through the Baltic States, and on down through the eastern NMS12, and across to parts of Greece, Southern Italy and Corsica.

Within the group of the regions in which agriculture is a significant sector, the Semi-subsistence regions are to some extent masked by the Depleting category, but are also found in BG, RO, and SK (Table A1.3). Peri-productivist regions are mainly located in the Mediterranean countries, (ES, GR, IT), but also in PT, and in PL, HU and EE. Para-Productivist regions are located in FR, NL, BE and DE. There are also four such regions in the UK.

Germany strongly dominates the Declining Fordist category, with 93 of its 429 NUTS 3 regions. Also important in this category are AT, SE, FI and UK. Germany also has a large number of New Rural Economy regions, along with IT, FR and UK.

The cross-tabulation of EDORA types by Dijkstra-Poelman type is presented in Table 1. Perhaps surprisingly almost half the depleting regions are in the Intermediate Rural Accessible group, and there are more Depleting regions in the Predominantly Rural Accessible category, than in the PR Remote.

**Table 1: Distribution of EDORA Typology types by Dijkstra-Poelman U-R Type**

| Poelman Type | Urban      | Depleting  | Semi-Subsistence | Peri-Productivist | Para-Productivist | "Fordist"  | NRE        | Total       |
|--------------|------------|------------|------------------|-------------------|-------------------|------------|------------|-------------|
| PU           | 422        | 0          | 0                | 0                 | 0                 | 0          | 0          | 422         |
| IRA          | 0          | 89         | 2                | 32                | 15                | 106        | 203        | 447         |
| IRR          | 0          | 6          | 0                | 6                 | 0                 | 1          | 10         | 23          |
| PRA          | 0          | 57         | 7                | 47                | 21                | 75         | 57         | 264         |
| PRR          | 0          | 36         | 4                | 56                | 10                | 15         | 26         | 147         |
| <b>Total</b> | <b>422</b> | <b>188</b> | <b>13</b>        | <b>141</b>        | <b>46</b>         | <b>197</b> | <b>296</b> | <b>1303</b> |

The PRA category also boasts the majority of the semi-subsistence regions. The fact that more than two thirds of the Peri-productivist regions are in the PRR category accords well with expectations that Peri-productivism is in part a response to poor market access. This line of reasoning is reinforced by the fact that over half of the Para-Productivist regions are classified as accessible but predominantly rural. Both the Fordist and the New Rural Economy regions are most commonly found in accessible intermediate areas.

## 7.5 Scope for Further Development of the EDORA Typology.

The draft EDORA typology is arguably already potentially useful as a spatial framework within which to interpret rural change, and to develop guidelines for appropriate policy, because it reinforces the concept of rurality as a heterogeneous category, of intrinsic interest as an important environment for contemporary economic and social change. As such it is hoped that it may help to highlight the inadequacy of "default" definitions of rural areas as:

- o synonymous with agriculture,
- o "residual" after the delimitation of urban areas, or,
- o the "no-mans-land" between urban functional areas.

Nevertheless there is substantial scope for further elaboration and improvement to the typology. Two principal issues must be considered:

- (a) Foremost among the future tasks is that of strengthening and broadening the empirical base of the classification. A good example of this requirement is the fact that “Depletion” is currently defined only in demographic terms. Whilst demographic change is quite a good reflection of other economic and social trends it would be interesting to experiment with additional indicators such as GDP change, employment and unemployment and so on. Further elaboration of the typology may involve the construction of “complex indicators” for some or all of the GN, or alternatively may proceed through separate indicators with a more complex arrangement of criteria.
- (b) A second issue is whether the Connexity concept may be incorporated into the architecture of the typology in any way. There is no immediately obvious way to do this, but the issue will be raised with the EDORA expert group at a meeting during May.



## 8 Processes of Change in Exemplar Regions

### 8.1 Introduction

The main purpose of the holistic analyses of exemplar regions is to deepen our understanding of the processes of rural change in different contexts, so that we can enrich our narratives of differential change. The reports therefore tell the 'story' of how each exemplar region has changed over the recent past, and how this relates (or not) to each of three 'grand narratives' of rural change derived from the literature (agri-centric, urban/rural, globalisation/capital penetration – elaborated in Section 5 of this Interim Report), or to alternative overarching accounts of rural change.

Six EDORA partners were tasked with writing two case studies each (Newcastle University, University of Valencia, Nordregio, University of Ljubljana, Dortmund University of Technology, and the Polish Academy of Sciences). A typology of regional types was developed by the University of Valencia partner, and Newcastle University was responsible for providing the synthesis in this section. This is based on ten full exemplar regions reports, and two summary reports.

### 8.2 Selection of Exemplar Regions

Each case study region was chosen as an example of a specific rural type within the extended OECD typology (Dijkstra and Poelman 2008) and a specific development trajectory identified within the EDORA project.

| Country  | Urban-Rural Category           | EDORA sub-category                             | Exemplar Region      |
|----------|--------------------------------|--|----------------------|
| UK       | Intermediate Rural Accessible  | New Rural Economy                              | North Yorkshire      |
| UK       | Predominantly Rural Remote     | New Rural Economy                              | Skye and Lochalsh    |
| Spain    | Predominantly Rural Remote     | Depleting                                      | Teruel               |
| Spain    | Intermediate Rural Accessible  | Agricultural                                   | La Rioja             |
| Germany  | Intermediate Rural Accessible  | Fordist Declining                              | Mansfeld-Suedharz    |
| Germany  | Predominantly Rural Accessible | New Rural Economy                              | Neumarkt             |
| Slovenia | Intermediate Rural Accessible  | Development of capital city and its hinterland | Osrednjeslovenska    |
| Slovenia | Intermediate Rural Accessible  | Fordist Declining                              | Zasavje              |
| Poland   | Predominantly Rural Accessible | Agricultural                                   | Ostrolecko-Siedlecki |
| Poland   | Predominantly Rural Accessible | Depleting                                      | Chelmsko-Zamojski    |
| Sweden   | Predominantly Rural Accessible | New Rural Economy                              | Jonkoping            |
| Finland  | Predominantly Rural Remote     | New Rural Economy                              | South Savo           |

### 8.3 Overview of the Exemplar Regions

The ten Exemplar Regions are briefly profiled in the following sections, broadly grouped according to degree of rurality.

#### 8.3.1 Intermediate Rural Accessible Regions

*Osrednjeslovenska* in Slovenia, classified as Intermediate Rural, includes the capital city, Ljubljana, within its region. It is the economically most developed region in Slovenia, and scores above EU average on many socio-economic indicators (in contrast to Slovenia as a whole). *Osrednjeslovenska* acts as a magnet within Slovenia, attracting capital, employees, students and tourists. 75% of its GVA is from services; industry accounts for almost all the rest, with agriculture accounting for less than 1% of

employment. Small businesses abound, mainly in Ljubljana. This case study reads as a success story, sometimes perhaps at the expense of other Slovenian regions, but there are structural imbalances within their developments: although the region is highly successful at producing graduates, many of the job vacancies are for lower-skilled staff and there is graduate unemployment.

*Zasavje* in Slovenia is also classified as Intermediate Rural and as Accessible, but the narrative is very different from *Osrednjeslovenska*'s. Here the historical prosperity was dependent on mining, quarrying, and manufacturing, so that the 1990s crisis of the closure of the mines now produces a narrative of post-industrial decline. The region is currently one of the most deprived in Slovenia with numerous social and economic problems including population decline (mainly through out-migration), unemployment and poor health. Strategic programmes to support restructuring in *Zasavje* have resulted in a significant growth (from a low base) in entrepreneurial activity, and there are indications that the population decline is slowing. Perhaps *Zasavje*'s description as 'Fordist Declining' might soon be amended to 'Post-Fordist Restructuring'?

*La Rioja* in Spain is classified as Intermediate Rural and Accessible. The authors of this report stress that the region is split into an accessible northern lowland densely populated area and a southern mountainous area of low and depleting population, but they focus on the accessible part of the region for the case study. Here agriculture plays an important role, in particular viticulture and some horticulture. Wine production (from the grape crop to the bottle) has been important in the region since the mid-1800s. Twenty years ago the *Rioja* label was mainly for domestic consumption but subsequent modernisation processes, accession to the EU and global capital penetration have contributed to the development of a high quality product for an international market. The accessible part of the region has also experienced substantial counterurbanisation and significant immigration (mainly from Morocco and Romania).

*North Yorkshire* in the UK, classified as Intermediate Rural and Accessible incorporates two towns of more than 50,000 population, but more important for accessibility it is close and well-connected to a number of significant cities. This accessibility, however, is not uniform, and the more upland areas and coastal parts of the region are poorly connected and suffer from poor services and limited economic opportunities. The two upland areas are designated for their environmental and landscape quality, and traditional farming practices contribute to the conservation of these areas and the attraction of visitors and tourists. Aspects of counterurbanisation are important for the accessible parts of the region: particularly out-commuting, and in-migration from the cities. In the accessible areas agricultural employment is not significant, but in the uplands it can be very important. Tourism is an important employer across the region; the public sector and services also employ many staff.

*Mansfeld-Suedharz* in Germany, an Intermediate Rural region, is classified as 'accessible' because of the proximity of major cities outside its boundaries. The economy of the region was highly dependent on 'Fordist' mining, but since the end of the communist era most of this industry has collapsed. The region currently has unemployment rates above 20% despite a 20% population loss 1989 to 2005 and its redevelopment is a major challenge. The current strategy is to develop its tourism potential based on walking in the Harz mountains and its association with Luther, and to improve its linkages with the nearby cities of Halle, Erfurt and Gottingen.

### **8.3.2 Predominantly Rural Accessible**

*Jonkoping County* in Sweden, classified as Predominantly Rural, is situated within a triangle formed by three major cities. It is this proximity to major cities that means that the region is classified as 'accessible', although for those living in the centre of the region this is not the case, and the comparatively deprived nature of the lives of these people is emphasised. Counterurbanisation in the form of housing for city workers, and commuting to the city are being encouraged through functional regions. The economy is now mixed, with many small, entrepreneurial businesses; the primary sector industries only employ 4% of the region's population. The open countryside, though, is also valued as a 'public good': for access, recreation and conservation value.

*Chelmsko-Zamojski* in Poland, classified as Predominantly Rural, is situated on the eastern border of the country, and the EU, making it a peripheral region. It includes two major urban centres – Chelm and Zamosc - providing the 'close to a city' categorisation, but in fact these centres exert only a limited influence over the economic development of the region. Instead, the paper stresses the polycentric nature of the region with numerous small towns providing service, market and administration functions, and the continuing dominance of semi-subsistence agriculture (55% of the region's population is employed (or under-employed) in agriculture). The region is deprived, and is depopulating, through out-migration, particularly of the 20-40 age groups, but also through natural decline exacerbated by the relatively low number of women. Strategic programmes and foreign investment are beginning to have an impact: there is some development of larger, more commercial farms, and the attractiveness of the landscape has been identified as the basis for tourism development, although this is not proving straightforward.

*Neumarkt* in Germany, classified as Predominantly Rural, is located within a triangle of three major cities located outwith the region's borders, and most of the inhabitants of the region can reach one of the cities within 45 minutes. The north of the region is more densely populated and is based on the construction materials industry; the south is more sparsely populated and the productive value of the land is of lesser importance than the 'charming rural character' that it has helped to create. Marrying this with easy access to adjacent cities has produced three clear development trends: counterurbanisation, commuting and local tourism. People from the cities are moving to Neumarkt; with the reduction in traditional rural employment, people from Neumarkt are commuting into the cities for work (rather than outmigrating); and the region is the destination for day and short visits from city dwellers. Those traditionally involved in land-based sectors are increasingly important as stewards of the rural landscape.

*Ostrolecko-Siedlecki* in Poland, classified as Predominantly Rural, includes two urban settlements (Ostroleka and Siedlce), although Warsaw is easier to access for many people. The areas around Ostroleka and Siedlce have experienced some recent increase in population, but the rest of the region has continued to see a decline, due initially mainly to the out-migration of young people for education and work in Warsaw, but later also by natural decline in the birth rate given the lack of reproductive young people. Agriculture still employs 40 – 50% of the working population. The southern part of the region has good quality agricultural land where a range of arable crops are grown; the North has poorer land which is used for grazing of cattle and dairy farming. Recent changes in the structure of dairy farming across Poland with the privatisation of the former dairy co-operatives have led the region to become one of the most intensive dairying regions, which has brought significant economic benefits. At the same time, cultural heritage and high quality landscapes in the region have encouraged the growth of rural and agro-tourism.

### **8.3.3 Predominantly Rural Remote**

*Teruel*, in Spain, classified as Predominantly Rural, is made remote from a significant city by its topography – mountain ranges and poor roads helped to make this, effectively, a land-locked island. The population of Teruel has been declining since 1900, but in the 21<sup>st</sup> century this has slowed due to less out-migration and immigration of young people from Latin America, Africa and Romania, in particular, although it is not yet clear whether these people are permanent or transitory immigrants. In the regional capital, the administration and service sectors are the most important employers; elsewhere employment is predominantly in primary industries (mainly agriculture, and some mining). A significant recent development for the region has been the building of a new road which links it to, still distant, cities. Recent tourism development has been important, linking the demands for outdoor recreation (particularly ski-ing) of Spanish city dwellers who can now access the region, with the abandoned low quality agricultural land and the 'endogenous development' activities of local people. It may be that Teruel's 'depleting' EDORA classification now needs a more positive descriptor.

*Skye and Lochalsh* in the UK, classified as Predominantly Rural, is remote from any significant city, and includes a number of islands; the main island, Skye, is now connected to the mainland by a bridge. Since the 19<sup>th</sup> Century, Skye and Lochalsh suffered massive population decline, but has managed to reverse this trend since the 1960s, although numbers are still much lower than in 1851. The trend also masks the

outflow of young people from the region, and the in-migration of the 45-64 age group. The region is renowned for its cultural identity, associated mainly with the 'crofting' smallholdings, the collective ownership of land, and the use (and revitalisation) of the Gaelic language. This, together with the landscape beauty produces the 'magic of Skye' which has helped attract tourists and in-comers to the region, and new employment opportunities have been developed around cultural heritage tourism, IT, horticulture, and alternative energy. The region's renaissance is often lauded as a success story of rural development - attributed to positive state intervention, renewed confidence, and the cultural and natural heritage – even though much of the economic activity is low paid, seasonal, and reliant on multiple job-holding.

*South Savo* in Finland, classified as Predominantly Rural and Remote from any major city, is in the southeast of the country, about 230 km from the capital, Helsinki. 25% of the region's area is lakes; of the land area, 85% is covered by forest. The region has a long history of population decline, mainly young people, and particularly women, out-migrating for education and work which leaves an ageing population with few services in the sparsely populated areas. The region is identified with high environmental and aesthetic quality, and is using this asset as a means of addressing their problems of peripherality (e.g., population decline, higher reliance on the primary sector, lower economic development, lower income levels and higher unemployment). The region's natural assets attract tourists and second home owners who provide some critical mass for services in the region; and its branding as an 'eco-province' has seen the development of organic agriculture and food. It is also concerned to protect its environmental assets as part of a sustainable development approach.

#### **8.4 Cross-cutting themes**

The exemplar regions were chosen to explore difference between regions, and were successful in doing so: each tells a distinct story of past and present developments that can only be captured in the full texts. However some themes within the narratives were replicated between the regions, and the more significant of these are described below.

The *Ageing Population* of rural areas was a recurrent theme. This was generally closely associated with the out-migration of young people for education and work. Some reports explained how the low numbers of people of reproductive age left behind then affected the birth rate. In regions where counterurbanisation or immigration occurred, this sometimes exacerbated rather than ameliorated the ageing nature of the population – in North Yorkshire, for example, retirement to the countryside was popular.

*Population decline and Deprivation* were to be expected from the reports under the EDORA subcategories Depleting and Fordist Declining, but these themes also occurred in many other reports. Some stressed the contrasts within their regions, in particular that although classified as 'accessible' some parts of the region were not well connected, had depleting populations, poor services, and high levels of deprivation. Much of the New Rural Economy employment in the Skye and Lochalsh case study was described as low paid, seasonal and dependent on multiple job-holding; the North Yorkshire case study found that local people were unable to afford housing. Even the case study of Osrednjeslovenska, a region which includes a fast-growing capital city and scores highly on many EU indicators, pointed to high levels of graduate unemployment.

The development of *Tourism* was a popular means of diversifying from traditional land-based activities, whether in accessible or remote areas. Much of this was designed for domestic, and often relatively local, day or weekend visits (Neumarkt, Teruel, for example). The proximity of cities, and of city dwellers needing to escape to the open countryside seemed an important factor in this development, and in Teruel the tourism development was associated with the development of a major road linking to the nearest cities. In some cases the attraction was not simply the high environment and landscape quality, but the cultural heritage that existed, or could be developed. For some visitors the countryside was also a place for activity.

The *Public Good* nature of much of the landscape that tourists appreciated, but did not directly pay for, was evident in some reports. This was stressed in the report on Jonkoping; the importance of those traditionally involved in farming as stewards of this resource was particularly apparent in the North Yorkshire and Neumarkt reports.

The role of *'Hub' Settlements* within the region was raised in a number of papers. In the case of Osrednjeslovenska the development of Ljubljana was central to the development of the rest of the region. However, in other cases it was the lack of influence of the major settlements on the development of the hinterland that was noted. The lack of settlement hierarchy in Teruel was seen as a barrier to reversing the population depletion – there were no settlements other than the regional capital that could be developed as local markets and service centres.

Some papers referred to the *lack of consensus* about the benefits of the changes that were taking place. In Skye and Lochalsh local people saw the incomers as a source of both hope and suspicion. Although much of Neumarkt was embracing the tourism industry, many people in the remoter areas were resistant to this change. In North Yorkshire farmers' right to do what they chose with their land had long been contested, and increasingly environmentalists and people wanting access were influential in terms of land use.

The EDORA *Grand Narratives* were explicitly addressed in many of the papers. All three had some applicability in almost all cases. The two exemplar regions chosen for their 'agricultural' focus (la Rioja and Ostrolecko-Siedlecki) had robust agri-centric narratives, but also had strong globalisation/capitalist penetration storylines. Entry into the EU, international markets and global capital had been influential in making the Rioja label a high quality wine. The collapse of communism, the privatisation and restructuring of the dairy industry in Poland, and the influx of global capital had made Ostrolecko-Siedlecki one of the most intensive dairying regions. By contrast, the globalisation/capitalist penetration grand narrative was used by a number of papers to stress the importance of local resources and endogenous approaches. The key role of the state was also emphasised in Skye and Lochalsh's renaissance.

Three accessible regions (Jonkoping, North Yorkshire and Neumarkt) found their relations with cities outside their boundaries highly influential for the accessible parts of their regions, reflecting the urban/rural narrative. Counterurbanisation, urban tourists looking for rural and environmental charm, and the cities as places of work for rural residents were common themes in all three papers. There was a need, though, for management to maintain the quality landscapes and environments, which links back to the agri-centric narrative with farmers acting as stewards of the countryside. Osrednjeslovenska provided an alternative urban-rural narrative with the development of the city being part of the development of the rural region.

## **8.5 Implications for the EDORA Framework**

### **8.5.1 The Grand Narratives**

The EDORA Grand Narratives are narratives of change, with a strong bias towards trajectories that lead away from depletion and decline. Four of the exemplar regions were chosen for their negative attributes (Teruel, Mansfeld-Suedharz, Zasavje, Chelmsko-Zamojski) although both Teruel and Zasavje showed signs of moving out of the 'depleting' and 'declining' categories. Mansfeld-Suedharz and Chelmsko-Zamojski's link to the Grand Narratives is only in terms of their plans for the future.

It was clear that almost all regions related somewhat to all three Grand Narratives. No region's development trajectory was tied to a single Grand Narrative. Some difficulties with the definitions were made explicit in some papers; others became apparent when analysing the range of trajectories in the twelve reports.

The *Agri-centric Narrative*, both in its title and its description, is tied to farming. In the context of Europe this would be appear an over-narrow definition of long-standing rural economic activity. Forestry and fisheries are also still important in some rural parts of the EU, and the post-productivist trajectory would appear to resonate with forestry and fisheries as well as with agriculture. Once this category is opened up in this way, though, we need to consider why this is not a land-based industries narrative, that encompasses all the economic activities that have significantly shaped the rural landscape of today, including mining and quarrying. Have these activities no future in rural Europe, and if so, is this a normative or practical decision? Could there be an appropriate post-productivist model for mining and quarrying? Or is the challenge of post-industrial mining areas qualitatively distinct from that of areas historically reliant on agriculture, forestry and fishing? Is the landscape demanded under the 'consumption countryside' model associated only with a farmed landscape? Turning back to the text of the *Agri-centric Narrative*, one model is based on 're-embedded local food supply chains'. In the la Rioja region the local link between the crop production and the final product has never been lost, and value has been added to the previously dominant activity.

The *Urban-Rural Narrative* is strongly associated with people's ability to travel and move between urban and rural areas and this was borne out in a number of the case study regions. However there was a different narrative of urban/rural relationships running through some reports. One aspect of this was the role of larger settlements in the region in the development of their hinterland. An extreme case of this was Osrednjeslovenska which was developing a capital city within its rural region, but a number of other reports described the 'halo' effect of their more important towns on their hinterlands. Some cases called into question the ESDP's model of urban-rural relationships claiming that there was little influence of the major settlements in their region on the development of the hinterland . A second and related aspect of the urban/rural relationship was the extent to which decisions about rural areas were made by non-rural decision-makers.

The *Globalisation/Capitalist Penetration Narrative* was well-rehearsed in a number of the exemplar regions reports (this was in contrast to the theme papers reported on in Section 5 of this IR, and in WP10). Questions arose over the extent to which this narrative should be used to refer to any power external to a rural region (for example, the power of the EU or the power of the nation state, as against the global forces of multinational capital) and whether *public* funding, a significant factor in the development trajectory in some regions, should be conceptualised as capitalist penetration. Such points emphasise the need for the narrative and individual region case studies to distinguish clearly between market, state and civil society in accounts of the interplay of endogenous and exogenous forces, and between globalisation and resistance. Nevertheless, the exemplar regions reports did demonstrate the importance in rural change of both global and local capital, and the ways in which these exploit territories and are themselves mediated and negotiated by local actors and institutions.

*Connexity* is a broader concept introduced in WP10 that could capture some interconnections that might not easily be covered by the urban-rural or the globalisation/capitalist penetration narratives. The exemplar region reports provided many examples of such connections: the relationship between the rural and the extra-rural, between different tiers of the state, and between settlement hierarchies.

### **8.5.2 EDORA Subcategories**

These were necessarily broad, but Agricultural, Fordist Declining, Depleting, and Development of a Capital City and its Hinterland were good at conveying, and in some cases defining, the extent of their category. New Rural Economy was something of a catch-all for a region on a positive development trajectory where agriculture was not significant or where development was not around the growth of a capital city. There were a number of case studies that could have been written up under an alternative category: for example, both Fordist Declining regions were also Depleting regions; Chelmsko-Zamojski (Depleting region) was also an Agricultural region. The New Rural Economy category regions may have been reporting low economic dependency on agriculture, but in a number of cases their tourism development was predicated on a high quality landscape and needed farming practices to continue to maintain the landscape.

### 8.5.3 'Rural Regions' and the EU Typology

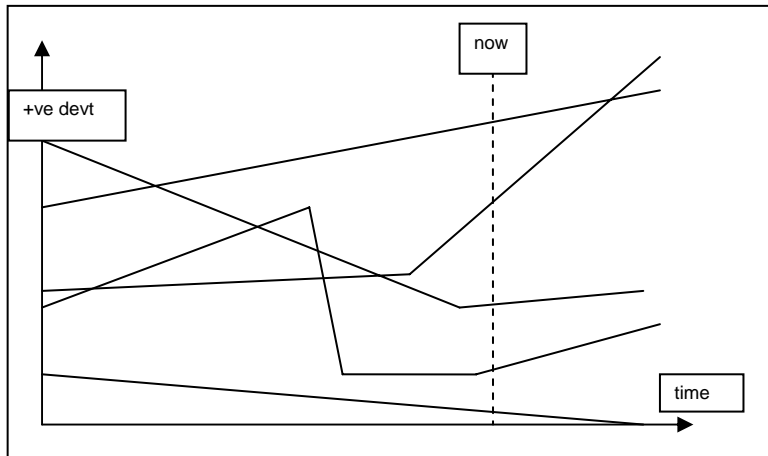
The regions chosen adhered to the extended OECD rural-urban categories of regions at NUTS3 level. The case studies raised a number of issues about the use of the NUTS3 level designation to identify regions for comparison. The first is that density of population in a region is highly influenced by the way this is distributed. Some rural regions included sizeable settlements (one had a capital city within its boundaries) and as a consequence intermediate rural regions often also had relatively sparse areas. By contrast Teruel reported that the lack of significant settlements was a constraint on its development. A second issue is whether the NUTS3 level provides an appropriate spatial scale for the analysis of rural areas. A number of case studies reported stark contrasts within their NUTS3 region, and to an extent provided analyses of two sub-regions. The principal divide was between accessible (or 'urban') areas and remote areas where population decline and deprivation were often prevalent. A further issue is whether the NUTS3 level represents a cohesive region (see Ostrolecko-Siedlecki report), and one where decision-making takes place (see North Yorkshire for example) and/or in an efficient manner – the Skye and Lochalsh case study stressed the fragmented nature of decision-making. Finally, it is essential to note the considerable diversity in trajectory of rural areas within each of the rural-urban categories: even in remote predominantly rural areas some were declining and losing population while others were prospering and growing.

### 8.5.4 Changing from ....

Analysing the present development trajectories in different regions draws attention to the differences in starting positions:

- (a) The first group of regions seem to be on a slow and steady upward trajectory that has been in existence for a length of time. Of these some have simply been improving from a long-standing basis – in la Rioja, for instance, the production of wine has been a significant activity for 150 years, and its current development is based on making improvements to this.
- (b) Others registered problems such as depopulation or agricultural decline 50 or more years ago and their present development trajectory is part of a long term effort to turn around their economies.
- (c) Another grouping have been subject to significant 'shocks' in their recent past: the collapse of mining, or of communism, for example. Not all shocks have been negative – some have brought significant and positive development trajectories to some regions, which are changing quickly. Ostrolecko-Siedlecki and Osrednjeslovenska would appear to be in this category.
- (d) For some the shocks have been deep crises that the regions are struggling to respond to with their strategies for development; these might be moving them to post-crisis status, but the base for their development trajectories are very low. The two depleting regions both register long-term problems that have compounded until recently when strategies have been introduced to support their development.

Figure 9 pictorially captures something of the range of development trajectories and baselines, and where on their trajectories regions might presently be. Without wishing to suggest a linear development model, it will be helpful to reflect on the significance of 'path dependency'.



**Figure 9: Notional development trajectories in the Exemplar Regions**

## 8.6 Final Comments

The Exemplar Regions reports had the purpose of investigating different contexts for rural change, which they have achieved. They have contributed to the development of the grand narratives, either by enriching and extending them, by adding supplementary narratives, or by raising difficult questions about their provenance. They have also suggested the need to pay attention to the different historical trajectories and baselines for development in order to understand their present positions.

Finally, whether or not any of these regions can be thought 'successful' is left to the reader. All have some problems, and sometimes their attainments might have been at the expense of other regions. A few with very low baselines appear to be making some headway in turning their region around, which is an achievement in itself, but there is much still to do. In some regions the 'success' of some people is at the expense of others who do not appreciate the changes being imposed on them, and the precarious nature of some of the 'success' in New Rural Economy regions is called into question in the report on Skye and Lochalsh. The stress put on the quality of life by the people in this region also suggests that positive developments need to generate far more than simply economic improvement.



## **9 Macro Scale Patterns of Rural Differentiation**

### **9.1 The Objective, and coordination with other Activities.**

According to the EDORA proposal and Interim Report documents, the Country Profiles which should be delivered by Activity 2.23 consist of tabular summaries of average indicator values for each type of rural area (as defined by the EDORA typology) within each member state, accompanied by a brief explanatory text. The ultimate goal of this task is to have “pen-pictures” of the different kinds of rural areas at national and supra-national (groups of countries) level, initially based on widely available standard indicators, but enriched with the “local knowledge” of partners.

Compilation of the standard tables for the 32 countries is a task for activity lead partner. Responsibility for the commentaries on the individual countries is shared between the partners as shown in the Annex to the Inception Report (Table 1). The activity lead partner, after receiving national inputs, is responsible for integrating the individual profiles (together with “supra-national” analysis) into a chapter of the Interim, Draft Final and Final Reports

The rural categories that should guide the definition of regional groups (at NUTS 3 level) were originally envisaged as those defined by the EDORA Typology. However, as explained in Section 7, there was a degree of circularity in the scheduling of the typology elaboration, the various conceptual tasks which were intended to feed into it, and the empirical tasks which were intended to be structured by it (the choice of Exemplar Regions and the Country Profiles). This “conundrum” necessitated pragmatic solutions. In the case of the Country Profiles the approach agreed at the first full Consortium meeting in December was that the initial phase of Activity 2.23 would use tables structured by the Dijkstra-Poelman typology, and that the implications of the EDORA typology would later be incorporated with a simpler subset of socio-economic indicators.

### **9.2 Combining Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches**

One of the first preparatory tasks was to develop standard tables of socio-economic data for each of the 32 ESPON countries, structured according to the Dijkstra-Poelman typology. These will form the basic structure for the first section of each Country Report. A selection of standardised indicators, classified by subject area (corresponding to the themes of Activity 2.11 "Literature Review") were extracted from the project database (2.21) by the activity lead partner.

Progress with this first task was to some extent hampered by two considerations:

- The need to for the EDORA database to be sufficiently developed to allow the standard indicators to be extracted. The development of the database was in turn governed by the advisory inputs of the partners responsible for Activity 2.11 (thematic review of the conceptual background). The time required for this sequence of activity was underestimated in the project schedule.
- The second issue was the absence or extreme scarcity of relevant indicators for several of the themes in Activity 2.11. For these themes a more qualitative approach is necessary. The solution was to develop a set of standardised “research questions” (see Table 2) to elicit local knowledge of these themes in a guided and comparable format.

The standardised research questions have been carefully framed, in collaboration with the researchers responsible for the 2.11 thematic reports both to guide the provision of qualitative information, and to structure the interpretation of the standard indicators, in order to maximise comparability and to focus the commentaries in ways which are supportive to the EDORA approach.

**Table 2: Examples of standard questions by theme for Country Profile Reports**

| Theme                               | Standard questions   |
|-------------------------------------|--|
| <b>Demography</b>                   | Which are the main demographic processes in the country?<br>Are there significant variations in the above processes depending of the types of regions considered (ie. PU, IRA, IRR, PRA, PRR)? Please, describe briefly.<br>What do you see as the main demographic challenges or opportunities in rural areas in this MS? |
| <b>Employment</b>                   | Do the rural regions have different labour market characteristics to the urban regions? Or are rural regions fully integrated with the urban labour markets?<br>What are the key rural labour market sectors? What are the main growth areas, and what are the main areas of decline?                                      |
| <b>Rural business development</b>   | Which are the opportunity sectors for future rural business operation?<br>Are there specific policies/programs/initiatives that could be labelled as “best practices” in rural business promotion?   |
| <b>Rural-urban relationships</b>    | Are there established or incipient initiatives for cooperation between urban and rural areas?<br>What are the main demands/uses over rural areas from urban inhabitants? How these are met?  |
| <b>Cultural heritage</b>            | Is cultural heritage used? If so, in which senses (ie. tourism, other economic activities, identity reference, education, other non profit uses?<br>Which are the main demands upon cultural heritage?   |
| <b>Services of general interest</b> | Which are the main problems in relation to accessibility and provision to SGI for rural residents and visitors?<br>Which are the main forms of provision of services in rural areas? Are there innovative solutions to low accessibility areas?  |
| <b>Farm structural change</b>       | Which are the main DOC in relation to agriculture? How would you characterise the “style” of farming, and how is it changing, and why?<br>Are there any important upstream or downstream industries? Are they in the countryside or in the urban regions?  |
| <b>Institutional capacity</b>       | Dominant types of interactions among levels of government (formal/informal, hierarchical/cooperative, open/closed, top-down/bottom-up, etc.)<br>Which are the main problems in relation to government and governance?  |
| <b>Climate change</b>               | Which are the main perceived threats in relation to climate change for population, authorities, interest groups?<br>Are there any scientific evidence pointing to climate change? Please describe  |

### 9.3 Achievements so far

Thus far the following sub-tasks have been carried out in relation to Country Profiles:

- (i) Creation of a comprehensive database containing all thematic indicators for the 32 countries considered, based on the information contained in the project database (Activity 2.21).
- (ii) Complementation of data and indicators that are not available in the project database by using other reliable sources,
- (iii) Statistical exploitation of database to obtain averages for each (Dijkstra-Poelman) category of rural area (IRA, IRR, FOR, PRR), within each of the 32 countries and groups of countries (e.g. Mediterranean countries, Western Europe, new member countries, Scandinavian countries).
- (iv) Development of standard questions for different thematic areas to guide the comments of the national leaders.
- (v) Development of a national report with comments to serve as an example to follow.
- (vi) Delivery of country report outlines (including standard tables) with guidelines to partners.
- (vii) Responding to queries from partners.

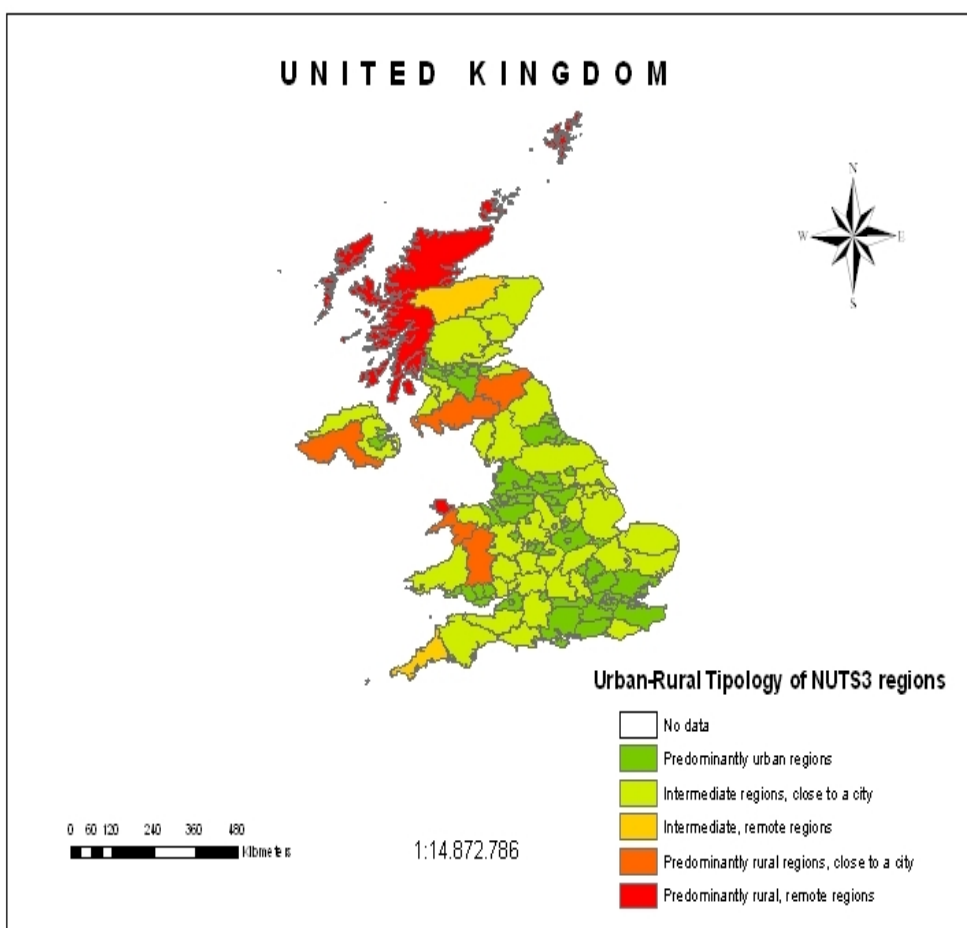
In the process of collecting and organising data and statistical indicators, information is arranged according to the themes that structure the conceptual framework of the project (demography, patterns and trends in employment, rural business development, rural - urban relationships, cultural heritage, access to services of general interest, institutional capacity, climate change and energy issues, and farm structural change). The databases used to supplement the information contained in the project database are Eurostat, (REGIO) the European Union Rural Development (RDEU): Report 2007, ESPON public database, and SERA Project.

The variables collected from different sources have been organised in spreadsheets and in folders by theme. From these data the following steps have been undertaken:

- o Incorporation of a “GEO” variable in all databases. Is formed by the nomenclature in text characters that correspond to the different NUT levels (eg AT, AT1, AT11, AT111).

- Use of the “GEO” variable to join all data tables into a single spreadsheet. This process has been carried out, first, to integrate information from all databases in a single database and, secondly, to allow for graphic representation on maps in a geographic information system, managed through the ARCGIS 9.2 program and base mapping GISCO.
- The base-variables for organising data tables have been thematic level, Nuts, Nuts 0 variable name and urban-rural category.
- Implementation of dynamic tables for greater results in less time and for obtaining a greater combination of variables.
- Creation of tables with averages of each variable, the information has been organised in dynamic tables.
- Production of national maps showing the urban-rural category of each NUTS3 from the union of the cartographic base GISCO (geographical division NUTS3 level) with the database program ArcGis 9.2. An example is provided below: (Figure 10).

So far, the lead partner has received most of the reports reviewed by responsible partners. These reports include findings and information that each author has deemed relevant to interpret the information contained in the tables and the standard questions. These will be reviewed, and comments/suggestions returned to the partners. At the same time summary tables of data using the EDORA database will be added.



**Figure 10: Dijkstra-Poelman Urban-Rural Typology UK**

Apart from the national reports, comparisons will be made between groups of countries to analyse the behaviour of the variables and indicators considered. In a first stage, the comparative analysis was carried out between 5 subsets of countries defined. Some of the first results are provided as example in Appendix 2. In a second stage, extension of the analysis to the categories of rural areas (IRA, IRR, and FOR PRR) cross-tabulated with groups of countries, is planned. At a later stage, once the information on

the territorial distribution of EDORA typology is available, the analysis will be replicated for these categories.

#### **9.4 “Roadmap” to the Final Country Profiles Report**

The sequence of tasks scheduled for the final report of the Country Profiles (Activity 2.23) is as follows:

- To obtain statistical data and indicators that are considered relevant for the categories of the EDORA Typology of Rural Areas (Activity 2.22).
- To carry out comparative calculations of the indicators between the types of rurality (IRA, IRR, FOR, PRR) for sets of countries (EU 15, EU 27, Medit., Label., Central and western Europe);
- To replicate, as far as possible, these calculations for the subcategories from the EDORA Typology of Rural Areas (Activity 2.22).
- To oversee the further development of the individual Country Profile documents through an iterative interaction with the responsible partners.
- To analyze and summarise comments made by those responsible for national reporting.
- To draw conclusions and write contributions to the draft final and final reports.

## 10 Developing Appropriate Indicators – Progress with the EDORA Database

To create information and evidence on territorial challenges and opportunities for success for the development of Europe's rural regions requires a cross thematic approach that is able to develop a better understanding of the development opportunities and challenges the diverse types of rural regions in Europe are facing. To achieve this goal the project aims at analyzing the drivers, patterns and trends of rural changes in the areas of demography, employment and human capital, structural changes, accessibility of services, climate change and environmental issues, rural business clusters, development opportunities relating to cultural heritage and urban rural linkages. Hence detailed regional data describing the main trends and patterns in the fields outlined above are one of the main linchpins within the project. Therefore the setting up of a database structured according to the mentioned themes – feeding into all the empirical tasks of the project – and which is in the end able to complement the overall ESPON 2013 database with detailed indicators about Europe's rural regions - is one pivotal task.

### 10.1 EDORA database

The EDORA database is not only supposed to feed data to the empirical tasks of the project but to contribute to the overall ESPON 2013 database. Therefore one prerequisite is to harmonize the database itself as well as the metadata about the data files and indicators with the overall concept and demands on quality of the ESPON 2013 database. With exception of the inception report describing the overall core database concepts of the ESPON 2013 database from 26<sup>th</sup> September 2008, and the ESPON "Handbook on Data Collection" no further information, rules or regulations about the structure, conceptual model or specific metadata concepts to be used have been released by the ESPON 2013 database team, at the time of the first data collection round (January to mid February 2009). An according request to the ESPON 2013 database team about specific methodic guidelines in January 2009 elicited the response that the overall decision on the ESPON 2013 data base is still pending.

Therefore and because of experiences from other projects it was decided to build the "core" EDORA "database" based on MS-Excel sheets. The advantage of this approach is, that on the one hand all project partners are able to use the data provided without needing to have specific SQL and database know-how. On the other hand MS-Excel sheets can easily be imported in any kind of format or database later on. At present for each of the themes outlined above an extra Excel sheet has been created. As to the metadata it was decided to stick for the most part to the method developed for the ESPON 2006 database. This means that so far following metadata are recorded for every indicator included in the project database:

|                       |                      |                       |
|-----------------------|----------------------|-----------------------|
| Variable code         | Variable name        | Regional reference    |
| Time reference        | Source of data       | Origin of data        |
| ESPO project          | Author               | Frequency of data     |
| Variable description  | Source of use        | Theoretical postulate |
| Calculation algorithm | Policy relevance     | Data navigator        |
| NUTS version original | NUTS version project | Type of data          |
| Copyright             | Acquisition date     | Version owner         |
| Original table name   | Restrictions of use  |                       |

The metadata for all indicators is stored in one metadata table within a MS-Access database and can be accessed via a search form. Once the ESPON 2013 database metadata concept has been operationalized as described in the interim report of the ESPON 2013 database project from February 27<sup>th</sup> the metadata information will be adjusted accordingly. So it should be able to take over the metadata information as well as data sets identified as useful for the overall ESPON 2013 database easily, provided, as it is assumed, that the ESPON 2013 database project will apart from the web-form and Excel sheets - that seem more suitable for the transmission of single datasets with only very few indicators than

to transfer metadata information for larger data sets with many indicators - also offer a practical solution to take over metadata already stored in a database directly.

The screenshot shows a web-based form titled 'METADATA\_EDORA\_FORM'. The form contains the following fields and values:

|                                |   |  |
|--------------------------------|---|--|
| Find in Database               | Economically active population with ISCED0_2 male most recent year available per region in 1000 |  |
| Variable code                  | Economically active population with ISCED0_2 male most recent year available per region in 1000 |  |
| Variable name                  | Economically active population with ISCED0_2 male most recent year available per region in 1000 |  |
| Time reference                 |   | year of variable   |
| Data version owner             | 06.11.2008  | date of last update of source datafile                     |
| Date of data acquisition       | 29.01.2009  | date of data download, see file date                       |
| Source of data                 | Eurostat Regio Database   | i.e. Eurostat, Regio Database                              |
| Source table name              | reg_lfp2acedu   | i.e. reg_e3empl95  |
| Origin of data                 | Member State Data   | i.e. farm structure survey, 2000                           |
| Frequency of data              | annual  | update interval  |
| Variable description           | educationally active population   | describe for what the variable stands for                  |
| Nuts Version of original data  | 2006  | normally 2006  |
| Nuts Version of project data   | 2006  | normally 2006  |
| Type of Data                   | indicator   | normally indicator   |
| Copyright statement            | © European Communities, 1995-2008   | official copyright statement; standard: Eurostat statement |
| conditions/restrictions of use |   |  |
| Reference of input             | Urban rural relationships   | Excel Table the inserted data refers to                    |

Figure 11: The EDORA Database Metadata Form

## 10.2 Preliminary overview on Indicators and data availability

The data acquisition will be performed in an iterative way throughout the duration of the project according to the data needs identified in the empirical tasks. Therefore following overview of data availability that is based upon a summarization of indicators identified as potentially useful by the thematic experts for describing the development opportunities and changes within the above specified fields should be considered as preliminary. Table A2.1 (in Appendix 2) gives an overview of the indicators/groups of indicators that could be acquired so far.

The indicator collection for themes A (Demography), E (Cultural Heritage) and C (Climate Change) are still in progress.

Apart from the listed indicators, the acquisition of following indicators that also have been identified as potentially useful by the thematic experts is either pending or because of lack of access to data sources or even lack of data sources not feasible:

### B) Employment

- Nr. of discouraged workers by gender and age per inhabitants (only country level data)
- Nr. of technological parks, incubators and commercial zones per inhabitants (lack of data sources)
- Nr. of (social) enterprises and firms per nr. of inhabitants (lack of data sources)

### C) Urban Rural Relationships

- % business club/organization memberships (lack of data sources)

- Nr. of designated heritage sites (pending)
  - Nr. of cross sector partnerships (lack of data sources)
  - Voter turnout/attendance rates at public meetings (lack of data sources)
  - Nr. of clubs/societies bridging rural and urban areas (lack of data sources)
  - Levels of entrepreneurship (lack of data sources)
- D) Rural Business Development
- Hours worked (Cambridge Econometrics, no access to data source)
  - GVA by sector of operation (Cambridge Econometrics, no access to data source)
  - Investment by sector of operation (Cambridge Econometrics, no access to data source)
  - Percentage of manufacturing firms in innovation cooperation (lack of data sources)
  - Membership in organizations (European Values Survey, only available at country level)
  - Trust in other persons (European Values Survey, only available at country level)
  - Employment growth (Observatory for SMEs Survey, pending)
  - Profitability, % increase (Observatory for SMEs Survey, pending)
  - Assets, % increase (Observatory for SMEs Survey, pending)
- F) Services of General Interest
- Nr. Of persons served by post office (Postal Service Survey 2005 and 2007, pending)
  - % of households with a fixed telephone line (INRA 2004, pending)
  - % of households with at least one mobile phone (INRA 2004, pending)
- G) Institutional Capacity
- Information of national elections (European Election Database, pending)

### 10.3 Decision on year of reference and Missing value treatment

Because it was not possible to get specific information on data gathering rules for the ESPON 2013 database it was decided to take the most recent year data is available for each indicator as year of reference. The spatial reference is NUTS 2006. As already expressed in the “Wye Group Handbook on rural Households’ Livelihood and Well-Being” much of the EU – wide available data does not go beyond NUTS 2. This is a recurring problem for many of the required variables, with data for several only provided at country level rather than district level or even regional level. Even when data is collected at NUTS 2 or NUTS 3 level there are problems with lack of harmonization. Data may exist, for example, for some countries in the year 1994 and 1996, and yet, for others it is only available for 1995 and 1997, thus making country comparisons for the same year impossible. To add further confusion to the issue, in the years that NUTS 3 or NUTS 2 data exists there are often internal country data gaps. Although data may be provided at either NUTS 2/3 for a certain year, it might not be a “full set”, with possibly one fifth of the data missing<sup>6</sup>.

Therefore following two ways have been utilized to mitigate the “data gaps problem”:

1. As far as possible for every indicator the most recent year data is available for one region has - in addition to the most recent year data – also been defined in order to get data sets with as few data missing as possible. (The region specific year of reference is indicated).
2. Missing data at NUTS 3 level have been filled by existing data of the corresponding superordinate NUTS 2 region. (Accordingly treated datasets are marked).

It was consciously decided for this approach and against the more sophisticated ESTI framework for estimating missing values recommended in the “ESPON Handbook on Data Collection” for following reasons:

- Because of the amount of indicators indicated as needed by the thematic experts (1313 altogether) it is quite impossible to perform the missing value computation procedures on all

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<sup>6</sup> See United Nations (2007): The Wye Group Handbook. Rural Households’ Livelihood and Well-Being. Statistics on Rural Development and Agriculture Household Income. P. 112

indicators in the time allocated and available for indicator acquisition and database maintenance.

- Previous experiences with EU-wide data sets have shown, that either data at a specific NUTS level are totally missing for regions belonging together so that spatial estimation procedures can not be applied or that quite often data gaps in time series are huge so that values computed based on available values would not make much sense (e.g. computation of 2007 value out of 2000 value and 2006 value as the only years with data available).
- To operationally perform the recommended spatial missing value computations would require the availability of specific tools that allow to perform the computation automatically. So far such tools are not available/provided.

#### 10.4 Spatial coverage and Member State data collection

As outlined in the inception report it is envisaged to cover the 27 EU Member states, plus Norway, Iceland, Liechtenstein and Switzerland as well as Turkey and parts of the Western Balkans. The current preliminary version of the database covers the 27 EU Member States as well as Norway, Iceland, Liechtenstein, Switzerland, Macedonia, Croatia, and Turkey. Whereas especially for the last three states the data coverage as well as data availability is extremely fragmentary.

As shown in an analysis about the availability and quality of data on Western Balkans and Turkey amongst others within the scope of the ESPON 2013 FOCI report (2008) and ReRisk study (2008) the data situation for these countries can be summarized as follows:

- **Albania:** No NUTS classification exists but Albania's prefectures could be assimilated to NUTS 3. Data availability could not be screened yet.
- **Bosnia and Herzegovina:** No NUTS classification exists. Bosnia's and Herzegovina's administrative units can not be associated with corresponding NUTS levels because the magnitudes of the population of the units belonging to each administrative level are dissimilar. Basic statistical data is publicly available, but data is provided in the form of pdf-documents or html pages and can therefore not easily be used for further computation or analysis.
- **Serbia:** No NUTS classification exists but Serbia's administrative levels could according to the FOCI study assimilated to NUTS levels. National demographic and economic data is publicly available from the Serbian Statistical Yearbook 2007, which contains most necessary demographic and economic data, but data is provided in the form of pdf-documents or html pages and can therefore not easily be used for further computation or analysis.
- **Croatia:** Croatia has already adopted the EU NUTS classification. Experiences in former projects revealed that although EUROSTAT included Croatia's NUTS regions as entity in its New Cronos Regio Database data are missing nearly for all socio-economic themes. The data situation is comparable to Serbia with exception of agricultural data that is readily available online.
- **Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia (FYROM):** FYROM has already adopted the EU classification of spatial units in NUTS. Experiences in former projects revealed that although EUROSTAT included Croatia's NUTS regions as entity in its New Cronos Regio Database data are missing nearly for all socio-economic themes. All in all overall data accessibility for FYROM is more limited than in the rest of the Western Balkan countries, since the Statistical Yearbook cannot be consulted online and all other publications also have to be purchased (ReRisk, 2008).
- **Montenegro:** No NUTS classification exists but according to the FOCI report the total of the country could be assimilated to NUTS1, NUTS2 and NUTS3. Basic socio-economic data are publicly available online but data is only provided as pdf and/or html and can therefore not easily be used for further computation or analysis.
- **Kosovo:** No NUTS classification exists. As stated in the FOCI assessment the districts could in principle be assimilated to NUTS 3 units but not without difficulties. Basic socio-economic data are publicly available online but data is only provided as pdf and/or in html page embedded graphic and can therefore not easily be used for further computation or analysis.



- **Turkey:** Although NUTS regions are well established in Turkey, and statistical data is already included in EUROSTAT's New Cronos Regio Database, experiences in other projects have shown that the overall data availability for Turkey is still very fragmentary – i.e. most of the data are missing- throughout all NUTS levels and socioeconomic themes. Basic statistical data is publicly available online but only at country level.

All in all as already stated within the ESPON 2013 FOCI and ReRisk projects the the data situation concerning the Western Balkan Countries can be globally defined as poor whereas data seems for the most part only be available at country level as there is generally no break – down of data to lower administrative levels (cp. ReRisk inception report, 2008). Furthermore with exception of Croatia and FYROM all other countries have not adopted the NUTS system, yet, which hinders the development of a sound and in a scientific sense reliable data basis comparable to the established NUTS system considerably. In addition an allocation of Western Balkan countries' administrative regions to somehow self defined NUTS-equivalents will inevitably result in data useless for other purposes or projects as such an allocation will in all likelihood not be comparable to similar efforts done in other projects or for other purposes.

Taking into consideration all the above summarized aspects it becomes apparent that the coverage of Turkey and the Western Balkans in the EDORA database will be, at best, partial. However, considering the urgent overall data needs the building of a sound operational core database had given more priority than the acquisition of single MS data sets or the investigation of CC data availability during the initial stage of data acquisition and database set up. So data availability from MS and CC sources as well as the decision which country to include or exclude will be taken more in consideration and further be explored during the sequel of the project once a final decision on the core project dataset needed for describing the states has been made.

## 10.5 Risks and Challenges

### 10.5.1 Agrarian bias in rural development research

Data availability is a major constraint for EDORA. The agrarian bias in rural development research and policy has already been mentioned. It has substantial impacts upon data availability. Data collection is expensive, many EU MS have (over many years) developed substantial infrastructures to collect detailed information on farm structures, production and income. However, as the "Wye Group Handbook" (UNECE 2007) states, the focus of rural development is changing, and: "Statistics for rural areas need to go far beyond agriculture and cover a wide range of economic, social and environmental indicators." Such change is, however rather slow, and there remain substantial gaps in terms of harmonised regional data sets relating to issues such as rural employment, quality of life, access to services, landscape and heritage based leisure and tourism, and likely regional impacts of climate change. These will present a substantial challenge for the creation of the EDORA database, (2.11) and the typology (2.12). There is no easy solution, a pragmatic approach is necessary, making use of "proxy" indicators, data available at less detailed regional levels (NUTS 2 or 3), and, where practicable, assembling datasets from MS sources.

### 10.5.2 Changes in the NUTS classification

The NUTS nomenclature was introduced in the EU in 1980 as a basis for statistical data collection. It covers the member states of the EU as well as the EFTA- and CEC- countries. It is a geocode standard for referencing the administrative divisions of countries for statistical purposes. The NUTS divisions are oriented at the administrative divisions within the countries but it does not necessarily correspond with it. In practice, however, the definition is not easily applicable as there are two problems with these units that should be borne in mind when working with NUTS as a spatial and statistical reference:

First they are based on national statistical units. While for example the size of NUTS 3 areas averages out to about 5000 km<sup>2</sup> in the New Member States, they come down to 1000 km<sup>2</sup> in rural and 100 km<sup>2</sup> in urban areas in Germany. So, when comparing countries the NUTS units differ in size, population,

economic strength, etc. and are therefore not really comparable across nations. Second, many NUTS units consist of both urban and rural areas. Applying these units when analysing rural areas will, therefore, neither provide genuine urban nor genuine rural areas (cp. Bjørnsen, et al: 2007<sup>7</sup>)

Apart from problems that may arise from the heterogeneity of the NUTS regions one might also be confronted with data allocation problems when analyzing data collected at different years or for different projects as a result of the revisions the NUTS regions have been subjected to 1999 (NUTS 1999), 2003 (NUTS 2003) and 2008 (NUTS 2006). Especially the 2008 revision has significant consequences for the EDORA project as especially at NUTS 3 level mayor code changes took place as reaction to local government reforms in the Member State countries, so that data collected prior to 1<sup>st</sup> January 2008 can not be allocated 1:1 to the new regions. As reaction some database operators as for example EUROSTAT withdrew any data for regions where data could not be allocated 1:1 to the new regions so that for this regions data will only be available if it has been collected anew.

In order to mitigate the data allocation problem data with NUTS 1999 and NUTS 2003 as spatial reference are approximately allocated to the current NUTS version (NUTS 2006) in such a way that regions that came into effect by splitting 2003 NUTS regions have been assigned to the corresponding single 2003 NUTS region with the help of a table provided by DG-Agri. Furthermore 2006 NUTS regions that came into effect as a result of minor border changes (visually recognized by comparing old and new regions within a GIS) within NUTS 2003 regions have been assigned to the NUTS 2006 region whose area corresponds for the most part to the new NUTS 2006 area.

Because of the recent change in the NUTS geocode there will be inevitably regions with data gaps as either an allocation of data collected prior to the change in the geocode is not possible or data for outdated geocodes are not available anymore until new data have been collected. Because for some regions an allocation of NUTS 2003 values to NUTS 2006 values can only be done approximately the allocated data will not be 100% exact for the regions affected (e.g. for regions with minor border changes which as a result will affect the regions area). Nevertheless at present this seems to be the only practical solution to prevent having a lot of regions with missing data for indicators that are only available for NUTS 2003.

### **10.5.3 Time allocated for database set up**

Ideally data acquisition and editing would be completed before the engagement with its analysis what is unfortunately not the general rule. This is also true for the EDORA project where the time consuming tasks of data acquisition, data editing and the set up of the EDORA database is to be completed in spring 2010 and therefore scheduled parallel to the empirical tasks. Nevertheless data is needed much sooner in order to make progress on the empirical tasks. In order to harmonize both, data is going to be collected in close cooperation with the thematic experts so that data sets are going to be available when needed as far as possible. Nevertheless prompt data availability can not always be guaranteed. This applies especially to data sets that are not publicly available or that have to be requested from statistical offices. In such cases demand and feasibility are likely to diverge and in the worst case even to delay tasks.

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<sup>7</sup> Bjørnsen, H., Johansen, S., Dax, T. (2007) Types of interaction between environment, rural economy, society and agriculture in european regions. TERESA. European background of rural development. Deliverable D 1.2.

# 11 Future Perspectives

Activity 2.26 was scheduled to begin in March 2008, and is still very much in a preparatory phase. The following text is therefore not a progress report, but is instead, forward looking.

## 11.1 Introduction

Future social and economic development of rural areas within the EU will take place within the context of, and challenges presented by, globalization, demographic restructuring of Europe's population, climate change, and the energy challenge (SEC(2008) 2868 p.3). Whilst these drivers of change undoubtedly present challenges they also offer opportunities. Local responses to the challenges presented by processes of restructuring will be shaped by, amongst other factors, their cultural heritage and human and institutional capacity. The recognition that the opportunities and challenges for rural areas and communities associated with these drivers of change will be spatially differentiated at the regional level is central to the EDORA project. As part of the EDORA approach, an assessment will be undertaken exploring patterns of differentiation and the future implications of these development pathways. This latter element of the research is contained within the Future Perspectives strand of the project.

Having developed a rationale for the inclusion of future perspectives above, this section of the Interim Report focuses on outlining the approach developed to identify future perspectives. In some respects this approach is similar to techniques utilised in foresight exercises, however, due to time, resource and data limitations it will not be feasible to develop complex econometric forecasting models of rural development trajectories, an alternative methodology was applied that had previously been used to good effect in Ireland; see Manion and Walsh, 2005.

## 11.2 Outline of the approach

The identification of 'preferred' future perspective(s) of rural areas from key EU policy documents will provide a baseline against which contemporary trends and likely trajectories in different types of rural areas can be assessed. Whilst there are several policy texts that might be assessed resource constraints preclude the incorporation of every EU policy document that, to varying degrees, comments on the future of rural areas and rural communities. In line with available resources three core texts, the Territorial Agenda (2008), the EU Social and Cohesion Policy (2007 – 2013) and the EU Rural Development Regulation (2007 – 2013), which provide different, spatial, regional and, to some extent sectoral, policy perspectives of rural areas and communities, are considered with respect to how they perceive the future. Relevant documents supporting these texts are also considered. In the case of the Territorial Agenda the European Spatial Development Perspective is considered; the various Cohesion Reports are referred to in relation to the Social and Cohesion Policy and supporting documents associated with the production of the EU RDR are also considered for what they reveal about the conceptualisation of rural spaces and processes that lead to understandings of the future of rural areas.

The three core texts, agreed to at various formal and informal Council of Ministers meetings are focused on as they translate key EU objectives, namely competitiveness, sustainability and cohesion, into strategic policy frameworks that speak directly to concerns for the future of rural areas and communities. The texts, directly and indirectly, present agreed visions or perspectives of the future of rural areas within the EU. As such they provide important insights into the desired future for rural areas and rural communities. The significance of these documents is enhanced as they are not simply aspirational but set out how various perspectives of the future of rural areas are to be achieved through the adoption and implementation of common approaches and measures at EU, national, regional and sub-regional levels. The results of this assessment will be presented to the Expert Group with a view to eliciting their opinions of the future perspectives and whether these are indeed the preferred vision of rural regions within the EU.

Having established the future perspective(s) of rural areas two lines of enquiry are pursued. The first will focus on evaluating to which of the topological classifications identified in 2.22 the different policy perspectives apply (is territoriality explicit or implicit within the three core texts). This assessment aims to establish if certain types of rural areas are represented to a greater extent than others within the core policy texts. This element of the analysis will contribute to our understanding of the focus of EU policies and whether they cover all types of rural areas equally or whether there are some types of rural region that receive greater attention than others.

The second line of enquiry will provide an evaluation of whether current rural trends, as identified in task 2.12, are leading to attainment of the vision(s) for rural areas set out in the core policy texts. These trends are considered with regard to their likely impact if they continue unchanged over the next 10 – 15 years. The potential outcomes of these development trajectories will be considered with reference to stated EU rural and regional policy goals. The Expert Group will be asked to comment as to the interpretation of the possible impacts of current trends and their implications for the medium term development of rural regions.

It is envisaged that during the course of this work it is possible that policy gaps relating to particular types of rural region may be identified. It is also probable that development potential and opportunities associated with greater territorial cooperation might be established. If this should be the case these issues will be highlighted within the draft output to the Expert Group. The Group will be asked to review these findings and comment on whether they should be incorporated into the policy assessment stage of the research. Feedback from the Group at this stage will form an important element in the finalisation of this analysis.

## 12 Some Initial Thoughts on Policy Implications

Activities 2.31 and 2.32 are scheduled to begin later in 2009, being very much dependent upon the outcomes of earlier conceptual and empirical tasks. However the following text represents an update on the thinking presented in the Proposal and Inception Report.

### 12.1 Urban-Rural Cooperation (Activity 2.31)

The European Spatial Development Perspective (ESDP) (CSD, 1999) has been instrumental in drawing attention to rural-urban relationships and rural-urban partnerships at the European, national, regional and local levels. The ESDP reinforces the notion that the linkages between urban and rural areas should be based on an integrated treatment of the city and countryside as functional and spatial entities with diverse relationships and interdependencies. In reflecting a shift to what has been dubbed the contemporary paradigm of regional development (Bachtler, 2003), the policy envisaged by the ESDP is that endogenous forces need to be mobilised, in other words that social capital needs to be generated through cooperation (Faludi, 2006), and through rural-urban partnerships. According to Faludi (2006), in this and other respects the ESDP foreshadows territorial cohesion thinking, which is “about ensuring the harmonious development [of the EU] and about making sure that [its] citizens are able to make the most of inherent features of [its] territories”. (CEC, 2008). Many of the problems faced by territories cut across sectors and effective solutions require an integrated approach and co-operation between the various authorities and stakeholders involved.

In addition to the role that EU rural development programmes can play in pursuing territorial cohesion, the Green paper also recognises the need to promote cooperation, dialogue and partnership between different levels of government and between these and organisations and people on the ground directly involved in the development process. Indeed, the need for strong cooperation at various levels is central to the territorial cohesion debate and it is clear from the subtext of the Green paper that rural-urban cooperation is likely to prove crucial. Four main aspects of rural-urban interaction are particularly important in this respect: commuting and travel to work areas; access to services, health and education; migration; and rural-urban partnerships. This initial assessment considers the potential opportunities and constraints for developing rural-urban cooperation through partnerships and the development of social capital.

The presence of effective rural-urban collaboration involving the public, private and voluntary sectors has potentially great significance for rural development. However, formulating and implementing rural-urban partnerships poses as many challenges as benefits which policy will ultimately have to be sensitive to.

The impacts of rural-urban partnerships are likely to be highly dependent on local, and ultimately *ad hoc*, contextual factors, thus as a driver of rural differentiation they are by no means straightforward as their impacts will not be felt uniformly across rural areas, however they are characterised. That said, the structures (both spatial and organisational) of governance, organisational support for rural businesses and local and strategic level planning will itself provide a broad differentiator of rural areas, albeit one that is not easy to identify through secondary data.

The potential opportunities of formal rural-urban collaboration include an improved ability to address regional issues; reduced urban-rural polarisation and greater inclusion of multiple stakeholders with diverse interests; useful intelligence of rural concerns and priorities for the urban decision makers; the prospect of rural initiatives being taken seriously by those with power and resources; improved access to resources and support for rural initiatives; increased competitiveness in the global economy; greater ability to address the negative effects of uncontrolled development; and economies of scale for rural initiatives. From an urban perspective, increased capacity may also help revitalise cities, which in turn benefits surrounding regions. To capitalise on these opportunities, synergy is therefore required between strategic (largely but not wholly urban) and very local level (largely but not wholly rural) governance to allow partnerships to be forged, perhaps facilitated in the first instance by national initiatives in a handful of member states.

Constraints to rural development may be felt in the form of political and cultural differences on both sides which hinder development; exclusion in decision making processes due to a lack of strategic appreciation at the local level; distrust and competition between rural and urban interests which prove divisive to rural projects; and the dilution of rural interests due to urban influence. These potential barriers to rural-urban cooperation clearly need to be taken into account when developing any test bed for partnership initiatives such as that mentioned above. Further, it would seem crucial that the spatial structures of cooperation initiatives be selected carefully to minimise potential cultural differences and alleviate, as far as possible, the detrimental effects of competition between municipalities and the various levels of governance. This also needs to be balanced with a need to consider interactions at a regional level, between large urban and metropolitan areas and surrounding rural regions; and at a sub-regional level, between small and medium sized towns and surrounding rural locales. Thus, together with inherent differences between member states, a 'one size fits all' approach to fostering rural-urban cooperation is unlikely to prove successful.

Of course, there are numerous forms of informal urban-rural relationships which are more difficult to both identify and assess the impacts of. These may, for example, manifest through the membership of societies and communities of interest bridging rural and urban areas as well as through social and kinship networks. Ultimately, all forms of rural-urban collaboration have the potential to open up rural economies and societies to new forms of knowledge, ideas, innovation, entrepreneurship, which evidence suggests can help drive rural development and performance in a positive way. This presents potential difficulties for policy in that informal networks are difficult to monitor and integrate into more formal governance structures. Nevertheless, these informal, *ad hoc* forms of rural-urban cooperation may well prove central to the goals of territorial cohesion policy, particularly with respect to allowing citizens 'to make the most of the inherent features of their territories'. The orientation of cohesion policy in the broader context of development opportunities for rural areas is discussed further in the following section.

## **12.2 Orientation of Cohesion Policy (Activity 2.32)**

In recent years the concept of territorial cohesion has increasingly gained importance in European policy-making and academic spheres. The Green Paper on Territorial Cohesion (EC 2008) carried on discussions starting from the early 1990s and central to ESPON activities, emphasizing territorial cooperation and the need to address territorial trends. It argues that the territorial diversity of the EU is a vital asset that can contribute to the sustainable development of the EU as whole. To turn this diversity into strength, new themes of policy action, new sets of relationships binding EU territories at different levels and new forms of cooperation, coordination and partnerships have to be sought. The concept sets out the following aspects as main issues to the debate:

*“Viewing cohesion from a territorial angle calls attention to themes such as sustainable development and access to services. It also underlines that many issues do not respect administrative boundaries and may require a coordinated response from several regions or countries, while others need to be addressed at a local or neighbourhood level.”*

*“An integrated place-based approach pursued by the cohesion policy is ideally suited to respond to complex and strongly embedded issues, such as regional development but in order to maximise synergies better coordination with sectoral policies is necessary. Territorial cohesion also stresses the added value of partnership with a strong local dimension, which ensures that policies are designed and implemented with local knowledge.”*

As a general reference, the objective of territorial cohesion can be understood as constituting a policy framework which provides measures to achieve a more balanced development by reducing regional disparities, avoiding territorial imbalances and by making sectoral policies, which have a spatial impact, and regional policy more coherent.

Polycentricity has been recognized as the new conceptual orientation for spatial planning. Analyzing this concept merely at a high geographical level would neglect the contributions by and the need for integration of smaller towns and the rural areas. However, the economic and social potential available in

rural areas of Europe are a significant strength of European economy and culture. The sub heading 'Turning territorial diversity into strength' chosen for the Green Paper is perceptive in identifying the diversity of the European Union and recognizing its position as the focal point for territorial cohesion.

Within rural areas it is visible that the degree of regional disparities has not significantly been diminished over the last decades. Though regional policy in Europe has been strengthened, and the Structural Funds and the Cohesion Fund have been oriented towards the regions and countries with weaker economic performances, the territorial effects are mixed. Whereas centres in these areas have gained many incentives and could reduce the gap between their per capita GDP and the European average, differences in economic performances within the countries persist. This calls for on-going activities and renewed strategies of regional policy. The European framework for the current programme period has provided some possibilities to take care of the country specific situation and needs. The national strategies for spatial development and rural development require the geographical divergences to be addressed and the main spatial strategies for each country to be set out.

In most countries there is consensus that rural development policies are still focused on agriculture. These "address only a subset of the wide array of issues relevant to the development of rural regions and the well-being of their inhabitants" (OECD 2006, p.56). As more disaggregated analysis reveals rural areas are very diverse and rural policy making requires context-specific strategies. The EDORA project provides information on the different types and elaborates on issues of defining reasonable typologies and policy trajectories.

Cohesion policy therefore requires specific consideration on governance strategies increasing the attention towards issues of policy coherence. Since the local and regional context largely runs the danger to get submerged in large scale geographical contexts it is particularly important to address the characteristics of specific geographical areas and the needs of different types of rural areas. Innovation at the local level thus has to focus on governance issues to achieve policy integration and increase effectiveness of rural policies.

Cohesion aspects with regard to challenges of sustainable development are particularly relevant for the different contexts of rural regions and have an increasing relevance as a counterweight to concentration trends. They include a comprehensive assessment of the continuing processes of EU economic and social integration, globalisation and economic restructuring, the development of information and transport technologies taking account of the specific needs of peripheral areas, the reflection of the changing political geography of Europe (enlargement, regionalism), the trends in socio-demographic structures of EU population and environmental degradation threats (energy supply, climate change implications).

Policy implications will have to focus on the interrelations of regions and highlight the need to valorize the opportunities of different rural regions. The integrative concepts laid down in rural research will have to be transferred to policy concepts and provide a specific role for policy coherence in future EU rural development policies.

## **13 Plan of Research Activity during 2009-10**

### **13.1 Thematic and Conceptual Activities**

In the EDORA Inception Report Annex (p14) it was stated that “...research activity in the period leading up to the Interim Report ... will predominantly reflect the need to establish the conceptual framework for the later phase of empirical analysis. ... This implies a need for significant efforts to construct an innovative conceptual framework ... In a very real sense this stage of the research strategy is concerned with formulating hypotheses, which will be “tested” in the second phase of the project ...” At this point it is fair to say that considerable progress has been made in assembling the material from which a clear conceptual framework and associated research hypotheses may be distilled. Nevertheless the research timetable (Inception Report p19) envisages the main conceptual Activities (2.11, 2.12, 2.13) continuing until the end of July 2009. There is much to do in terms of consolidation, teasing out the links between themes, elaborating the Grand Narratives, and clarifying the list of **D**rivers, **O**pportunities and **C**onstraints. Pivotal to these continued efforts will be the advice of the EDORA Expert Group, who are scheduled to meet on 27<sup>th</sup>-28<sup>th</sup> May. The final versions of Working Papers 1-10 (Thematic Reports and Synthesis) are scheduled to be made available at the end of June 2009.

### **13.2 Empirical and Presentational Activities**

Of the six activities under this heading, one (2.24 Selection of Exemplar Regions) is already complete. Four more (2.21 Database, 2.22 Typology, 2.23 Country Profiles and 2.24 Exemplar Regions) are in draft form. The first of these is naturally an ongoing task, serving the needs of other activities, and it will continue until January 2010. The Typology and the Country Profiles are scheduled to be completed by the end of May 2009, whilst the completion of the Exemplar Region work is scheduled for the end of July 2009. According to Table 2 of the Inception Report Annex all three Activities were to deliver Working papers to the Lead Partner by 30/06/09. For the 2.22 and 2.23 this schedule now seems a little optimistic, and it likely that a further 2-3 months will be required. This would suggest that it is more realistic to expect all working papers associated with these three Activities (WP11-23) to be delivered to the Lead Partner at the end of July 2009. This slight re-scheduling of work is recorded in Appendix 4 Table A4.1.

Activity 2.25 (Future Perspectives) will begin a phase of more intense work following the discussions of the Expert Group in late May. It is scheduled to report its finding through a Working Paper (WP24) by the end of January 2010.

As the EDORA database expands it will become a more valuable source for all forms of empirical (and cartographic) analysis in support of all aspects of the research, including the Policy Activities. It will also begin to yield datasets which are appropriate for inclusion in the main ESPON 2013 database. These requirements will be responded to through Activity 2.26 (Mapping, contributions to the ESPON database etc), which is scheduled to continue until September 2010.

### **13.3 Policy Related Activities**

Work on the two Policy related activities (2.31 and 2.32) is due to begin “in earnest” in October 2009, continuing until July 2010, with Working Papers 25 and 26 delivered to the Lead Partner in June 2010. During the first half of 2009 the researchers involved in these activities will be kept informed of the ongoing work on the Conceptual and Empirical Activities, and will participate in the Expert Group meeting to ensure that the needs of the policy analysis phase are fully considered.

### **13.4 Proposed Structure of the Draft Final Report.**

The Technical Specification requires a preliminary table of contents for the Draft Final Report to be included in this Interim Report. This may be found in Appendix 5.



### 13.5 Links with other ESPON 2013 Projects

An exchange of data between EDORA and DEMIFER has been initiated. It is hoped to initiate a sharing of ideas and findings with FOCl during the course of 2009.

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## Appendix 1: Additional Tables and Maps for Section 7

**Table A1.1: The Criteria used in the EDORA draft typology**

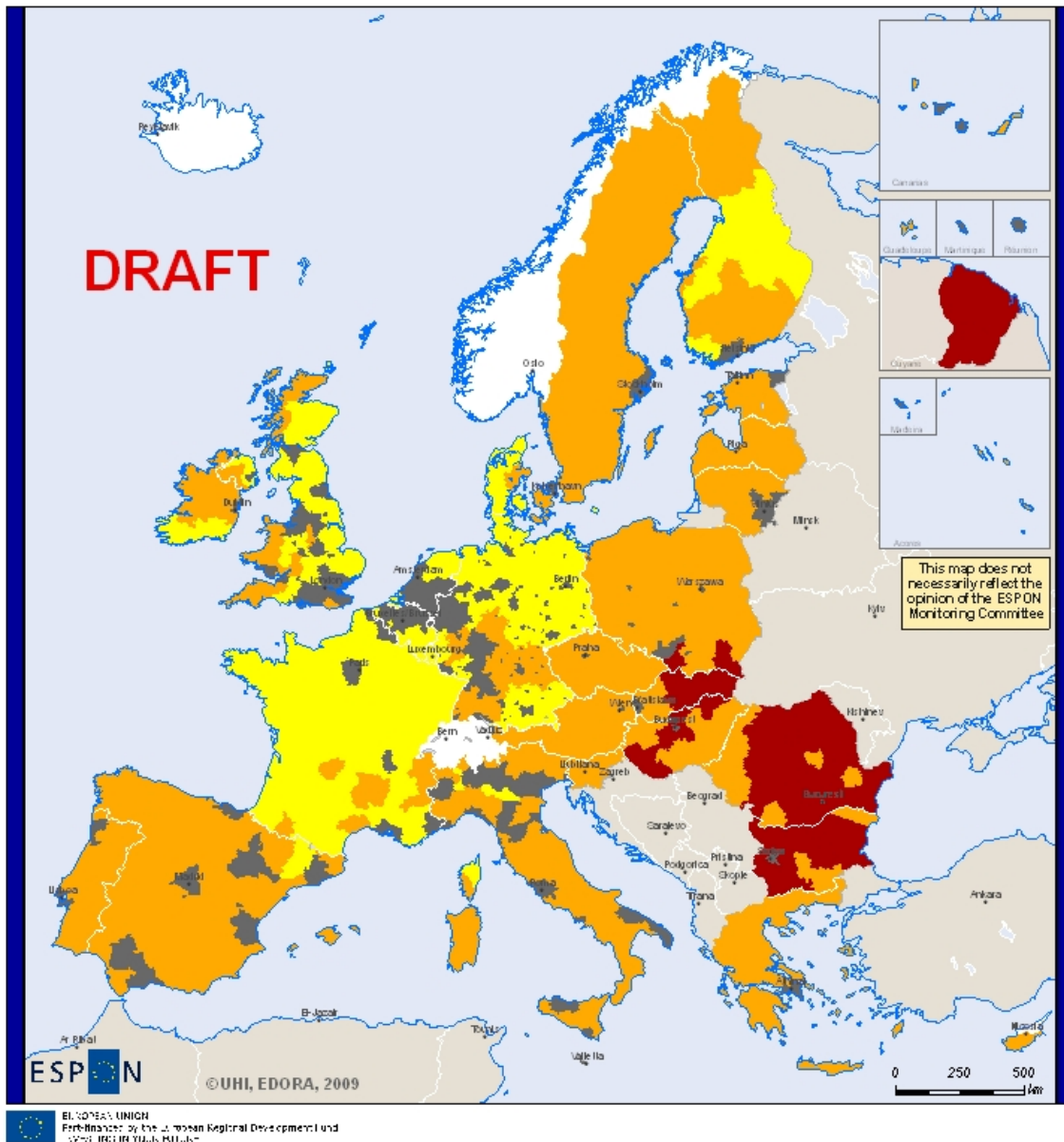
| Decision  | Criteria  | EDORA type(s) defined by this criterion  |
|---|---|--|
| <b>1. Urban-Rural</b>   | Based on the Dijkstra-Poelman modified OECD typology (DG Regio)   | Type 1 Urban   |
| <b>2. Depleting/ Accumulating</b>                               | Based on category 6 in Mats Johansson' demographic trends typology (see Map 1 in <a href="http://www.espon.eu/mmp/online/website/content/programme/1455/2175/2176/2177/index_EN.html">http://www.espon.eu/mmp/online/website/content/programme/1455/2175/2176/2177/index_EN.html</a> )  | Type 2 Depleting   |
| <b>3. Primary sector dependent/Non Primary sector dependent</b> | GVA from NACE codes A-B as a percentage of the total for NACE codes A-B, C-E and G-K, above the average for rural regions in EU27 MS.   | Type 3, Strong Primary Sector (in non EU countries), Types 3.1, 3.2 and 3.3 within EU (see below). |
| <b>4. Importance of semi-subsistence agriculture</b>            | Percentage of holdings (NMS only) which are <2ESU more than 2S.D. above the EU rural average.   | Type 3.1 Semi-subsistence farming  |
| <b>5. Peri/Para Productivist agricultural regions</b>           | After excluding the semi-subsistence regions, Peri Productivist regions defined as those in which the % of holdings with OGA is more than twice the average for rural regions, OR where the % of holdings >40ESU is below the EU average. Para-Productivist regions thus defined as those with less than twice the EU average incidence of OGA or more than the average % of holdings in the >40ESU size group. These criterion can only be applied to the EU27 at present, due to data gaps. | Type 3.2 Peri Productivist and Type 3.3 Para Productivist  |
| <b>6. "Fordist" and NRE Regions.</b>                            | Regions in types 1-3.3 excluded first. Fordist regions defined as those in which the percentage of GVA in Manufacturing (NACE C-E) exceeds the EU average AND the percentage in Private Services (G-K) is less than the EU rural average. The NRE regions are the remaining regions, which are characterised by above average % in Private Services.  | Type 4 "Fordist" and Type 5 "NRE".   |

**Table A1.2 Data Sources used for the Draft EDORA Typology**

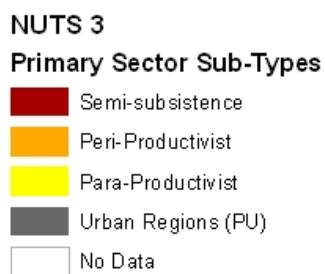
| Criteria   | Data source   | Notes  |
|------------|---|--|
| 1          | DG Regio's modified OECD U-R classification (Dijkstra and Poelman 2008)<br><a href="http://ec.europa.eu/regional_policy/sources/docgener/study_en.htm">http://ec.europa.eu/regional_policy/sources/docgener/study_en.htm</a>  |  |
| 2          | Trends in Population Development, ESPON Territorial Observation No. 1, Nov 2008,<br><a href="http://www.espon.eu/mmp/online/website/content/programme/1455/2175/2176/2177/index_EN.html">http://www.espon.eu/mmp/online/website/content/programme/1455/2175/2176/2177/index_EN.html</a> ) |  |
| 3, 6       | Eurostat REGIO database, Table: reg_e3vabp95, Last update: Fri Jan 30 06:30:07 MET 2009   |  |
| 4, 5 (ESU) | Eurostat REGIO database, Table: ef_r_nuts. Last update: Fri Feb 20 11:39:26 MET 2009  | Some estimation of missing data necessary. NUTS 2 average applied to constituent NUTS 3 - notably in DE.         |
| 5 (OGA)    | DG Agriculture, Rural Development in the EU 2008. Regional Tables to accompany Chapter 3,<br><a href="http://ec.europa.eu/agriculture/agrista/rurdev2008/index_en.htm">http://ec.europa.eu/agriculture/agrista/rurdev2008/index_en.htm</a>  | Mostly NUTS 3 data, but where missing NUTS 2 average applied to constituent NUTS 3. No data for non-EU countries |

**Table A1.3: Distribution of EDORA Typology regions according to MS**

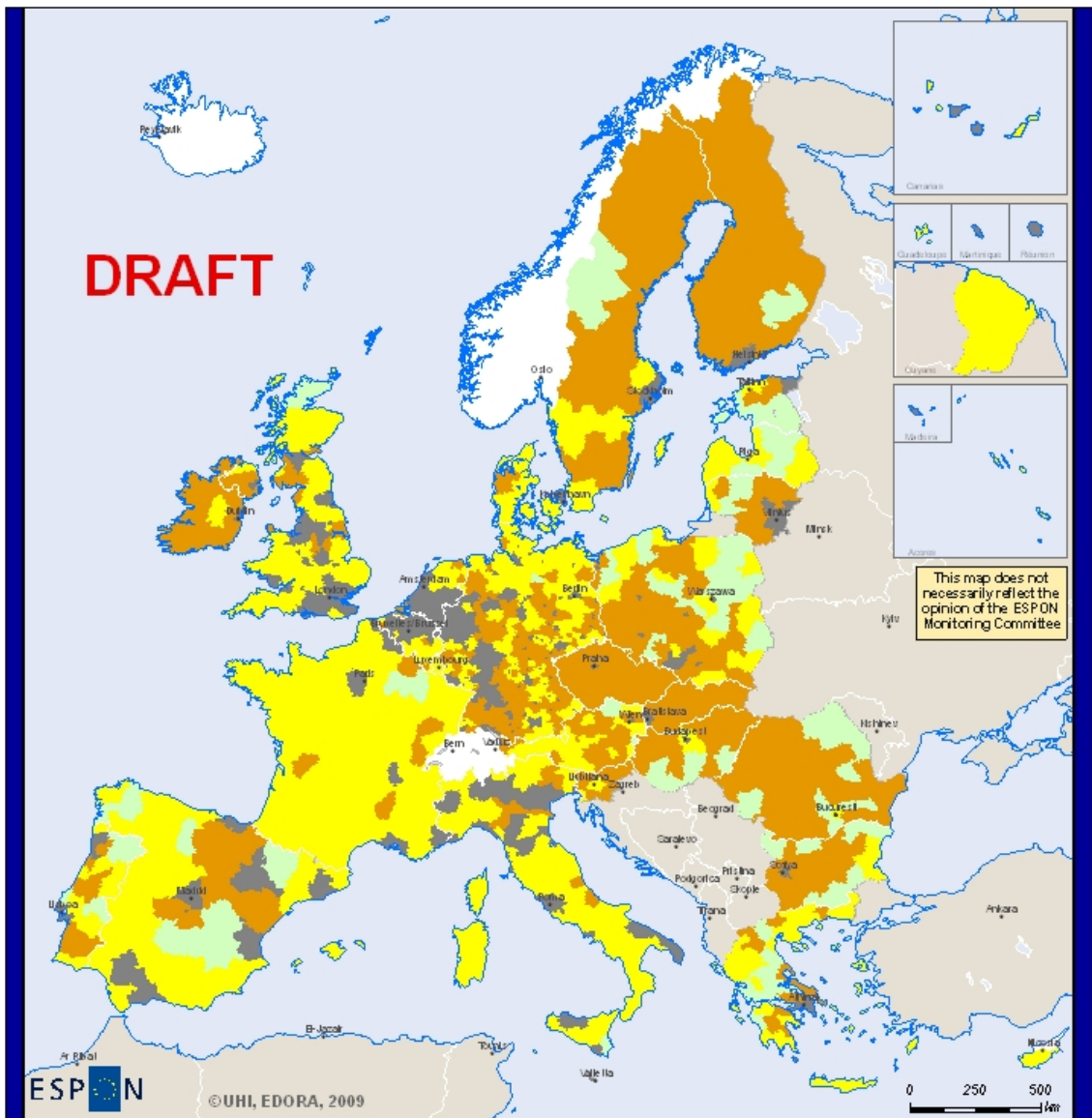
| MS          | Urban      | Depleting  | Semi-Subsistence | Peri-Productivist | Para-Productivist | "Fordist"  | NRE        | Total       |
|-------------|------------|------------|------------------|-------------------|-------------------|------------|------------|-------------|
| AT          | 2          | 0          | 0                | 6                 | 0                 | 14         | 13         | 35          |
| BE          | 27         | 0          | 0                | 0                 | 2                 | 3          | 12         | 44          |
| BG          | 1          | 24         | 2                | 0                 | 0                 | 0          | 1          | 28          |
| CY          | 0          | 0          | 0                | 0                 | 0                 | 0          | 1          | 1           |
| CZ          | 1          | 7          | 0                | 0                 | 0                 | 6          | 0          | 14          |
| DE          | 189        | 54         | 0                | 0                 | 5                 | 93         | 88         | 429         |
| DK          | 3          | 0          | 0                | 0                 | 0                 | 1          | 7          | 11          |
| EE          | 1          | 1          | 0                | 3                 | 0                 | 0          | 0          | 5           |
| ES          | 12         | 0          | 0                | 26                | 2                 | 4          | 15         | 59          |
| FI          | 1          | 8          | 0                | 1                 | 0                 | 9          | 1          | 20          |
| FR          | 13         | 0          | 1                | 2                 | 27                | 3          | 54         | 100         |
| GR          | 1          | 2          | 0                | 40                | 0                 | 3          | 5          | 51          |
| HU          | 1          | 9          | 2                | 4                 | 0                 | 3          | 1          | 20          |
| IE          | 1          | 0          | 0                | 0                 | 0                 | 6          | 1          | 8           |
| IT          | 34         | 6          | 0                | 16                | 1                 | 7          | 43         | 107         |
| LT          | 1          | 9          | 0                | 0                 | 0                 | 0          | 0          | 10          |
| LU          | 0          | 0          | 0                | 0                 | 0                 | 0          | 1          | 1           |
| LV          | 1          | 3          | 0                | 1                 | 0                 | 0          | 1          | 6           |
| MT          | 2          | 0          | 0                | 0                 | 0                 | 0          | 0          | 2           |
| NL          | 27         | 0          | 0                | 0                 | 5                 | 4          | 4          | 40          |
| PL          | 12         | 22         | 0                | 22                | 0                 | 5          | 5          | 66          |
| PT          | 7          | 1          | 0                | 13                | 0                 | 6          | 3          | 30          |
| RO          | 1          | 33         | 6                | 1                 | 0                 | 0          | 1          | 42          |
| SE          | 1          | 3          | 0                | 0                 | 0                 | 12         | 5          | 21          |
| SI          | 0          | 3          | 0                | 1                 | 0                 | 6          | 2          | 12          |
| SK          | 1          | 1          | 2                | 1                 | 0                 | 3          | 0          | 8           |
| UK          | 82         | 2          | 0                | 4                 | 4                 | 9          | 32         | 133         |
| <b>EU25</b> | <b>422</b> | <b>188</b> | <b>13</b>        | <b>141</b>        | <b>46</b>         | <b>197</b> | <b>296</b> | <b>1303</b> |



### Primary Sector Sub-types (All rural regions)



**Figure A1.1 Classification of all rural regions into Primary Sector Sub-Types**



**Diversified Sub-types (All rural regions)**

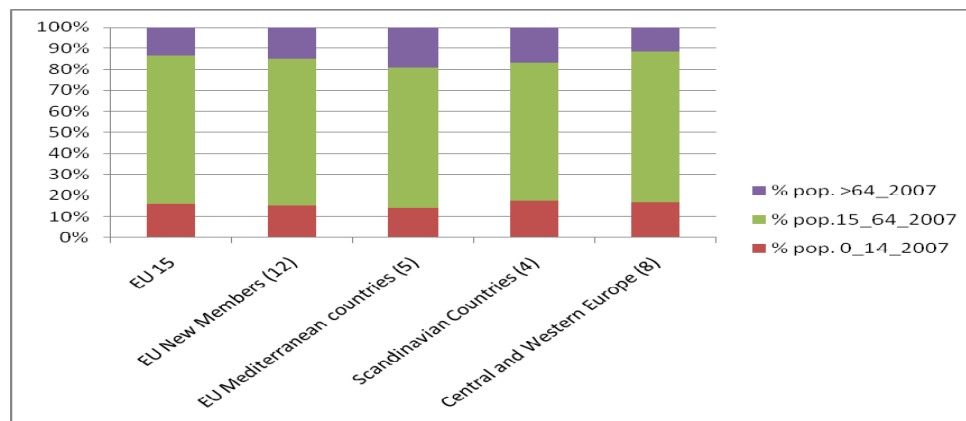
- NUTS 3  
Types**
- Urban
  - Fordist
  - NRE
  - Neither
  - No Data

Note: The “Neither” regions are those which have below EU average percentage GVA in both manufacturing and Private Services

## Appendix 3: Some Preliminary Results from the Country Profiles (Activity 2.23)

### 1. Population Structures

Figure A2.1: Population structure by groups of countries



Source: Own elaboration with data from Eurostat Database

#### Comments:

- Similar population age structures
- Higher degree of aging in Mediterranean countries and, secondly, in the NMS and the Scandinavian countries

### 2. Population Change

Table A2.1: Population change 2001-2007 (Index pop. 2001 = 100)

|   | EU    |                     |                             |                            |                                |
|---|-------|---------------------|-----------------------------|----------------------------|--------------------------------|
|   | EU 15 | EU New Members (12) | Mediterranean Countries (5) | Scandinavian Countries (4) | Central and Western Europe (8) |
| Population change 2001-2007 (Index pop. 2001=100) | 95,97 | 98,05               | 104,11                      | 101,95                     | 93,14                          |

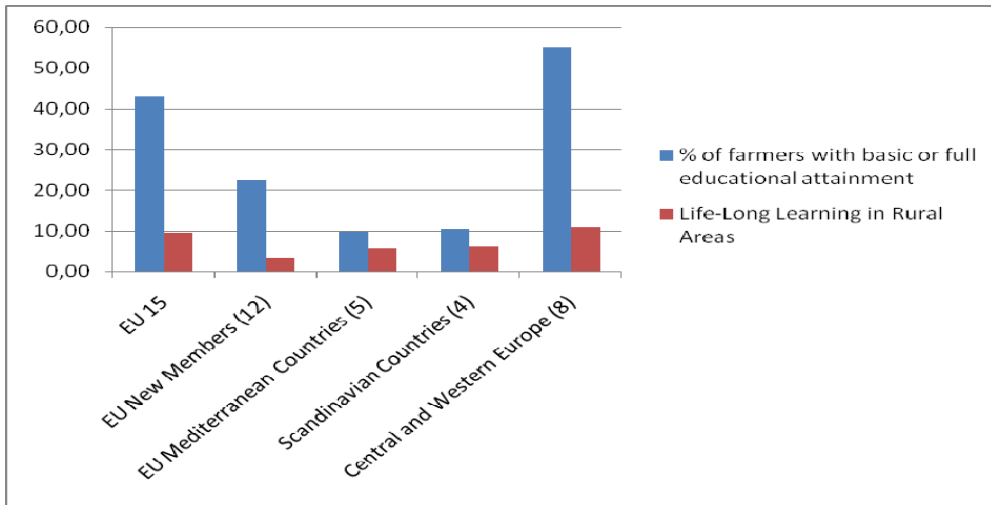
Source: Own elaboration with data from Eurostat Database

#### Comments:

- The development of the total population of subsets of countries shows a differential behaviour. Thus, all the countries of the EU 15 and NMS show a slight decrease of the total population between 2001 and 2007.
- In contrast, if different subgroups are considered, the results also vary. Thus, all the Mediterranean countries and Scandinavian countries show a very mild increase in their total population while countries of central and eastern Europe witness a more pronounced decrease (a 6.86% in just 6 years)
- The major immigration flows to some Mediterranean countries (Spain, Italy) helped offset the slowdown in natural growth that preside the demographic dynamics of most European countries.
- In spite of a more dynamic demographic behaviour, the NMS also show population loss, in this case because of the effects of emigration to other European countries.

### 3. Education in Rural Areas

Figure A2.2 Education in rural areas



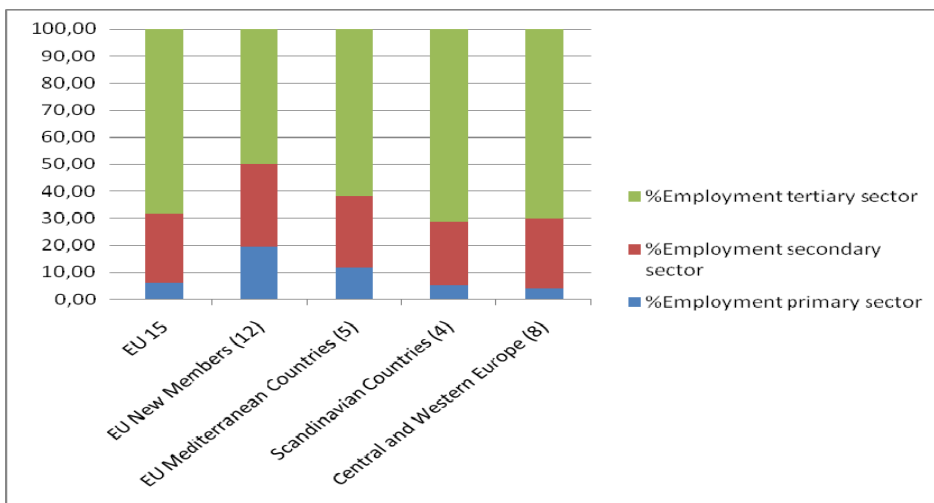
Source: Own elaboration with data from Rural Development European Union (RDEU) Report 2007

#### Comments:

- o There is a big difference in terms of the skills of farmers. The data indicates that the qualification is very low in Mediterranean countries and is higher in the countries of Central and Western Europe.
- o These different levels may be linked with other social and cultural aspects.
- o The NMS show levels of intermediate farmers.
- o Even in the best cases (countries of Central and Western Europe the percentage of farmers with training in education is only just over 50%.

### 4. Employment by Broad Economic Sector

Figure A2.3: Employment by Broad Economic Sector, 2007



Source: Own elaboration with data from Eurostat Database

**Comments:**

- The economies of the 15 EU countries are at a more advanced stage of modernization and tertiarisation than the ones of the NMS.
- The participation of the primary activities in the regional employment is clearly lower in the more modernised economies.
- The NMS show percentages of employment in the primary sector well above other regional groupings. It is expected a decline in the participation of primary activities in employment in coming years as the modernization of the sector increases.

**5. Employment by Sector****Table A2.2: Employment by economic activity**

|   | EU 15        | EU 12 NMS    | EU Med.      | Scand.       | Western and Central |
|---|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|---------------------|
| % Mining and quarrying                        | 0,40         | 1,11         | 0,49         | 0,86         | 0,37                |
| % Manufacturing                               | 27,20        | 32,58        | 23,98        | 28,88        | 27,92               |
| % Electricity, gas and water supply           | 0,62         | 2,26         | 0,63         | 1,29         | 0,58                |
| % Construction                                | 8,89         | 10,41        | 15,73        | 11,42        | 6,61                |
| % Wholesale and retail trade                  | 27,36        | 24,69        | 27,25        | 22,75        | 27,80               |
| % Hotel and restaurants                       | 9,05         | 4,89         | 10,25        | 5,40         | 8,93                |
| % Transport, storage and communication        | 8,14         | 10,45        | 7,08         | 11,90        | 8,24                |
| % Real state, renting and business activities | 18,29        | 13,59        | 14,56        | 17,46        | 19,49               |
| <b>% Sum of 3 main sectors</b>                | <b>72,85</b> | <b>70,86</b> | <b>65,78</b> | <b>69,09</b> | <b>75,21</b>        |

Source: Own elaboration with data from Eurostat database\_NACE\_2\_DIGIT

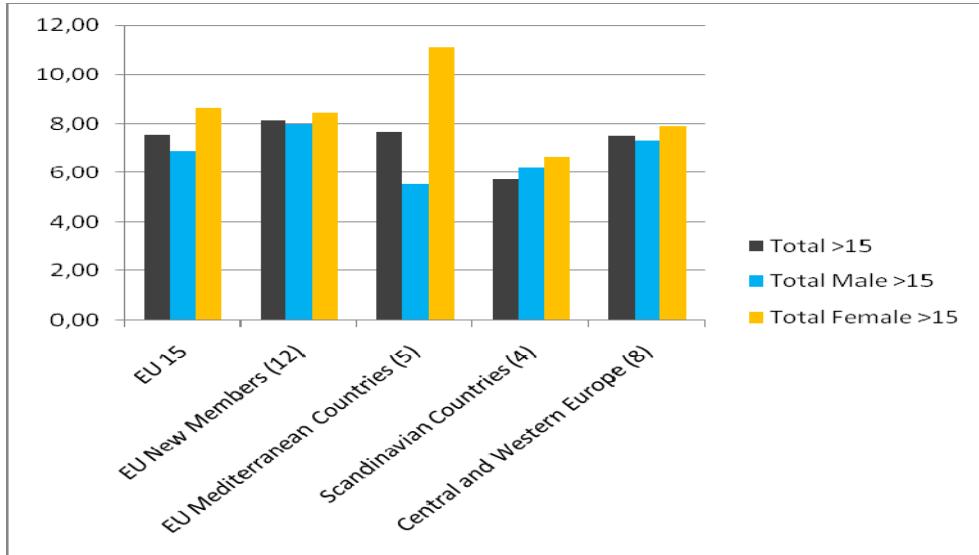
**Comments:**

- The structure of economic employment by economic activity does not differ much whatever is the group of countries considered.
- There are three main sectors of activity in rural areas of the EU, and the three are always the same: manufacturing, trade and real state.



## 6. Unemployment Rates

Figure A2.4 Unemployment rate (pop. over 15), 2007



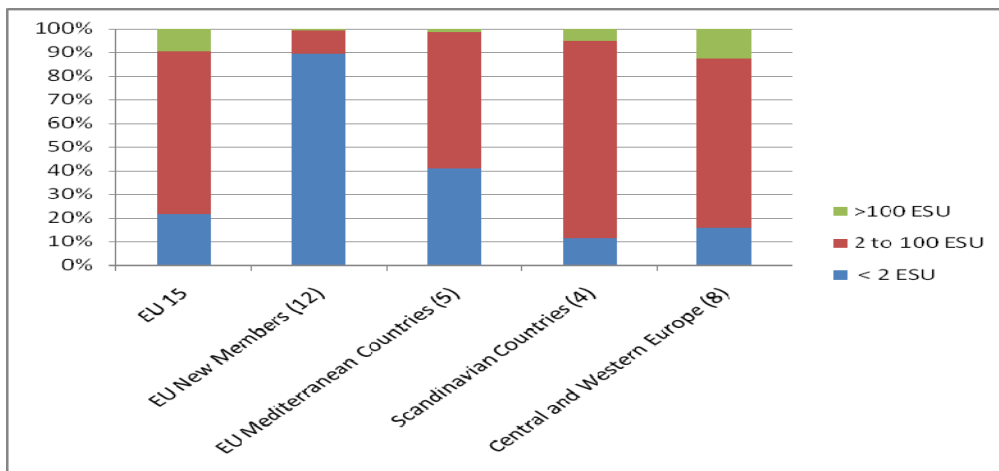
Source: Own elaboration with data from Eurostat Database

### Comments:

- The impact of unemployment is relatively levelled.
- There is a slightly less percentage of unemployment in Scandinavian and central-western European countries.
- The most relevant “difference” is the high impact of female unemployment in Mediterranean countries.

## 7. Economic Size of Farms

Figure A2.5: Farm land ownership. Economic size of farms



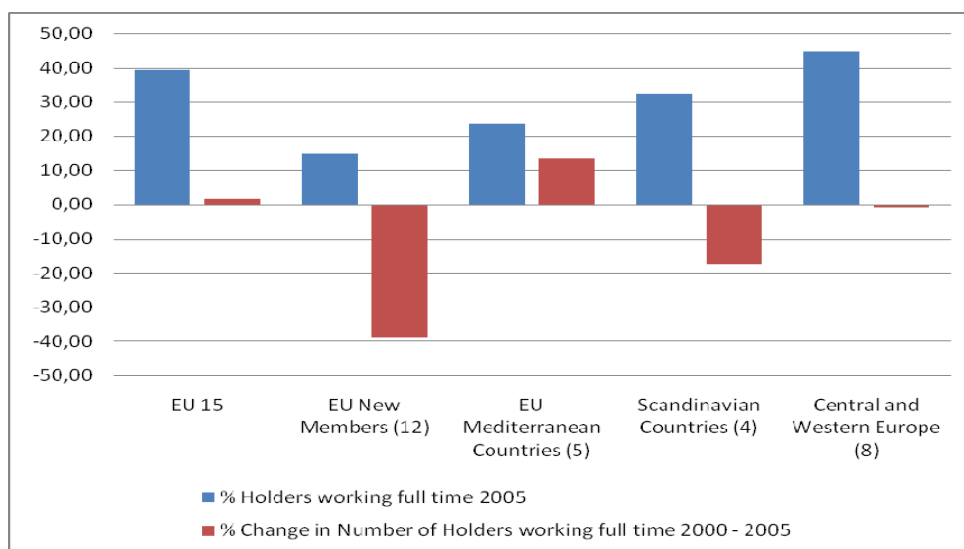
Source: Own elaboration with data from Eurostat database

**Comments:**

- The economic size of farm in ESU shows a very different picture depending on the group of countries.
- The group of less competitive farms (less than 2 ESU) amounts for only 20% of the farms of the EU 15 while is about 90% of farms of NMS.
- Other groups like Mediterranean countries show an intermediate situation (40% less than 2 ESU) in line to the existence of a dual agricultural system (irrigation and dryness).

**8. Full-Time Farm Holders**

**Figure A2.6: Farm holders working fulltime**



Source: Own elaboration with data from Eurostat database

**Comments:**

- In line with the economic dimension of farms, the percentage of farmers working full-time in their farms is more important in central and western Europe and Scandinavian countries.
- There is a significant reduction trend in the number of farmers working full time in the case of NMS probably in relation to the structural change processes going on to modernise the agricultural system.

## Appendix 3: Additional Table for Section 10

Table A3.1: Status of the EDORA database

| Indicator  | Source                       | Source Table                         | Remarks   |
|--|------------------------------|--------------------------------------|---|
| <b>A Demography</b>  |                              |                                      |   |
| age classes 2007   | Eurostat                     | reg_d2jan, (Member State Data)       |   |
| <b>B EMPLOYMENT</b>  |                              |                                      |   |
| % of employed by gender and age  | Eurostat                     | reg_lfe2emprr, (Labour Force Survey) | year 2007; most recent year available per region                                |
| % employment growth over the past five years                                       | Eurostat                     | reg_lfe2emprr, (Labour Force Survey) | year 2007; most recent year available per region                                |
| % of employed in primary, secondary and tertiary sector                            | Eurostat                     | reg_e3empl95, (Member State Data)    | year 2005; most recent year available per region                                |
| % of employed in public and private sector   | Eurostat                     | reg_lfe2enace, (Labour Force Survey) | year 2005; most recent year available per region                                |
| % of unemployed by gender and age  | Eurostat                     | reg_lfu3rt, (Labour Force Survey)    | year 2007; most recent year available per region                                |
| % of long term unemployment  | Eurostat                     | reg_lfu2ltu, (Labour Force Survey)   | year 2007; most recent year available per region                                |
| % of unemployment over the past five years   | Eurostat                     | reg_lfu3rt, (Labour Force Survey)    | year 2007; most recent year available per region                                |
| % of long term unemployment over the past five years                               | Eurostat                     | reg_lfu2rt, (Labour Force Survey)    | year 2007; most recent year available per region                                |
| <b>C URBAN RURAL INTERACTIONS</b>  |                              |                                      |   |
| economically active population by sex, age and highest level of education attained | Eurostat                     | reg_lfsd2pedu, (Labour Force Survey) | year 2007; most recent year available per region                                |
| number of local units  | Eurostat                     | sbs_r_nuts03, (Member State Data)    | year 2007; most recent year available per region                                |
| persons employed   | Eurostat                     | reg_lfe2emp, (Labour Force Survey)   | year 2007; most recent year available per region                                |
| wages and salary   | Eurostat                     | lc_ro4cost, (Labour Force Survey)    | year 2007; most recent year available per region                                |
| employment by professional status  | Eurostat                     | reg_lfe2estat, (Labour Force Survey) | year 2007; most recent year available per region                                |
| number of non-resident visits to a region  | Eurostat                     | tour_occ_arn2, (Member State Data)   | year 2007; most recent year available per region                                |
| employment and commuting among NUTS level 2 regions                                | Eurostat                     | reg_lfe2ecomm, (Labour Force Survey) | year 2007; most recent year available per region                                |
| Stock of vehicles by category at regional level                                    |                              |                                      |   |
| cluster size   | European Cluster Observatory |                                      | data may only be used for the project and not incorporated in a public database |
| cluster specialization   | European Cluster Observatory |                                      | data may only be used for the project and not incorporated in a public database |
| cluster focus  | European Cluster Observatory |                                      | data may only be used for the project and not incorporated in a public database |
| no. of tourist bed places  | Eurostat                     | tour_cap_nuts03, (Member State Data) |   |
| no. of nights spent  | Eurostat                     | tour_occ_nin2, (Member State Data)   |   |
| no. Of hospital days (days total)  | Eurostat                     | hlth_co_hosdayt, (Member State Data) | data coverage is very patchy. Mostly missing data for regions below NUTS 1      |
| length of road network km  | ESPON public database        | Espon project 1.2.1 MCRIT            | year of reference 2001 (NUTS 1999 approximately allocated to                    |

| Indicator  | Source                                | Source Table  | Remarks   |
|--|---------------------------------------|---|---|
|  |                                       |   | NUTS 2006)  |
| length of rail network in km   | ESPON public database                 | Espon project 1.2.1 MCRIT   | year of reference 2001 (NUTS 1999 approximately allocated to NUTS 2006)                               |
| accessibility time to market by road   | ESPON public database                 | Espon project 2.1.1 CAU   | year of reference 1997 (NUTS 1999 approximately allocated to NUTS 2006)                               |
| accessibility time to market by rail   | ESPON public database                 | Espon project 2.1.1 CAU   | year of reference 1997 (NUTS 1999 approximately allocated to NUTS 2006)                               |
| accessibility time to market by road and rail  | ESPON public database                 | Espon project 2.1.1 CAU   | year of reference 1997 (NUTS 1999 approximately allocated to NUTS 2006)                               |
| peripherality indicator by car with respect to population (P_EU_POP)                                       | SERA project / IRPUD                  |   | NUTS 2003 approximately allocated to NUTS 2006  |
| Share of Internet users to 100 inhabs regression   | ESPON public database                 | Espon project 1.2.2, CEIDT  | year of reference 2002, NUTS 2003 approximately allocated to NUTS 2006; data coverage is very patchy  |
| Proportion of firms with own website regression  | ESPON public database                 | Espon project 1.2.2, CEIDT  | year of reference 2002, NUTS 2003 approximately allocated to NUTS 2006; data coverage is very patchy  |
| % of households having access to the internet at home  | Eurostat                              | isoc_r_broad_h, Information and Communication Technologies Survey |   |
| % of householdshaving broadband access   | Eurostat                              | isoc_r_broad_h, Information and Communication Technologies Survey |   |
| labour costs   | Eurostat                              | lc_ro4cost, (Labour Force Survey)                                 | sum of NACE codes (A, B, C_TO_O_NOT_L, L)   |
| Employment in technology and knowledge intensive sectors by gender   | Eurostat                              | htec_emp_reg, (Member State Data)                                 |   |
| Number of students by different level of education   | Eurostat                              | educ_renrlrg1, (Labour Force Survey)                              |   |
| economically active population by sex, age and highest level of education attained between 15 and 24 years | Eurostat                              | reg_lfp2acedu, (Labour Force Survey)                              | For nearly all regions data missing in this age class / indicator can not be used                     |
| <b>D Rural Business Development</b>  |                                       |   |   |
| number of firms by sector of operation (2 digits)  | Eurostat                              | sbs_r_nuts03, (Member State Data)                                 | NACE data 1999 - 2006   |
| employment by sector of operation (2 digits)   | Eurostat                              | sbs_r_nuts03, (Member State Data)                                 | NACE data 1999 - 2006   |
| percentage of population with tertiary education   | Regional Innovation Scoreboard (2004) | TER_EDUC  | NUTS_2006 code added, data may only be used for the project and not incooperated in a public database |
| human ressources in science and technology   | Regional Innovation Scoreboard (2004) | HRSTC   | NUTS_2006 code added, data may only be used for the project and not incooperated in a public database |
| participation in life long learning  | Regional Innovation Scoreboard (2004) | LLL   | NUTS_2006 code added, data may only be used for the project and not incooperated in a public database |
| percentage of employment in high and medium tech manufacturing activities                                  | Regional Innovation Scoreboard (2004) | MHTMAH  | NUTS_2006 code added, data may only be used for the project and not incooperated in a public database |
| percentage of employment in knowledge intensive high technology services                                   | Regional Innovation Scoreboard (2004) | HTSER   | NUTS_2006 code added, data may only be used for the project and not incooperated in a public database |

| Indicator   | Source                                | Source Table               | Remarks  |
|---|---------------------------------------|----------------------------|--|
| R&D expenditures, all, privat, public, education, non-profit  | Regional Innovation Scoreboard (2004) | GERD, BERD, PURD           | NUTS_2006 code added, data may only be used for the project and not incooperated in a public database  |
| patent applications to the EPO by priority year at the regional level, total number, per million inhabitants and per million labour force | Regional Innovation Scoreboard (2004) | PATENT                     | NUTS_2006 code added, data may only be used for the project and not incooperated in a public database  |
| % firms with own website  | ESPON public database                 | Espon project 1.2.2, CEIDT |  |
| cluster size  | European Cluster Observatory          |                            | data may only be used for the project and not incooperated in a public database  |
| cluster spezialization  | European Cluster Observatory          |                            | data may only be used for the project and not incooperated in a public database  |
| cluster focus   | European Cluster Observatory          |                            | data may only be used for the project and not incooperated in a public database  |
| E CULTURAL HERITAGE   |                                       |                            |  |
| UNESCO World Heritage Sites per region  | UNESCU/GOOGLE Earth                   |                            | Sites released by UNESCO for GOOGLE Earth 2007 intersected with NUTS regions (NUTS 2003); Can be updated. Newer data including site category (building, nature, etc.) is at hand but has to be processed by GIS. |
| F SERVICES OF GENERAL INTEREST  |                                       |                            |  |
| BSI1a the density of hospitals  | IRPUD                                 |                            | data may only be used for the project and not incooperated in a public database  |
| BSI1b the number of hospital beds per head of population ,  | IRPUD                                 |                            | data may only be used for the project and not incooperated in a public database  |
| BSI1c the number of doctors per inhabitant  | IRPUD                                 |                            | data may only be used for the project and not incooperated in a public database  |
| BSI1e the average car driving time to the nearest hospital .  | IRPUD                                 |                            | data may only be used for the project and not incooperated in a public database  |
| BSI2 the average car driving time to the nearest university .   | IRPUD                                 |                            | data may only be used for the project and not incooperated in a public database  |
| BSI6c the average car driving time to the nearest airport   | IRPUD                                 |                            | data may only be used for the project and not incooperated in a public database  |
| BSI3a the share of private internet users   | IRPUD                                 |                            | data may only be used for the project and not incooperated in a public database  |
| BSI3b the share of business internet users  | IRPUD                                 |                            | data may only be used for the project and not incooperated in a public database  |
| BSI4a the density of motorways  | IRPUD                                 |                            | data may only be used for the project and not incooperated in a public database  |
| BSI4b the density of trunk roads ,  | IRPUD                                 |                            | data may only be used for the project and not incooperated in a public database  |
| BSI4c the per head provision of trunk roads   | IRPUD                                 |                            | data may only be used for the project and not incooperated in a public database  |
| BSI5 the density of railways  | IRPUD                                 |                            | data may only be used for the project and not incooperated in a  |

| Indicator   | Source                     | Source Table                         | Remarks  |
|---|----------------------------|--------------------------------------|--|
|   |                            |                                      | public database                                  |
| <b>G Institutional Capacity</b>                                   |                            |                                      |  |
| GDP   | Eurostat                   | reg_e3gdp, (Member State Data)       | year 2007; most recent year available per region |
| dispersion of GDP   | Eurostat                   | reg_e3gdp, (Member State Data)       | year 2007; most recent year available per region |
| dependency rate   | Eurostat                   | reg_d2jan, (Member State Data)       | year 2007; most recent year available per region |
| education   | Eurostat                   | reg_lfsd2pedu, (Labour Force Survey) | year 2007; most recent year available per region |
| managers with basic or full agricultural training                 | RDEU07                     | objective 4                          |  |
| life long learning in rural areas                                 | RDEU07                     | objective 35                         |  |
| educational attainment  | RDEU07                     | contest 22                           |  |
| public expenditure  | European Election Database | national data single tables          |  |
| administrative structure  | European Election Database | national data html pages             |  |
| information on national elections                                 | European Election Database |                                      | not yet implemented but in principle available   |
| <b>I Farm Structural Change</b>                                   |                            |                                      |  |
| % of holdings > x ESU   | Eurostat                   | ef_r_nuts, (Farm Structure Survey)   | year 2007; most recent year available per region |
| % change in number of holdings > x ESU over the past five years   | Eurostat                   | ef_r_nuts, (Farm Structure Survey)   | year 2007; most recent year available per region |
| % holders who are full time                                       | Eurostat                   | ef_r_nuts, (Farm Structure Survey)   | year 2007; most recent year available per region |
| % change in numbers of full time holders over the past five years | Eurostat                   | ef_r_nuts, (Farm Structure Survey)   | year 2007; most recent year available per region |
| AWU per ESU (SGM)   | Eurostat                   | ef_r_nuts, (Farm Structure Survey)   | year 2007; most recent year available per region |
| holders total   | Eurostat                   | ef_r_nuts, (Farm Structure Survey)   | year 2007; most recent year available per region |
| holders > 55 years  | Eurostat                   | ef_r_nuts, (Farm Structure Survey)   | year 2007; most recent year available per region |
| holders < 35 years  | Eurostat                   | ef_r_nuts, (Farm Structure Survey)   | year 2007; most recent year available per region |
| change in holders > 55 years over the past five years             | Eurostat                   | ef_r_nuts, (Farm Structure Survey)   | year 2007; most recent year available per region |
| change in holders < 35 years over the past five years             | Eurostat                   | ef_r_nuts, (Farm Structure Survey)   | year 2007; most recent year available per region |
| managers with basic or full agricultural training                 | RDEU07                     | objective 4                          |  |
| % of holdings with an OGA   | RDEU07                     | objective 27                         |  |

## Appendix 4: Revised Overview of Detailed Deliverables and Outputs

**Table A4.1: Planned Outputs by task, showing links to Formal Reports**

| Activity   | Output(s)  | Responsible Partners  | Date of Delivery to Lead Partner (Indicative)   | Formal ESPON Reporting Link   |
|--|--|---|---|---|
| <b>2.11 Review of Current Situation and Trends</b>                                     | 9 Thematic Working Papers ( <b>WP1-9</b> )   | <b>NORD</b> , IOM, LJUB, UHI, GLOUCS, PATRAS, HIA, SAC, UVAL, DORT, HAS, PAS, vTI                 | <b>19/01/09</b> - First Draft (esp. Sections 2 and 3)<br>30/06/09 Final versions  | Summary of preliminary conclusions in IR, updated in DFR and FR. Full text of WP an annex to DFR.                   |
| <b>2.12 Synthesis of findings relating to D.O.C. – Description of Grand Narratives</b> | Working paper ( <b>WP10</b> )  | <b>NEWCL</b> , UVAL<br>PAS, TEAGASC   | <b>31/03/09</b> First Draft<br><b>30/06/09</b> Final version taking account of Expert Group (EG) comments                             | First Draft will form a section of IR. Final version will form section of DFR and FR                                |
| <b>2.13/2.24 Narratives of Exemplar Regions</b>  | 10 Working Papers ( <b>WP 11-20</b> )  | <b>NEWCL</b> ,<br>NORD, UVAL,<br>LJUB, DORT,<br>PAS   | <b>31/03/09</b> First Draft<br><b>31/07/09</b> Final version taking account of comments   | Summary of findings in IR, updated in DFR and FR. Full text of WP an annex to DFR and FR.                           |
| <b>2.21 EDORA Indicators Database (also 2.26)</b>                                      | Database in format required by ESPON Database Project. Metadata Manual ( <b>WP 21</b> )  | <b>vTI</b> , PAS,<br>NORD   | Interim version of DB and Metadata Manual <b>31/06/09</b> .<br>Final version <b>29/01/10</b> .  | Summary of progress will be a section in the IR, DFR and FR. Meta data manual will form an annex to the DFR and FR. |
| <b>2.22 Elaboration of Typology</b>  | Working paper ( <b>WP 22</b> )   | <b>UHI</b> , UVAL   | <b>31/03/09</b> First Draft<br><b>31/07/09</b> Final version taking account of comments   | First Draft will form a section of IR. Final version will form section of DFR and FR                                |
| <b>2.23 Country Profiles</b>   | Individual MS will contribute sections to a single working paper ( <b>WP 23</b> ).   | <b>UVAL</b> , UHI,<br>NORD, NEWCL,<br>PATRAS,<br>TEAGASC,<br>LJUB, vTI,<br>BABF, PAS,<br>HAS, HIA | <b>31/03/09</b> First Draft<br><b>31/07/09</b> Final version taking account of comments   | Summary will form a section of IR and DFR. Full WP will form an annex to DFR and FR.                                |
| <b>2.25 Future Perspectives</b>  | Detailed proposal for methodology will form the first part of working paper ( <b>WP 24</b> ), findings will be added in the final version. | <b>TEAGASC</b> ,<br>NEWCL, PAS  | <b>31/03/09</b> First section of WP,<br><b>30/09/09</b> draft full WP,<br><b>29/01/10</b> , final version, taking account of comments | WP24 will form an annex to the DFR and FR.  |
| <b>2.31 Establishing Potential for U-R Cooperation</b>                                 | Working paper ( <b>WP 25</b> )   | <b>GLOUCS</b> ,<br>PATRAS   | <b>31/03/10</b> draft version of WP25, <b>30/06/10</b> , Final version of WP25, taking account of EG comments.                        | WP25 will form a section of the DFR, and the FR   |
| <b>2.32 Implications for Orientation of Cohesion Policy</b>                            | Working paper ( <b>WP 26</b> )   | <b>BABF</b> , UHI,<br>NORD, NEWCL   | <b>31/03/10</b> draft version of WP26, <b>30/06/10</b> , Final version of WP26, taking account of EG comments.                        | WP26 will form a section of the DFR, and the FR   |

Note: Changes since the Inception Report version highlighted by blue text and yellow background.

## **Appendix 5: Draft Structure of the EDORA Draft Final Report**

### Executive Summary

- 1 Introduction
- 2 The EDORA Conceptual Framework.
- 3 Drivers, Opportunities and Constraints
- 4 Grand Narratives underlying Rural Change
- 5 Macro Scale Patterns of Rural Differentiation
- 6 A New Regional Typology of Rural Development Environments
- 7 Future Perspectives
- 8 Policy Implications
- 9 Key indicators and maps from the EDORA Database
- 10 Conclusions
- 11 Plan of Research Activity during 2010
- 12 References
- 13 Appendices