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OVERVIEW OF METROPOLITAN GOVERNANCE

PAPER FOR THE PARLIAMENTARY COMMITTEE ON STATE BUILDING, REGIONAL POLICY AND LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT, UKRAINE

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1. Introduction

This report provides an overview of issues and challenges for metropolitan governance, drawing primarily on research about and illustrations from European metropolitan areas. **It accepts that a key challenge for metropolitan governance is to provide effective coordination across municipal bodies to improve growth and well-being of the city** (OECD, 2015a, b). These are addressed through legal, institutional, management and cooperation arrangements. Whilst referring to this as a 'municipal cooperation' issue, it is acknowledged that, as in Ukraine, these challenges may be replicated by regional level state and city governance relationships.

It is also acknowledged that urbanisation processes have been diverging between Central/Eastern and Western Europe (Dijkstra et al., 2013). Eastwards, urbanisation continues to intensify, whilst in Western Europe it is maturing. For Central/Eastern European countries this creates distinctive issues. First, pressures from the continuing movement to and concentration of populations in metropolitan areas. Second, the relative over-concentration of economic activity in capital cities and a few other large urban centres, in relation to the rest of the country. Third, the growing gap between the most affluent and the poorest citizens, with the latter often living in pre-fabricated social housing schemes built in Soviet times (Altrock et al, 2006).

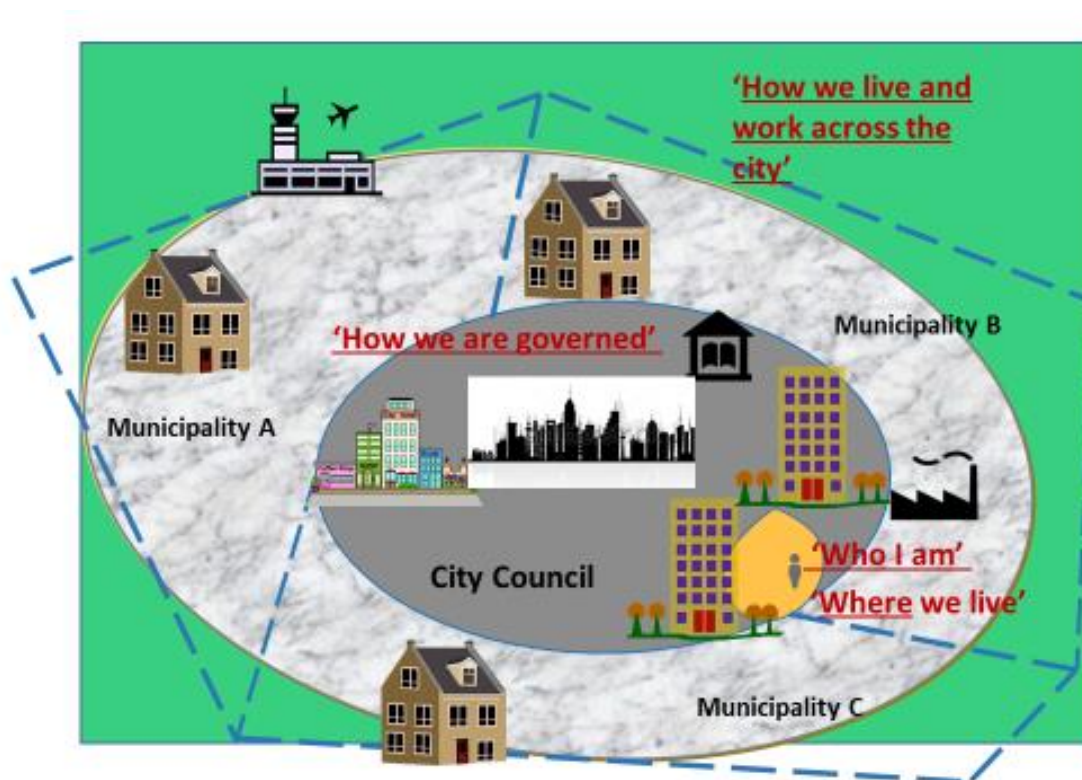
The paper is organised as follows. The next section sets out the challenge for metropolitan governance; to coordinate between different spatial and governance levels of the city. The second, describes possible structures for the legal, institutional and coordination arrangements for metropolitan governance. The third, summarises some evidence on why effective arrangements for the governance of metropolitan areas matters. The final section considers success factors in metropolitan governance.

2. The challenges of Metropolitan Governance

As illustrated in Figures 1, challenges of metropolitan governance operate through different spatial levels to encompass the whole urban area, based on common patterns in European cities. From bottom-up, this starts with the many neighbourhoods where people live across the city ('where we live'). 'Where we live' is the level at which many personal local government services are delivered. It also highlights the challenge of inequality in the city, which is frequently localised in city neighbourhoods. Inequality of incomes, employment, health and even life expectancy may be as wide within a single metropolitan area, as it is across the different regions of a country.

At the next level are the local municipalities, represented by 'how we are governed'. Administrative boundaries may have been fixed at a time when the city was physically much smaller than it is today. With migration into and physical expansion outwards, it is possible that the City Council of today only directly governs what was historically the older city. But 'how we are governed' is important, because it offers insights into the city's civic, social and historical identity. It is also about how local government or local state run services are organised, which may not fit well with the physical reality of the city as it is today.

Figure 1 – The spatial levels of a metropolitan city, based on common European patterns (Hildreth, 2007, 2015; Hildreth and Bailey, 2014)



| Spatial levels of the city | What they are |
|---|--|
| A. 'Who I am' | The personal characteristics (e.g. sex, age, education, skills, employment) that shape individual citizen's needs and aspirations in the city. |
| B. 'Where we live' | A neighbourhood, an identifiable part of the city that people associate by where they live. |
| C. 'How we are governed' (Municipalities) | Defined by the area administered by each individual municipality. It is important, as it is usually associated with the civic and historical identity of the locality. It is also the local level at which many local government services are delivered. However, 'how we are governed' very rarely fits with how the city economy operates in practice. |
| D. 'How we live and work' (Metropolitan area) | The wider metropolitan area, and possibly beyond the physical footprint of the city, more appropriately reflects the way in which people live their lives and how the city economy operates in practice. It is a dynamic concept of the city expressed by the connections and flows from home to work, home to shop, home to home in housing moves, home to cultural entertainment, as well as business people relate to their customers and suppliers. Spatially, this may operate as a: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Monocentric conurbation – being based around one centre. • Polycentric conurbation – operating around more than one centre. |

Next, the metropolitan area, symbolised by 'how we live and work', is reflected in the wider urban footprint of the city and possibly even beyond to surrounding towns, villages and countryside. It illustrates how the city has spread outwards to encompass areas of neighbouring municipalities. Villages that were formerly surrounded by open countryside become enveloped into the urban fabric. 'How we live and work' is also an indication of how people live their daily lives moving across the city; for work, shopping, housing, education and culture. It is also a

reflection of the city's economy, its transportation systems, urban planning and its environmental footprint; all of which require a strategic response across this wider spatial metropolitan level.

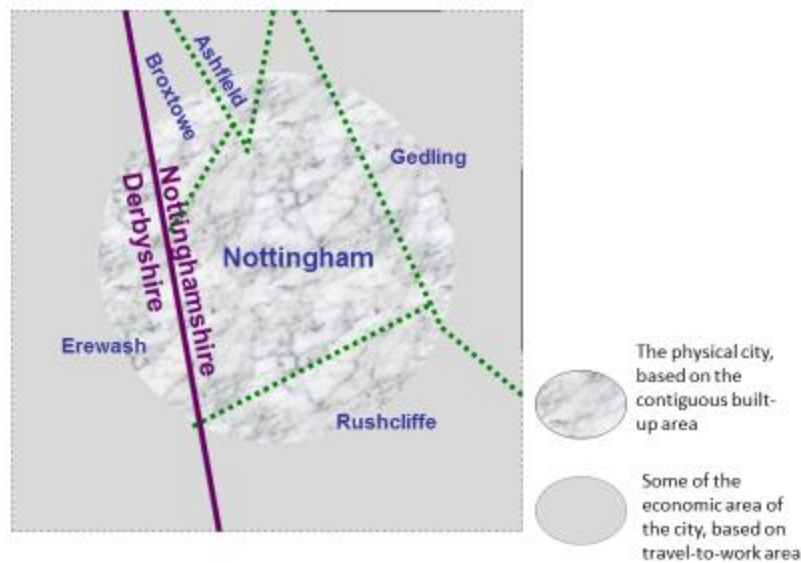
Therefore, governing the metropolitan area involves addressing many different challenges that operate at different spatial and governance levels:

- Municipality - The service needs of individuals in neighbourhoods (e.g. personal and operational services from social care, education to waste collection).
- Metropolitan area - Coordinating the strategic development of the whole metropolitan area (spatial planning, transportation, infrastructure investment, strategic waste management, economic and sustainable development).
- Supporting national and regional policy aims for promoting economic growth and sustainable development.

To do this effectively requires:

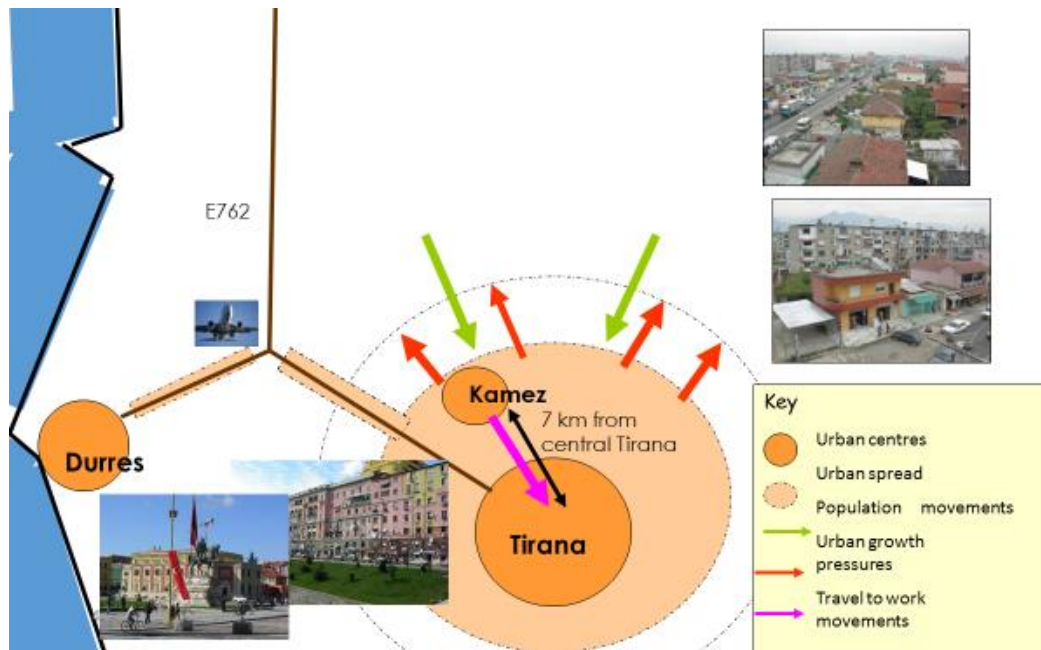
- 'Working across boundaries' – to achieve collaboration between neighbouring local authorities within the metropolitan area and with state and regional institutions.
- 'Working across sectors' – to work effectively across the public, private and 3rd sectors.
- 'Working across communities' – to work inclusively with the communities, neighbourhoods and stakeholders that collectively make up the city.

Figure 2 – City of Nottingham, UK – a classic case of under-bounding



An effective response involves operating in tandem with the geography, historical and civic evolution of the metropolitan city. In some cases, a city may be under-bounded. Figure 2 gives the example of Nottingham, UK. This is a classic example of an under-bounded city, where the metropolitan area includes the City Council and seven other municipalities, posing significant challenges for strategic collaboration across the city. In other cases, physical development may have incorporated previously separate towns or villages into the contiguous urban area. Figure 3 gives the example of Tirana, one of the fastest growing cities in Europe. Kamez was once just a village outside the city, but has now been absorbed into the spreading urban area.

Figure 3 – How growing Tirana has absorbed Kamez within its urban footprint



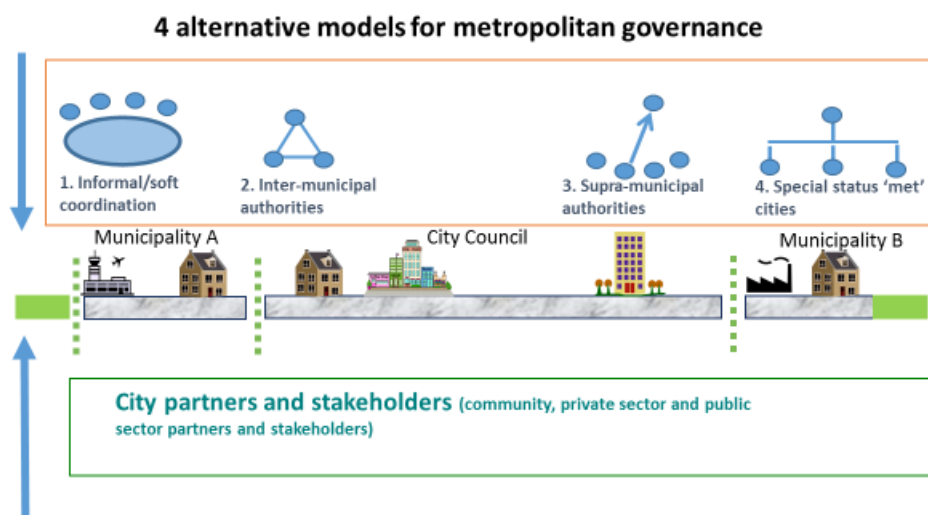
In addition, the resulting metropolitan area conurbation may be monocentric or polycentric. Each will pose different political and policy challenges for managing different identities and aspirations of people and places across the wider metropolitan area.

These different challenges can be addressed. But they require careful design of both the formal governance of the metropolitan area and the more informal arrangements set in place to enable citizen participation in decision making in the city (Council of Europe, 2012, 2013). The next section considers options to organise the formal governance of the metropolitan area.

3. Formal structures for collaboration across the metropolitan area

More than two-thirds of OECD metropolitan areas have established a specific body to coordinate responsibilities across the public authorities/municipalities that form the metropolitan area. In 2014 the OECD reported a survey that was conducted across 263 metropolitan areas in 21 countries of least 500,000 inhabitants (average below 2 million and median slightly above 1 million) (Ahrend et al, 2014). This was to identify what solutions had been employed by metropolitan areas to govern themselves. The published study based on this survey 'Governing the City' (OECD, 2015) identified four broad categories of metropolitan governance bodies in OECD metropolitan areas (see Figure 4). In practice, the larger the metropolitan area, the more likely the arrangements were to be more formal. In terms of finance, there are many different funding mechanisms and the OECD research indicates variety and complexity of solutions. However, the OECD report concludes that intra-municipal authorities and dedicated metropolitan cities are more likely to be better funded than informal coordination mechanisms and the creation of supra-municipal authorities.

Figure 4 – Four broad categories of metropolitan governance arrangements across OECD countries.



In summary, drawing on the OECD (2015) research, the four different models with examples are described as follows. It should be noted that examples are largely from Western Europe, where there are more illustrations to draw upon. For example, an OECD review of urban policy in Poland in 2011 (OECD, 2011) concluded that at that stage the country lacked a coherent national urban policy.

a) Informal/self-coordination

| | |
|----------------------------|---|
| Introduction | Informal collaborative arrangements were most frequent, in 52 per cent of cases. They are often found in instances of polycentric urban development. |
| Legal basis | Subject only to local agreement between participating municipalities and other local partners. |
| Institutional arrangements | Informal arrangements that are relatively easy to set up and undo. |
| Cooperation mechanisms | Set up only to provide consultation and share information. Usually lack means for enforcement and provide no direct relations with citizens or with other levels of government. |
| Service delivery | None likely. |
| Examples | <p><u>Delta Metropool (Netherlands)</u> See: http://www.deltametropool.nl/nl/index</p> <p>Created in 2000 by four municipalities (Amsterdam, The Hague, Rotterdam and Uterich) with Chambers of Commerce and other partners. Created as an informal platform to rethink the polycentric metropolitan area around planning, housing and transport issues.</p> <p><u>Bristol (UK)</u> See: http://bristolgreencapital.org/</p> <p>With the support of the City Council, community led bottom-up initiative working across the metropolitan area to promote sustainable development. Metropolitan area successes in transport, health, waste, water and energy. Achievements led Bristol to chosen to be European Green Capital, 2015.</p> |

b) Inter-municipal authorities

| | |
|---------------|--|
| Introduction | May be set up for the purpose to address a single issue e.g. spatial planning, transportation, infrastructure investment, but there are examples of more broader collaboration. Found in 24 per cent of cases. |
| Legal basis | Likely to have a formal legal basis. At least, will involve Central Government agreement or likely to be legislation. |
| Institutional | Institutional agreement to share responsibilities and costs across the participating |

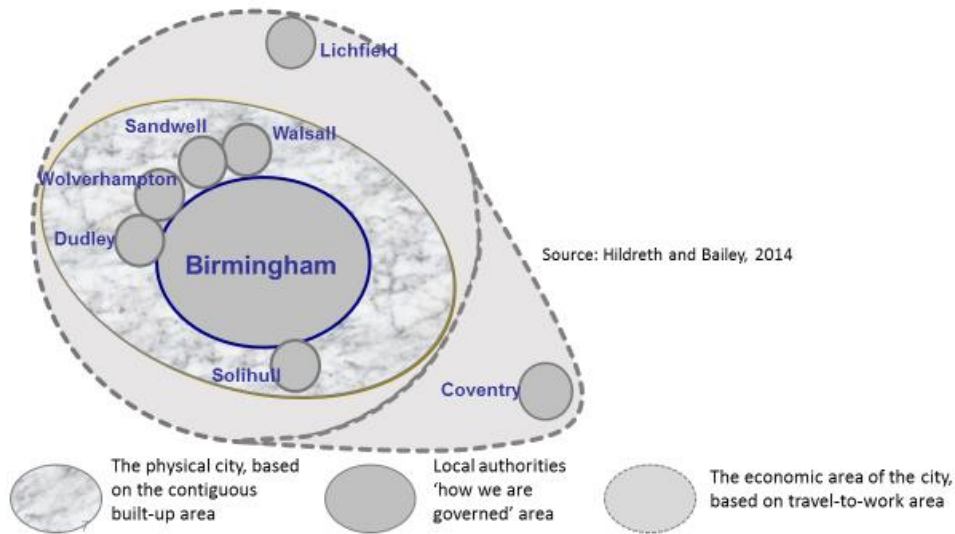
| | |
|------------------------|---|
| arrangements | municipalities. May involve other tiers of government and sectoral organisations (e.g. business sector). |
| Cooperation mechanisms | Creation of a joint body to manage cooperation and share decision making and responsibilities. Accountable to member authorities. |
| Service delivery | Likely to have defined strategic planning responsibly for a single or range of services, the most common being economic development, land-use planning, waste management and transportation. |
| Examples | <u>Métropole d'Aix-Marseille-Provence (France)</u> See: http://www.marseille-provence.fr/ |
| | A new inter-municipal authority operational from 1 January 2016, encompassing the six previous inter-municipalities in three existing <i>départements</i> (Bouches-du-Rhône, Var and Vaucluse), amounting to about 1.8 million people across 93 municipalities. It has competences regarding economic development, transportation, waste management and urban development. |
| | <u>Metropol Ruhr (Regional Association Ruhr) (Germany)</u> http://www.metropolruhr.de/en/start/ |
| | Is responsible, on behalf of the independent municipalities of the Ruhr Region, for Regional Spatial Planning for the metropolitan area. It also sponsors significant infrastructure projects that contribute to improving the life of this polycentric metropolitan area. |
| | <u>West Midlands Metropolitan Area (UK) (See figure 5)</u> https://westmidlandscombinedauthority.org.uk/ |
| | The urban area has, with encouragement from the UK government, been working slowly towards creating a metropolitan governance structure. It has been a difficult process to build trust. Although the towns and cities in the area have common interests, there are also rivalries going back to the 18 th Century industrial revolution. A Combined Authority was eventually formed in 2016 to collaborate on strategic transport, economic development and regeneration. In May 2017, the West Midlands will for the first time have a directly elected Mayor. |

c) Supra-municipal authorities

| | |
|----------------------------|--|
| Introduction | Situation where an additional layer of government is created above existing municipalities. Found in 16% of cases. |
| Legal basis | A new formal layer of local (metropolitan) government, established by Central Government statute. |
| Institutional arrangements | A new local government body given defined powers and responsibilities, usually of a strategic nature. May have a directly elected Mayor and assembly or a non-elected metropolitan tier. |
| Cooperation mechanisms | Cooperation reinforced by different roles and responsibilities of new upper tier and existing lower tier authorities. |
| Service delivery | Given specific roles and responsibilities usually relating to strategic planning issues (e.g. urban-planning, transportation, economic development, waste management). |
| Examples | <u>Greater London Authority and Mayor (UK)</u> https://www.london.gov.uk/ |
| | Founded in 2000, the Greater London Authority is the top tier administrative body for London. It consists of a directly elected Mayor and an elected Assembly. It has strategic powers over transport, policing, economic development and fire and emergency planning for London. It works in close cooperation with the 33 London municipalities. |
| | <u>Verband Regio Stuttgart (Germany)</u> https://www.region-stuttgart.org/andere-laender/english/ |
| | The political entity that represents the Stuttgart metropolitan area. Delegates are elected every five years by the local population. Its role is to promote the sustainable |

development of the area. It has responsibilities for regional policy, transportation, spatial policy, economic development and strategic waste management,

Figure 5 – West Midlands metropolitan area – a long journey of building trust and collaboration (see case study above)



d) Special status 'metropolitan cities'

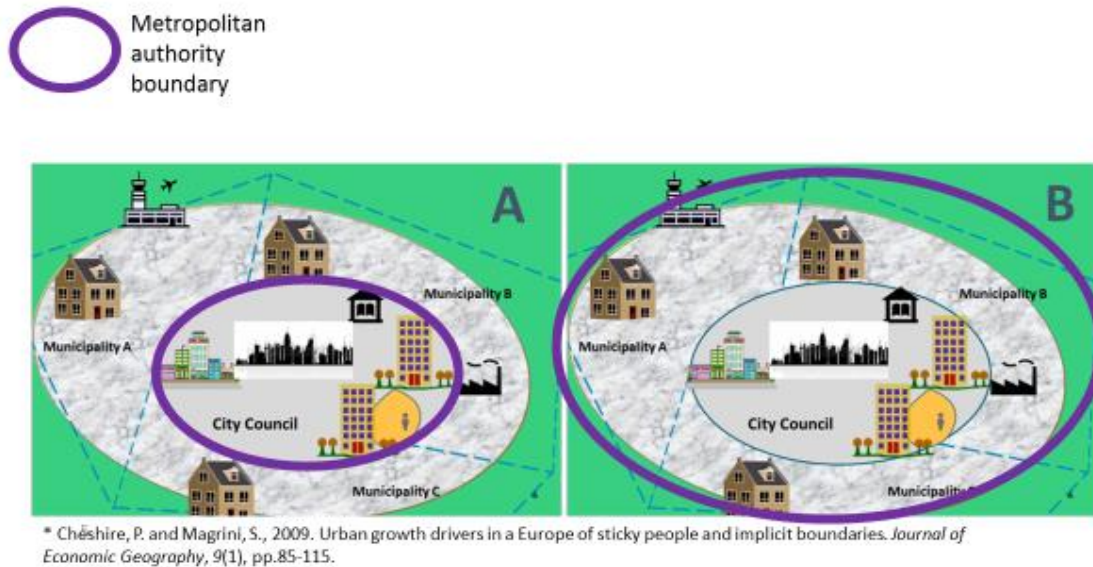
| | |
|----------------------------|---|
| Introduction | Where a city within a wider metropolitan area is upgraded to be given a 'special status' in relation to other municipalities in the metropolitan area. Not aware of a Western, Central or Eastern European example. Found in 8 per cent of cases. |
| Legal basis | Likely to be provided special status by central government. |
| Institutional arrangements | 'Special status' municipality is put on a higher footing with broader competencies than the other municipalities in the area. |
| Cooperation mechanisms | Collaboration between municipalities, but with 'special status' authority given authority. |
| Service delivery | 'Special status' authority with coordination responsibility. |
| Example | Daejeon (Korea) Daejeon, Korea, split from the Province of South Chungcheong in 1989, was upgraded to a metropolitan city in 1995 and hosts a central government complex since 2997. |

4. Why effective governance of metropolitan areas matters

There is evidence that effective metropolitan governance matters both to the metropolitan area and its citizens, and for the nation state. First, there is evidence that devolving responsibilities and investing in metropolitan areas beyond the capital city benefits the national economy. And yet, across Europe, there has been a tendency for national governments to prioritise investment in capital cities over 2nd and 3rd tier metropolitan areas (Parkinson et al, 2015).

Second, there is recent evidence that at a regional (metropolitan area) level, the quality of institutions is more important than geography, as a fundamental driver of economic performance across the European Union (EU) (Ketterer and Rodríguez-Pose, 2016). For institutional quality, low corruption and government accountability and effectiveness were particularly important factors.

Figure 6 – Scale of metropolitan governance matters



Third, Cheshire and Magrini (2009) demonstrated that the scale of governance arrangements of a metropolitan area matters for economic performance. The best outcome would be for the governance arrangements to reflect the economically self-contained city-region, as indicated by B rather than A in Figure 6. The reason for this is due to benefits from public administration efficiency, the avoidance of waste and the provision of effective coordination.

5. Success factors in metropolitan governance

As this report suggests, there is no simple or off-the-shelf solution to the design of effective metropolitan governance. Above all, any approach needs to be designed in geographical, historical and civic context, to ensure its legitimacy, appropriateness and ownership. Three factors need especially to be considered (OECD, 2015):

- a) The nature of the challenge to co-ordinate policies both horizontally between municipalities and across policy areas, and vertically with the state and regional institutions.
- b) As described in 3a-d above, whether a stronger or weaker institutional framework is required in terms of powers, financing structure, budgets and staff.
- c) The importance of being perceived as legitimate and to generate trust among citizens and non-governmental organisations, the private sector and other tiers of government.

To address these points, the following factors will aid the design and implementation of effective metropolitan governance (OECD, 2015):

- a) *Motivate collaboration by identifying concrete metropolitan projects* – It is better to build on agreement that there is both a need and an opportunity to focus on the economic, social and political context of the area. This can be progressed by focusing on tangible projects and initiatives to rally support and establish a ‘bigger picture’ for the area.
- b) *Build metropolitan ownership among key stakeholders* – Metropolitan governance reforms need strong advocates and leadership. This is both politically within the metropolitan area and from other stakeholders such as the private sector, NGOs, universities and central government. Ownership needs to be built both top-down and bottom-up.

- c) *Tailor reliable sources of metropolitan financing* – Consideration is needed of how metropolitan governance arrangements will be funded. Any structures and responsibilities need to be appropriate to the funding and staffing resources likely to be available.
- d) *Design incentives and compensations for metropolitan compromise* – Working across boundaries (see page 2) is challenging. Co-operation between municipalities and other stakeholders operates best on a voluntary basis where there is local commitment to succeed combined with encouragement incentives from the state. There also needs to be consideration of how best to encourage those who might feel threatened to engage in any reform.
- e) *Implement a long-term process of metropolitan monitoring and evaluation* – Building effective metropolitan governance, even when it is informal and voluntary, takes a long-time. It is helpful to underpin the progress with appropriate independent research to provide monitoring, evaluation and a supporting evidence base.
- f) *Any initiative towards metropolitan governance needs to be addressed as part of a wider multi-level-governance approach towards reform* – The state is a critical partner in the evolution of metropolitan governance. Reform is stronger where it is part of a national approach towards building better institutions and a stronger and more sustainable economy.

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APPENDIX (1)

- (1) This Appendix was prepared internally by the Council of Europe in order to accompany the “Overview on metropolitan governance” prepared with the help of Mr Paul Hildreth, consultant. Its aim is to further explain the results of the OECD work in the field of metropolitan governance, part of which is mentioned in the overview. As such, this Appendix is a non-exhaustive compilation of past work and does not include policy recommendations. The CoE does not assume responsibility for the accuracy of the findings included.

METROPOLITAN GOVERNANCE MODELS

THIS SUMMARY IS BASED ON OECD REPORTS AND STUDIES:

OECD (2015), *The Metropolitan Century: Understanding Urbanisation and its Consequences*, OECD Publishing, Paris.

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264228733-en>

OECD (2013), *OECD Regions at a Glance 2013*: OECD Publishing. http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/reg_glance-2013-en

OCDE (2014) *VERS UNE CROISSANCE PLUS INCLUSIVE DE LA METROPOLE AIX-MARSEILLE : UNE PERSPECTIVE INTERNATIONALE*

OECD (2016), *OECD TERRITORIAL REVIEWS: THE METROPOLITAN REGION OF ROTTERDAM-THE HAGUE, NETHERLANDS*, OECD PUBLISHING, PARIS. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264249387-en>

OECD (2015), *Governing the City*, OECD Publishing. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264226500-en>

OECD (2017), *MULTI-LEVEL GOVERNANCE REFORMS: OVERVIEW OF OECD COUNTRY EXPERIENCES*

Ahrend, R., C. Gamper and A. Schumann (2014), “The OECD Metropolitan Governance Survey: A Quantitative Description of Governance Structures in large Urban Agglomerations”, OECD Regional Development Working Papers, 2014/04, OECD Publishing, Paris. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/5jz43zldh08p-en>

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Cities are key contributors to national socio-economic performance and are motors of growth. Across OECD countries, metropolitan areas (urban agglomerations with more than 500 000 inhabitants) cover only 4% of the land, but account for roughly half of the population and close to 55% of gross domestic product (GDP)¹; and roughly two-thirds lives in urban agglomerations with more than 50 000 inhabitants.

SOME CORRELATIONS/FINDINGS

The metropolitan areas that have a governance body have a per capita GDP that is on average 7% higher than that of metropolitan areas without governance body.

Metropolitan areas that have governance bodies are approximately one third larger (and have also been growing (population growth) faster between 2000 and 2010) than those that do not.

The existence of a separate public transport authority is positively correlated to desirable outcomes: air pollution is significantly lower in metropolitan areas with transport authorities; the share of satisfied citizens is 13% higher.

METROPOLITAN GOVERNANCE TYPOLOGY (BODIES, ITS MODALITIES AND COMPOSITION)

OECD defines metropolitan areas as functional urban area of at least 500 000 inhabitants. The functional area is an urban agglomeration with a continuously built-up urban core and surrounding areas. The limits of the functional area are determined by the share of the inhabitants that commute from surrounding areas into the urban core. Although urbanization differs from country to country, it is shaped by similar trends all over the world.

- **Megacities** (a total population exceeds 10 million)
- **Metropolitan areas** (at least 500 000 inhabitants)
- **Small and medium-size urban agglomerations** (50 000 – 500 000 inhabitants)
-

OECD in its report (OECD, 2015) suggested four broad typologies of metropolitan governance² (from the “lightest” to the most “stringent” in institutional terms):

- **informal/soft co-ordination.** Often found in instances of polycentric urban development, lightly institutionalised platforms for information sharing and consultation are relatively easy both to implement and to undo. They typically lack enforcement tools and their relationship with citizens and other levels of government tends to remain minimal.
- **inter-municipal authorities.** When established for a single purpose, such authorities aim at sharing costs and responsibilities across member municipalities – sometimes with the participation of other levels of government and sectoral organisations. Multi-purpose authorities embrace a defined range of key policies for urban development such as land use, transport and infrastructure.
- **supra-municipal authorities;** An additional layer above municipalities can be introduced either by creating a directly elected metropolitan government or with the upper governments setting down a non-elected metropolitan structure. The extent of municipal involvement and financial capacity often determine the effectiveness of a supra-municipal authority.
- **and a special status of “metropolitan cities”.** Cities that exceed a legally defined population threshold can be upgraded into a special status as “metropolitan cities”, which puts them on the same footing as the next upper level of government and gives them broader competencies.

The proposed categories of the typology are not mutually exclusive: **two or more metropolitan arrangements sometimes coexist in the same country**, and occasionally within the same metropolitan area. For example, a metropolitan area may adopt one arrangement for a specific public service and another arrangement for other services. Some instances may also be hybrid in practice, combining the characteristics of two or more categories. Other cases can encompass rural-urban partnerships within metropolitan areas.

¹ OECD (2015), *The Metropolitan Century: Understanding Urbanisation and its Consequences*, OECD Publishing, Paris.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264228733-en>

² The OECD Metropolitan Governance Survey collected and analysed the governance structure of 263 OECD metropolitan areas over 500 000 inhabitants.

The “lightest” metropolitan governance arrangements tend to prevail over the most “stringent”. Among the metropolitan areas with a metropolitan governance body, **more than half are using informal/soft co-ordination arrangements**, whereas about **one-quarter have introduced inter-municipal joint authorities**. **Supra-municipal authorities account for 16%** of the cases, and **“metropolitan cities” are the rarest arrangement, with only 8%**. Unsurprisingly, a size factor is at play: the larger the population size of the metropolitan area, the more “stringent” its type of metropolitan governance arrangement.

Metropolitan governance bodies

The spectrum of organisations that are considered metropolitan governance bodies ranges from purely consultative ones to those that have extensive legal powers. Some types of governance bodies certainly reduce the degree of administrative polycentricity by centralising many powers within a single authority. Others, however, can increase administrative polycentricity by adding centres of decision making without substantially reducing the influence of others. In the above-mentioned OECD report, **178 out of 263 analysed metropolitan areas, i.e. 68%, have governance bodies**. 48 bodies (out of the 178) have the right to impose regulations, which equals a share of 27%.

Responsibilities of governance bodies depend on the institutional context of a metropolitan area and the country in which it is located. In many cases, the bodies have few formal powers and serve mostly as institutionalised forums to exchange information and to propose non-binding policy initiatives. However, going beyond these relatively basic approaches, a wide range of other arrangements exists with regard to institutionalised co-operation.

The most common next step towards further integration is a transfer of selected powers to the governance body. In some cases, these are very specific powers, such as the drafting of a particular land-use plan or narrow environmental regulations. In other cases, they are broader and may include many policy instruments or cover several policy fields. Sometimes, not only powers to regulate are transferred to governance bodies but also responsibilities for service provisions. Again, the scope varies from minor tasks, such as the provision of transport services for the elderly, to broad public services, such as waste disposal and the management of all public housing.

Most governance bodies have in common that they cannot be considered fully-fledged local governments because they are not a legal tier of the government of a country. Although they tend to be institutionalised through national laws (or state laws in the case of federal countries), they often emerged from the bottom up through local initiatives. When national governments imposed governance structures on metropolitan areas, this was generally done on a case-by-case basis and not as a systematic reform of local governance (exceptions are, for example, the city-regions in the Netherlands, which are scheduled to be abolished).

Over 80% of metropolitan governance bodies work on regional development, over 70% on transport and over 60% on spatial planning. More than half of the metropolitan governance bodies are active in all three fields. This is probably due to the fact that in these fields, the demand from residents for a metropolitan-wide approach is highest. Furthermore, the positive consequences of working together are most obvious in these reflected by the fact that more than half of all metropolitan areas also have dedicated transport authorities. These are also common in countries that have otherwise no tradition of sectoral authorities or special-purpose districts.

Governance bodies can be effective tools for co-ordination within metropolitan areas. Where they exist, outcomes along two important dimensions are better than in places where they do not exist. One of the most common fields of works for metropolitan governance bodies is land-use planning. As urban sprawl is often mentioned as one of the consequences of fragmented land-use planning, it is perhaps not surprising that metropolitan areas where governance bodies exist experienced a decline in sprawl between 2000 and 2006. In contrast, those metropolitan areas where no governance body exists experienced an increase in sprawl. At the same time, metropolitan areas with a governance bodies seem to be more attractive. Their average population growth rates were 0.28 percentage points higher between 2000 and 2010 than those of metropolitan areas without governance bodies.

Metropolitan areas without governance bodies have, on average, higher levels of air pollution, as measured by the amount of particulate matters in the air. Possibly, this is the result of more efficient transport policies in combination with better land-use planning, both of which are central fields of work for most governance bodies. The existence of metropolitan governance bodies might reduce problems related to administrative fragmentation.

Estimates show that where they exist, about half of the correlation between fragmentation and the loss of labour productivity disappears. This is an indication that they are effective in co-ordinating fragmented local governments. Several possible transmission channels can explain this positive effect. Synergies between different policy fields, and in particular related to spatial planning, can lead to a more efficient urban form over time. Furthermore, economies of scale in the provision of some public services imply that these can be more effectively provided at the metropolitan level. An organisation co-ordinating the provision of these services across a metropolitan area could also improve their quality or reduce their costs, which in turn should affect productivity positively.

COMPOSITION OF METROPOLITAN BODIES

Most commonly, bodies are made up of elected officials of the local governments whose territories they cover. These officials are either appointed to the body by the local governments or obtain a seat by the virtue of their office. The latter case is typical for mayors of municipalities.

- Elected officials from local governments sit on 55% of all governance bodies.
- In 7% of all cases, governance bodies include representatives of other interest groups or private citizens in addition to appointed officials.
- Ad-hoc public elections are held in 11% of cases.
- 13% of governance bodies have members that have been selected on other criteria. In those cases, representatives are typically appointed by national governments or higher levels of sub-national governments.
- 14% N/A.

BUDGETS AND STAFF

Most common are annual budgets of around 10 USD per capita (after controlling for purchasing power parity). The median annual per capita budget is 13.9 USD; while the highest budget is 3800 USD per capita.

The governance bodies can be grouped, at the two ends of the scale:

1. Budgets of less than 30 USD per capita. The bodies with low budgets tend to be voluntary associations of governments that work through coordination
2. Per capita budgets of more than 1000 USD. The bodies are either full local governments or inter-municipal associations with wide range of powers.

Large metropolitan areas are typically wealthier than smaller regions; but they also face major spending needs as they provide services to a larger concentration of people and firms. This generates fiscal pressure both horizontally within the metropolitan area (as the core city often must finance public infrastructure for commuting workers who actually pay taxes in the periphery) and vertically towards the central government and the rest of the country (when the national fiscal equalisation scheme requires metropolitan areas to contribute, whereas many of the latter rather request transfers to cope with metropolitan needs).

The extent to which metropolitan public finance can support growth goals depends on a number of factors linked with each country's fiscal framework: whether metropolitan areas' own and/or shared tax revenues are designed to encourage economic development rather than distorting the market and are sufficiently diversified to avoid volatility; whether intergovernmental grants promote both solidarity and proactive fiscal behaviour rather than over-reliance over transfers; whether user fees are used to address negative agglomeration externalities (through "smart taxes" such as congestion tax for example); and whether metropolitan areas are allowed to borrow in a responsible manner to carry out necessary large-scale investment.

Faced with such complex fiscal challenges, metropolitan areas often struggle to translate a sometimes painfully achieved consensus for general co-ordination into concrete fiscal modalities. Municipalities and even higher levels of government may concur on the need to set up a metropolitan co-ordination mechanism, but disagree on how to finance it. Therefore, even when a metropolitan governance body has been created with a clearly defined mandate for co-ordination, it may remain underfunded and/or understaffed.

This explains in part the dominance of the “softest” types of metropolitan governance bodies, which involve only minimal disruption in existing institutions and finance while kick-starting a flexible platform for inter-municipal dialogue. There are of course other likely causes, such as the reluctance of local officials to transfer power to another body, as well as local identity issues and lack of trust, in particular by citizens of smaller municipalities, in the fact that their interests will be protected by more central authorities, but their influence is more difficult to measure.

The modest financial endowment of informal metropolitan governance bodies is one of their most attractive but also debilitating features. In practice, informal/soft co-ordination bodies and supra-municipal authorities – albeit with large variation among them – typically have annual budgets of around USD 10 per capita or less (Figure 1.6). Inter-municipal authorities usually have budgets of intermediary size, in the order of a couple of USD 100 per capita. All three are dwarfed by the budgets of metropolitan cities, which usually have more far-ranging functions, such as economic development. Staff numbers roughly follow budgets, with somewhat greater variation.

FIELD WORK OF GOVERNANCE BODIES

Organisations responsible for metropolitan governance work on a wide range of topics. However, three fields of work are significantly more common than others:

- **Regional development with 81% of all governance bodies covering this field.** This can be through initiatives to support certain sectors, to attract specific companies or industries, to affect the structure of the labour market or to promote skills of the local population, as well as initiatives that aim at the regeneration of particular geographical areas.
- **78% of metropolitan governance bodies work on transportation.** The existence of organisations that focus on the provision of public transport for the entire metropolitan area is correlated to higher levels of public satisfaction with public transport provision and lower level of air pollution³.
- **Spatial planning with 67%.**

The combination of these three fields of work is especially common among European and North American governance bodies.

Other fields of work:

Waste disposal (35%), water provision (35%), culture and leisure (29%), tourism (26%), sewerage (26%), energy (15%).

Taking into account that the powers of governance bodies vary greatly, there are large differences in the actual influence on policies. In the case of spatial planning, for example, some governance bodies merely serve to inform member local governments of each other’s plans, whereas others exert centralised control over the entire planning process in a metropolitan area.

SECTORAL AUTHORITIES

Sectoral authorities and special-purpose associations can play important roles for metropolitan area governance. In contrast to governance bodies, sectoral authorities are organisations that have a narrow mandate that focuses on the provision of a particular service. They might focus on waste disposal, water provision or business promotion.

However, public transportation authorities and associations are by far the most common sectoral authorities and often also the ones with the highest budgets. **They exist in 56% of all metropolitan areas.** As it is with governance bodies, transport authorities are organised in very different forms. On the one end of spectrum, some organisations are only responsible for strategic public transportation planning and employ a low double-digit number of staff. On the other end of the spectrum, some organisations plan and operate the entire public transportation system of a metropolitan area themselves and employ several tens of thousands of employees.

³ OECD 2014. The OECD Metropolitan Governance Survey. OECD Regional Development Working Papers 2014/04.

An organisation is considered a **transport authority** if it focuses **exclusively on public transport in a metropolitan area and is responsible for its strategic planning, independently from whether or not it has the authority to make strategic decisions.** This feature distinguishes transport authorities **from public organisations or private companies that operate the public transport systems in metropolitan areas but have little influence on their general design.**

GOVERNANCE OF TRANSPORT AND SPATIAL PLANNING IN OECD CASE STUDY REGIONS

| | Case study metropolitan area | Governance of transport | Fare harmonisation | Governance of spatial planning |
|---------------------------------------|------------------------------|--|---------------------------------------|---|
| a) Informal/soft co-ordination | Athens-Attica (Greece) | The Athens Urban Transport Organisation (OASA) is the single co-ordinating authority for public transport planning | No fare harmonisation | Organisation for the Planning and Environmental Protection of Athens (ORSA), absorbed into the Ministry of Environment in 2014 |
| b) Inter-municipal authorities | Marseille (France) | Around ten transport authorities in the metropolitan area, including six inter-municipal transport authorities (<i>autorités organisatrices des transports</i> , AOT), one departmental public transport syndicate (<i>Syndicat Mixte des Transports en Commun</i> , SMTC), regional authorities in charge of regional railways | No fare harmonisation | Six inter-municipal authorities (<i>établissements publics de coopération intercommunale</i> , EPCI) |
| | Frankfurt (Germany) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – The <i>Rhein-Main Verkehrsverbund</i> (RMV, created in 1995) is the single authority over public transport in the larger area of Frankfurt that covers around 5 million inhabitants. – The RMV brings together 3 levels of government: 11 municipalities, 15 districts (<i>Kreise</i>, the next upper level) and the <i>State of Hesse</i> | Fares have been harmonised since 1995 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Regional Assembly of South-Hesse (<i>Land</i>) – Administrative district (<i>Regierungsbezirk</i>), subdivision of the <i>Land</i> administration – Regional Board of the Frankfurt RheinMain <i>Regionalverband</i> (mandatory association of 75 municipalities) |
| | Chicago (United States) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – The Chicago Metropolitan Agency for Planning (CMAP) develops a comprehensive regional plan integrating transport and land use for seven counties. – The Regional Transportation Authority (RTA) co-ordinates the three public transport service boards (Chicago Transit Authority [CTA], Metra and Pace). | No fare harmonisation | Chicago Metropolitan Agency for Planning (CMAP) |
| c) Supra-municipal authorities | Puebla-Tlaxcala (Mexico) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – The Metropolitan Council is in charge of distributing funds from the federal Metropolitan Fund to strategic metropolitan projects, including transport – but the main criterion of eligibility is population size and the modest funds are distributed to small individual projects in municipalities in each of the two states. – The two states (Puebla and Tlaxcala) are in charge of roads and railways. – Public transport is provided by private operators which apply for a concession to the state government and operate low-capacity vehicles. | No fare harmonisation | Municipalities |
| d) “Metropolitan cities” | Daejeon (Korea) | The Daejeon metropolitan government (transport department) is in charge of transport planning for the entire metropolitan area. | No fare harmonisation | Daejeon metropolitan government |

CASES – METROPOLITAN AREAS

Overview of selected metropolitan governance models in OECD countries: Metropolitan Region of Rotterdam-The Hague (MRDH), Barcelona (Àrea Metropolitana de Barcelona, AMB), Montreal (Montreal Metropolitan Community), Vancouver (Metro Vancouver), Portland (Portland Metro), Stuttgart (Verband Region Stuttgart, VRS), London (Greater London Authority, GLA)

| Examples ⁴ | Metropolitan governance structure | Coverage of metropolitan governance structure | Competencies |
|---|---|---|--|
| Non-elected inter-municipal authorities | | | |
| Metropolitan Region of Rotterdam-The Hague (MRDH) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ General management of 27 members ➤ Executive Board of five members | 2.2 million people across 23 municipalities | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Transport ➤ Economic development |
| Barcelona (Àrea Metropolitana de Barcelona, AMB) | <p>Metropolitan Council composed of 90 members (the mayors from all 36 municipalities and city councillors appointed by their municipalities)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – President of AMB (Mayor of Barcelona) – 485 staff (as of 2014) | 3.2 million people across 36 municipalities | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Strategic planning ➤ Spatial planning ➤ Transport and mobility ➤ Water ➤ Waste treatment ➤ Social cohesion ➤ Economic development |
| Montreal (Montreal Metropolitan Community, MMC/Communauté métropolitaine de Montréal, CMM) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Community Council composed of 28 members (mayors and city councillors) ➤ President (Mayor of Montreal) | 4 million people across 82 municipalities | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Spatial planning ➤ Transport ➤ Economic development ➤ Social housing ➤ Metropolitan infrastructure and services ➤ Waste management planning ➤ Wastewater sanitation |
| Vancouver (Metro Vancouver) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Board composed of 38 members representing the 23 local authorities ➤ 1 500 staff | 2.5 million people across 23 local authorities (21 municipalities, 1 electoral area, 1 treaty First Nation) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Regional services, including three core utilities (water, liquid waste, solid waste) ➤ Regional planning (Regional Growth Strategy, RGS) |
| Elected metropolitan governments | | | |
| Portland (Portland Metro) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Metropolitan Council composed of six members (one in each district), directly elected every four years ➤ President of the Council, directly elected region wide every four years | 1.5 million people across 25 municipalities | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Land-use planning (e.g. urban growth boundary) ➤ Transport planning (as a Metropolitan Planning Organisation, MPO) ➤ Managing several park facilities ➤ Handling waste disposal ➤ Maintains landfills and recycling transfer stations ➤ Owning and operating some major facilities (e.g. zoo, convention centre, exposition centre) |
| Stuttgart (Verband Region Stuttgart, VRS) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Regional assembly of 93 members directly elected every 5 years by proportional vote ➤ President of the regional | 1.96 million encompassing the city of Stuttgart and 5 surrounding districts (total of 179 cities and | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Regional spatial planning ➤ Transport infrastructure and operation including suburban rail S-Bahn) |

⁴ OECD (2016), OECD Territorial Reviews: The Metropolitan Region of Rotterdam-The Hague, Netherlands, OECD Publishing, Paris.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264249387-en>

| | | | |
|---|--|---|---|
| | assembly and regional director, both elected by the members of the regional assembly | municipalities) | ➤ Regional economic and touristic development |
| London (Greater London Authority, GLA) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ London Assembly of 25 members directly elected by proportional representation ➤ Mayor of London directly elected every four years | 8.2 million across the city of London and 32 boroughs | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Land use (London Plan) ➤ Transport (Transport for London) ➤ Policing (Mayor's Office for Policing and Crime) ➤ Fire and rescue (London Fire and Emergency Planning Authority) ➤ Development (GLA Land and Property) |

THE METROPOLITAN REGION OF ROTTERDAM-THE HAGUE (MRDH)

MRDH is composed of 23 municipalities. It combines the competency for transport, transferred from the city-regions by the central governments (Both cities had a status of city-regions. In 2014, the Netherlands decided to abolish the eight compulsory metropolitan-level coordination mechanisms that had previously been established under the name of city-regions) and the competency for economic development, voluntarily delegated by member municipalities.

The case of MRDH demonstrates a voluntary, bottom-up approach of collaboration; political backing of not only two mayors of large cities but also 21 surrounding municipalities.

The mayors of Rotterdam and The Hague rotate every two years as the chair of the highest-decision making organ, **the general management** (*algemeen bestuur*), which meets four or five times a year.

The general management is composed of 27 people: from Rotterdam and The Hague respectively, the mayor, 1 alderman in charge of transport and 1 alderman in charge of economic development; and 1 representative from other 21 member municipalities. Decisions within the general management board require an absolute majority of votes, which Rotterdam and The Hague together do not have (Representatives in the general management have a varying number of votes, depending on the population size of the municipality they represent).

Member municipalities are also represented in two sorts of committees: i) for transport and economic development (23 alderman each appointed by the general management); ii) two advisory committees for transport and economic development respectively (composed of 46 municipal councillors (2 councillors per municipality), and other advisory committee on different subjects).

The mayors of Rotterdam and the Hague serve as the chair and the vice-chair of the Executive Board, which includes three representatives from other municipalities and prepares decisions for general management.

The budget of MRDH is divided into two parts along the thematic pillars of the organisation. The budget of the transport pillar is currently EUR 475 million per year – approximately 98% of this amount is provided through grants from the Ministry of Infrastructure and Environment, and remaining 2% are contributed through transfers from municipalities.

The economic development side of MRDH is funded by a voluntary contribution that member municipalities pay on a per capita basis. Each municipality contributes EUR 2.45 per inhabitant per year, which amounts to a total budget around EUR 5.5 million. On top of that the MRDH has also been able to secure funds from the European Commission (e.g. a grant of EUR 300 000).

The MRDH has around 100 permanent staff, also divided into the thematic pillars. The transport pillar is staffed by 80 employees (including technical and support staff), while the economic development pillar has 15 employees.

METROPOLITAN GOVERNANCE IN AMSTERDAM

The metropolitan area of Amsterdam is organised in two governance arrangements: a smaller scale partnership (16 municipalities) and a larger structure called Metropoolregio Amsterdam, or MRA (36 municipalities and 2 provinces).

Transport Authority Amsterdam region

The Transport Authority Amsterdam covers around 1.3 million people spread across 16 municipalities (including Amsterdam, by far the largest). It takes over the transport and traffic functions of the city-region (Stadsregio Amsterdam), which was abolished as of January 2015. The city-region used to set out its programme of work in the Regional Agenda 2010-2030, which included tasks such as developing a regional economic development strategy and a regional housing policy, improving regional accessibility, preserving the quality of the landscape and organising youth care.

Amsterdam Metropolitan Area

The Amsterdam Metropolitan Area (Metropoolregio Amsterdam, MRA) is an informal voluntary association of 36 municipalities (including the 16 municipalities covered by the above-mentioned transport authority) and 2 provinces (Noord-Holland and Flevoland). The MRA fosters co-operation in three main policy fields: transport, economic development and spatial planning. Each policy field has its own platform:

- Platform for the Accessibility of the Amsterdam Metropolitan Area (PBM): it meets on average six times a year and co-ordinates all activities related to traffic and transport projects.
- Platform for the Regional Economic Structure (PRES).
- Platform for Planning (PRO): it meets approximately four times a year. Special attention is paid to the issues of sustainability, metropolitan landscape and urbanisation.

COMPARING THE GREATER AMSTERDAM METROPOLITAN AREA AND THE METROPOLITAN REGION OF ROTTERDAM-THE HAGUE

| | METROPOLITAN REGION OF ROTTERDAM THE HAGUE (METROPOOLREGIO ROTTERDAM-DEN HAAG, MRDH) | AMSTERDAM METROPOLITAN AREA (METROPOOLREGIO AMSTERDAM, MRA) |
|--|--|---|
| Members | ➤ 23 municipalities | ➤ 36 municipalities (including the 16 municipalities that together form the Transport Authority below) ➤ 2 provinces (Noord-Holland and Flevoland) ➤ Transport Authority Amsterdam region (a partnership of 16 municipalities) |
| Population | 2.2 million | 2.4 million |
| Share of major cities in the total population | ➤ Municipality of Rotterdam: 616 295 inhabitants (27.9% of the MRDH population) ➤ Municipality of The Hague: 505 855 (22.9%) | ➤ Municipality of Amsterdam: 825 080 inhabitants (36% of the MRA population) ➤ Municipality of Almere: 196 290 inhabitants (8.5%) |
| History of governance (including previous/co-existing structures) | Previously two distinct city-regions: Rotterdam (Stadsregio Rotterdam) and The Hague (Haaglanden). Merged into a new metropolitan entity (Metropoolregio Rotterdam-Den Haag, MRDH), which came into operation in January 2015. | Regional Orgaan Amsterdam (ROA), created in 1986: initially formed of 23 municipalities (eventually reduced to 16), an inter-municipal body endowed with a council of 56 municipal representatives (including 21 for the municipality of Amsterdam) and its own statutory competencies. Prepared a <i>structuurvisie</i> report (<i>De grenzen verlegd</i>) in 1990, calling for a binding regional co-operation body in charge of housing, economic development, transport and environment. Was renamed "Stadsregio Amsterdam" (city-region) in 2006. As of January 2015, the city-region was abolished and replaced by the Transport Authority Amsterdam Region covering the 16 municipalities. The functions of housing and economic development will be transferred to another body, to be decided in 2016. |

Southwing Administrative Platform South Wing (Bestuurlijk Platform Zuidvleugel, BPZ) created in 1997 as a temporary network of administrators from different government tiers: the Province of Zuid-Holland (chairing the platform); five regional co-operation bodies including the city-regions of Rotterdam and The Hague; Holland Rijnland (the northern part of the province with Leiden as the largest city); the Drechtsteden (Dordrecht and surrounding municipalities); and Midden-Holland (Gouda and its environs); as well as the municipalities of Rotterdam and The Hague. Converted into permanent structure in 2000 and renamed South Wing Co-operation (Samenwerkingsverband Zuidvleugel) in 2011. Provides the organisational setting for the annual negotiations with the central government as part of the Multi-year Plan for Infrastructure, Spatial Planning and Transport (Meerjarenplan Infrastructuur, Ruimte en Transport, MIRT).

Regionale Samenwerking Amsterdam (RSA), created in 1998: a voluntary association covering a larger area than ROA, chaired by the mayor of Amsterdam and the then Queen's Commissioner, for informal project-based co-operation. Organised "Northwing conferences" (*Noorvleugelconferenties*), which provided regional deliberation arenas between municipalities, the Province of Noord-Holland and relevant ministries on key strategic investment issues. After the 7th Northwing conference (in 2007), there was a unanimous decision to rename the RSA the Metropoolregio Amsterdam (MRA).

South Wing Economic Programme Board (Economische Programmaraad Zuidvleugel, EPZ): triple helix form of co-operation created in 2014.

Amsterdam Economic Board (AEB): triple-helix co-operation network founded and chaired by the Mayor of Amsterdam, with the participation of the Noord-Holland Province, the private sector, knowledge institutions. The AEB plays a strong advisory role to the MRA.

Competencies The MRDH has two pillars:

- Transport
- Economic development

The MRA has three pillars, which are organised differently from each other:

- Transport: in 2014, the municipalities of Stadsregio Amsterdam signed an agreement with two other municipalities (Almere and Lelystad) and the two provinces (Noord-Holland and Flevoland) to co-operate on transport and traffic issues in 2015 and 2016.
- Economic development: this pillar works alongside the AEB.
- Spatial planning: project-based network with different levels (aldermen, directors, technical secretariat). Deals with a variety of issues including sustainability, housing, metropolitan landscape, etc.

AIX-MARSEILLE

A long history of competition between Aix and Marseille

The history of competition between Aix and Marseille dates back to more than centuries, even millenniums according to some researchers. Tremendous economic, social and cultural differences prevail between the two cities, even though they are located only 25 kilometres from each other. While Marseille has thrived as a major port and trade city, much smaller Aix has traditionally been the city of politics, justice and universities. Marseille concentrates massive challenges related to unemployment, poverty and insecurity, whereas Aix continues to create jobs. Aix and Marseille are part of a wider area scarred by administrative fragmentation, not only between the two of them, but also between their respective inter-municipal collaboration bodies (Aix belongs to the "communauté d'agglomération du Pays d'Aix-en-Provence", while Marseille is a member of the "communauté urbaine Marseille Provence Métropole").

The key role of the national government

The French government has played a powerful role in reforming metropolitan governance in the area by adopting two successive laws. First, the law of 16 December 2010 introduced the possibility to create *métropoles*

(metropolitan areas for areas of over 500 000 inhabitants) and *pôles métropolitains* (metropolitan poles with over 300 000 inhabitants). In Marseille, this law facilitated the organisation of *conférences métropolitaines* (“metropolitan conferences”). Second, the law of 27 January 2014 on the modernisation of territorial public action and affirmation of *métropoles* (*Loi de modernisation de l’action publique territoriale et d’affirmation des métropoles*, often called the MAPTAM law) enhanced the governance of the *métropoles*, including the creation of a new metropolitan authority Aix-Marseille-Provence. The government has also set up a specific inter-ministerial taskforce that is to accompany the transition, towards the creation of the new metropolitan authority (for further information, see Box 3.17 later in this chapter).

The future metropolitan authority

The metropolitan authority Aix-Marseille-Provence became operational as of 1 January 2016. It replaced the six existing inter-municipal authorities (communauté urbaine Marseille Provence Métropole, communauté d’agglomération du Pays d’Aix-en-Provence, communauté d’agglomération Salon Etang de Berre Durance, communauté d’agglomération du Pays d’Aubagne et de l’Etoile, syndicat d’agglomération nouvelle Ouest Provence and communauté d’agglomération du Pays de Martigues). Its aim is to accelerate economic development, co-ordinate transport supply and develop a coherent housing policy.

Like the other *métropoles*, Aix-Marseille-Provence will be administered by a metropolitan council, composed of one metropolitan councillor per member municipality plus one more councillor for each municipality per 25 000 inhabitants. For the initial creation of the metropolitan council, councillors are elected by the municipal councils of member municipalities. They will later be directly elected by citizens, starting from 2020 onwards. The President and vice-presidents of the council will be elected by the councillors.

On 29 May 2015, the French Prime Minister chaired the Inter-ministerial Committee of Aix-Marseille-Provence. Together with nine ministers, he highlighted the four priorities of the future *métropole*: to put the republic into action; to act for transport; to support the Mediterranean and international clout; and to accompany economic development and innovation potential.

Acknowledging that the law is only a first step whose implementation will determine its effectiveness, the French government appointed a “*préfet délégué*” to the metropolitan project, with the task of animating a temporary interministerial taskforce in support to the future *métropole* (Mission interministérielle pour le projet métropolitain Aix-Marseille-Provence). (A similar taskforce was also established for the metropolitan project of Grand Paris.) The taskforce aims to manage the transition and build ownership of the *métropole* by different stakeholders (local governments, private sector, civil society).

Under the Minister of State Reform, Decentralisation and Public Administration, the taskforce includes about 15 people from a diversity of backgrounds (regional council, chamber of commerce, prefecture, port, public companies, etc.). The taskforce is supported by two bodies: 1) a “council of elected officials” (*conseil des élus*), which is composed of the chairs of the six inter-municipal authorities that are scheduled to merge, mayors appointed by the latter, the Mayor of Marseille, the chairs of the councils of the next two upper levels of government (the *département’s* Conseil général des Bouches-du-Rhône and the region’s Conseil régional Provence-Alpes-Côte d’Azur); and 2) a “council of partners” (*conseil des partenaires*), which includes representatives from labour unions, schools and universities, firms, etc.

GRAND LYON⁵

Since 1 January 2015, the urban community (*communauté urbaine*) of Grand Lyon became the Métropole de Lyon after 45 years of existence. This new metropolitan authority, which has a unique status in France, combines the competences of Grand Lyon and those of the *département* of the Rhône (Conseil Général du Rhône) on its perimeter. It covers the geographic area of the urban community, home to about 1.3 million people across 59 municipalities. It is administered by a Metropolitan Council of 165 councillors, whose chairman is the Mayor of Lyon. During the transitional period 2015-20, the community councillors serve as metropolitan councillors. From 2020, metropolitan councillors will be directly elected.

⁵ OECD (2016), OECD Territorial Reviews: The Metropolitan Region of Rotterdam-The Hague, Netherlands, OECD Publishing, Paris. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264249387-en>

Métropole de Lyon combines three sets of competencies transferred from different levels of government:

- Competencies from the previous Grand Lyon: urban planning, housing, sustainable development and energy, territorial planning, mobility and transport, economic development, waste management, water and sanitation, roads, tourism, agriculture.
- Competencies from the *département* of the Rhône: insertion, elderly, disabled, housing, urban development, mobility, family, education (junior high schools), childhood, culture and sport, spatial planning, roads, tourism, agriculture.
- Competencies that can be transferred from the region and the central government through a “delegation of competencies”: creation and management of cultural facilities, construction and maintenance of hot and cold networks and broadband networks, concession of electricity and gas distribution, management of aquatic areas and flood prevention, prevention of delinquency, access to rights, participation in the governance of train stations, co-leading competitiveness poles (*pôles de compétitivité*), housing, creation and maintenance of services for electric vehicles, external defence against fires, hygiene and health.

The budget of the Métropole de Lyon comes from three main sources of revenues: 65% from tax revenues, 25% from central government transfers and 10% from other sources.

Métropole de Lyon includes several participatory and consultative bodies: the Development Council (Conseil de développement, established in 2000); the Consultative Commission for Local Public Services (Commission consultative des services publics locaux, established in 2003); and the Inter-municipal Commission for Accessibility (Commission intercommunale d’accessibilité, established in 2009) for the disabled. Following the reform, the *département* of the Rhône only governs the areas that are not part of the Métropole de Lyon. This represents around 471 000 people, i.e. about one-quarter of the *département*’s population before the reform.

Governance structures of selected OECD metropolitan regions that include two large cities

ROTTERDAM-THE HAGUE, AIX-MARSEILLE, MINNEAPOLIS-ST. PAUL⁶

| | Rotterdam-The Hague (Netherlands) | Aix-Marseille (France) | Minneapolis-St. Paul (United States) |
|---|---|--|--|
| Current metropolitan governance structure | – Metropolitan Region of Rotterdam-The Hague (MRDH) – Operational since January 2015 | – Métropole Aix-Marseille-Provence – Operational from January 2016 | – Metropolitan Council (often called Met Council) – Created in 1967 by the Minnesota legislature, and responsibilities were expanded in 1974, 1976 and 1994 |
| Population covered by the metropolitan governance structure | – 2.2 million – 23 municipalities | – 1.8 million – 93 municipalities | – 3 million – 7 counties |
| Share of the two large cities in total metropolitan population | – Rotterdam: 616 295 inhabitants (27.9% of MRDH population) – The Hague: 505 855 (22.9%) | – Aix: 140 000 inhabitants (7.8% of the Aix-Marseille-Provence population) – Marseille: 850 636 inhabitants (47.2%) | – Minneapolis: 400 070 inhabitants (13.5% of the Twin Cities population) – St. Paul: 294 873 inhabitants (9.8%) |
| Internal structure | – General management – Executive Board of five members | – Metropolitan Council, initially elected by municipal councillors, then to be directly elected by citizens – President to be elected by the Metropolitan Council – Subdivided into “ <i>territoires</i> ” (sub-units corresponding to the previous inter-municipal organisations) | – Board of 17 members appointed by the Governor of Minnesota (16 representatives of geographical districts and 1 chair) |
| Previous governance Structure (before the | – Two distinct city-regions (Rotterdam and | – 6 inter-municipal authorities | |

⁶ OECD (2016), OECD Territorial Reviews: The Metropolitan Region of Rotterdam-The Hague, Netherlands, OECD Publishing, Paris.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264249387-en>

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|---------------------------------------|---|---|---|
| reform) | The Hague) | | |
| Budget | 98% from grants from the central government (EUR 475 million) – 2% from voluntary contributions from member municipalities (EUR 5.5 million) | – Estimated to be around EUR 524 million – Upon its creation, it is expected to receive an additional transfer of EUR 50 million from the central government | Operating budget of USD 936 million (in 2015) coming from: – 38% from user fees (e.g. transit fares and wastewater treatment charges) – 50% from state, federal and local government funds – 9% from metropolitan-wide property tax – 3% from other sources |
| Staff | 95 employees | 9 000 employees | 3 700 employees |
| Responsibilities | – Transport – Economic development | – Transport – Economic development – Spatial planning – Housing – Environmental protection – Various public services (e.g. water, waste) | – Transport (includes Metro Transit, the largest public transportation operator) – Economic development – Regional planning – Housing – Environmental services (e.g. wastewater) – Parks – Tax base sharing programme |
| Next upper level of government | Province of Zuid-Holland | – Département des Bouches-du-Rhône – Région Provence-Alpes-Côte d'Azur (PACA) | State of Minnesota |

Comparing the sources of financing in three directly elected metropolitan authorities:

PORTLAND, STUTTGART AND LONDON⁷

| | PORTLAND | STUTTGART | LONDON |
|---|---|---|---|
| Name of the metropolitan authority | Portland Metro | Verband Region Stuttgart (VRS) | Greater London Authority (GLA) |
| Year of creation | 1979 | 1994 | 2000 |
| Population coverage | 1.5 million across 25 municipalities | 1.96 million encompassing the city of Stuttgart and 5 surrounding districts (total of 179 cities and municipalities) | 8.2 million across the city of London and 32 boroughs |
| Composition | Metropolitan Council composed of six members (one in each district), directly elected every Council President, directly elected region-wide every four years | Regional assembly of 93 members directly elected every 5 years by proportional vote President of the regional assembly and regional director, both elected by the members of the regional assembly | London Assembly of 25 members directly elected by proportional representation Mayor of London directly elected every four years |
| Competences | – Land-use planning (e.g. urban growth boundary) – Transport planning (as an MPO) – Managing several park facilities – Handling waste disposal – Maintains landfills and recycling transfer stations – Owning and operating some major facilities (e.g. zoo, convention centre, exposition centre) | – Regional spatial planning – Transport infrastructure and operation (including suburban rail S-Bahn) – Regional economic and touristic development | – Land use (London Plan) – Transport (Transport for London) – Policing (Mayor's Office for Policing and Crime) – Fire and rescue (London Fire and Emergency Planning Authority) – Development (GLA Land and Property) |
| Financing | 57% from fees (USD 55 million in 2013-14) 18% from property taxes (USD 39 million) – Federal and municipal subsidies (USD 13 million) | – No taxing power – Very modest budget – Short-distance public transport service (EUR 91.1 million in 2010) – Transport and mobility subsidies from the city of Stuttgart and the districts (EUR 75 million) | – No taxing power – More than 80% from central government grants – Remainder from a local property tax and user charges |

⁷ OECD (2015), Governing the City, OECD Publishing. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264226500-en>

– Grants from the *Land* of Baden-Württemberg (EUR 56.4 million)
– Federal government subsidies (EUR 30.1 million)
– Fees from municipalities (EUR 14.6 million)

BARCELONA⁸

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|---|---|
| <i>Aire fonctionnelle métropolitaine</i> (source: OCDE, base de données métropolitaines) | <ul style="list-style-type: none">• <i>Population (2012) : 3,76 millions d'habitants soit 7,6 % de la population nationale</i>• <i>Superficie (aire fonctionnelle) : 1 362 km²</i>• <i>Densité : 2 760 habitants par km²</i>• <i>PIB (2010) : près de 117,7 milliards USD soit 32 010 USD par habitant</i>• <i>Communes sur l'aire fonctionnelle : 75 municipalités avec une population moyenne de 50 123habitants par municipalité</i>• <i>Taux de chômage (2012) : 22,6 %</i>• <i>3 aires centrales</i>• <i>Concentration : 76 % de la population réside dans l'aire centrale</i>• <i>Indice de fragmentation : 2 (nombre de communes pour 100 000 hab. dans l'aire fonctionnelle)</i> |
| <i>Quelles structures de gouvernance métropolitaine ?</i> | <ul style="list-style-type: none">• L'Aire métropolitaine de Barcelone (<i>Àrea metropolitana de Barcelona</i> (AMB) en catalan), née en juillet 2011 du rassemblement de plusieurs entités métropolitaines pre-existantes (cf. ci-dessous) constitue l'essentiel de la région métropolitaine de Barcelone. Elle recouvre une population totale de 3,1 millions d'habitants, s'étend sur 633 km² et a une densité de 4 994 habitants/km². Elle est formée de 36 municipalités dont la municipalité de Barcelone qui intervient notamment dans les domaines de la collecte des déchets, des transports publics, de l'eau, de l'éclairage public et de l'urbanisme (Barcelona Activa et la société 22@barcelona sont rattachées à la municipalité et constituent des leviers pour le développement économique).• L'AMB est administrée par un conseil métropolitain qui représente les communes membres. Plusieurs entités sont liées à l'AMB, notamment l'Autorité organisatrice du transport métropolitain (ATM) qui s'occupe de la coopération, de la coordination et de la planification dans le domaine des services et du financement des infrastructures de transports publics collectifs.• L'aire métropolitaine de Barcelone s'inscrit dans un environnement institutionnel comprenant :<ul style="list-style-type: none">– le niveau régional avec la <i>Generalitat de Catalunya</i> : la communauté autonome dispose notamment de compétences dans les domaines de l'aménagement du territoire, de l'urbanisme, des travaux publics d'intérêt régional, des transports, de la culture et de la recherche scientifique, de l'artisanat et du développement économique.– le niveau provincial avec la <i>Diputació de Barcelona</i> : il joue un rôle important d'appui aux petites communes localisées en dehors de la région métropolitaine. Elle est gouvernée à la fois par les maires et les conseillers municipaux des 311 communes de la province de Barcelone. |
| <i>Bref historique des réformes de gouvernance métropolitaine et réformes en cours</i> | <ul style="list-style-type: none">• 1975 : création de la Corporation Métropolitaine de Barcelone (<i>Corporacion Metropoliana de Barcelona</i> - CMB) qui englobe un périmètre de 27 communes.• 1987 : la CMB a été dissoute en 1987 suite aux tensions politiques entre la ville de Barcelone et la Catalogne qui se sont exacerbées lorsque Barcelone a été choisie pour les Jeux Olympiques de 1992.• De 1987 à 2010, plusieurs entités institutionnelles sont mises en place (transport, environnement, services urbains) au niveau de la métropole pour relancer la coopération métropolitaine, en particulier trois organismes de gestion territoriale à géométrie variable :<ul style="list-style-type: none">– Un syndicat intercommunal (<i>Mancomunitat de Municipis de l'Àrea Metropolitana de Barcelona</i> - MMAMB) de 31 municipalités (3,1 millions d'habitants) qui est chargé des infrastructures, des espaces publics et de l'urbanisme.– Une entité commune de gestion des transports en commun (<i>l'Entitat Metropolitana del Transport</i> - EMT) qui rassemble 18 communes limitrophes de Barcelone (2,9 millions d'habitants) et qui gère les transports en commun.– Une entité commune de politique environnementale (<i>Entitat del Medi Ambient</i> - EMA) qui couvre 33 communes (3,2 millions d'habitants) et qui gère le réseau hydraulique et le traitement des déchets. <p>Au total, le périmètre de ces trois structures de gouvernance métropolitaine couvre 36 municipalités.</p> |

⁸ OCDE (2014) VERS UNE CROISSANCE PLUS INCLUSIVE DE LA METROPOLE AIX-MARSEILLE : UNE PERSPECTIVE INTERNATIONALE

- 1992 : Les Jeux Olympiques de 1992 sont le point de départ d'importantes réformes urbaines qui jettent les bases du « modèle de Barcelone » et qui reposent sur la mise en oeuvre d'une planification stratégique :
 - La ville de Barcelone publie son premier plan stratégique en 1990, le deuxième en 1994 et le troisième en 1999.
 - L'Association pour le Plan Stratégique de Barcelone (*Plan Estratégico Metropolitano de Barcelona* - PEMB) lance le premier plan stratégique métropolitain en 2003, avec comme territoire de référence, une métropole de 36 communes. Publié en 2010, le nouveau plan de développement stratégique de Barcelone, *Barcelona Visio 2020*, poursuit l'orientation du développement de la métropole, dans la continuité du plan de 2003.
- Juillet 2011 : l'aire métropolitaine de Barcelone (*Area Metropolitana de Barcelona*) est créée en application de la loi 31/2010 du 2 août votée par le Parlement de Catalogne ; elle rassemble les structures institutionnelles disjointes créées entre 1987 et 2010 (la MAAMB, EMT et EMA) et prend la responsabilité du développement stratégique de la nouvelle métropole. En 2011, son périmètre de compétence comprend la ville de Barcelone et les zones urbaines périphériques de Barcelone, soit 36 communes.

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| <p><i>Éléments d'information sur l'organisation de la structure</i></p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Autorité Métropolitaine de Barcelone : 600 millions d'euros (2013) • Autorité métropolitaine des transports (AMT) : 1 074 millions d'euros (2013) |
| <p><i>Mode de financement de la structure métropolitaine</i></p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Budget de l'AMB : subventions/dotations (56 %), redevances et recettes tarifaires (eaux usées, transports publics, etc. : 24 %), impôts directs (17 %), recettes patrimoniales, etc. |
| <p><i>Compétences exercées par l'entité métropolitaine</i></p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Depuis 2011, l'Autorité Métropolitaine de Barcelone est compétente en matière d'aménagement urbain, de cohésion sociale et de développement économique. • Depuis 2000, l'Association du Développement Stratégique de Barcelone (PEMB), qui travaille pour l'aire métropolitaine de Barcelone, est responsable du développement stratégique de la métropole. Le PEMB est une association privée sans but lucratif et qui réunit près de 300 acteurs : des institutions politiques (<i>la Generalitat de Catalunya, la Diputacion de Barcelona</i>), des acteurs économiques et sociaux intervenant sur le territoire (<i>la Chambre de Commerce, l'Université de Barcelone, Fomento del Trabajo, la Fiera de Barcelona, le port, l'EMT et l'EMA</i>). Cette association est présidée par le maire de Barcelone. |
| <p><i>Structures consultatives associant les entreprises/citoyens ?</i></p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Dès le début, les entreprises ont été associées au projet de métropole, notamment dans le cadre de l'agence Barcelone Activa. • Le PEMB associe également les citoyens et le monde des affaires (cf. supra). |
| <p><i>Exemples de projets phares/structurants menés à l'échelle métropolitaine qui ont contribué à renforcer l'identité métropolitaine</i></p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Des investissements soutenus ont été initiés pour renforcer le maillage des transports à l'échelle de la métropole et développer les infrastructures ferroviaires (création d'une gare de trains à grande vitesse et d'une nouvelle ligne de métro), portuaires, aéroportuaires (création d'un nouveau terminal) et routières. • Le succès des Jeux Olympiques a permis d'améliorer significativement la réputation de la métropole. • Création du Triangle Économique de Barcelone centré autour des industries high-tech et de la connaissance (Barcelone est surnommée « ville de la connaissance » - le projet 22@Barcelone est emblématique de cette reconfiguration urbaine). • La création de certaines structures comme l'agence de développement de la ville, Barcelona Activa, ou encore l'Agence pour l'internationalisation de la Catalogne (COPCA) ont été particulièrement dynamiques pour assurer le rayonnement international et le développement économique de la métropole. |
| <p><i>Facteurs contribuant à faciliter la mise en oeuvre des réformes métropolitaines</i></p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Un modèle de gouvernance originale qui associe le leadership de la ville-centre (Barcelone) avec d'autres structures dont la composition garantit la représentation des principales forces économiques et sociales mais aussi des acteurs politico-institutionnels. Un tel modèle favorise un bon équilibre entre les intérêts du centre et ceux de la métropole. • Une série de plans stratégiques sur le développement de la métropole de Barcelone a été mise en place depuis les années 1990 permettant de créer une vision commune sur l'identité métropolitaine. L'Association du Développement Stratégique de Barcelone est un acteur majeur dans la définition |

de ce développement stratégique et a su fédérer un grand nombre d'acteurs (modèles de partenariats publics-privés efficaces).

- Fort portage politique des maires de Barcelone pour le pilotage des différents plans stratégiques.
- Le rôle moteur du City Council qui a su constamment encourager la collaboration au niveau des acteurs privés et publics.
- Une modèle de croissance tourné vers les entreprises et le monde des affaires.
- La plupart des municipalités de la métropole sont de la même couleur politique, permettant une meilleure coordination et communication entre les élus.

Facteurs limitant ou empêchant les réformes

- Relation mitigée entre la Ville et la Communauté autonome de Catalogne.

PORTO⁹

Aire fonctionnelle métropolitaine (source : OCDE, base de données métropolitaines)

- Population (2012) : 1,31 millions d'habitants soit 12,2 % de la population nationale
- Superficie (aire fonctionnelle) : 935 km²
- Densité : 1 388 habitants par km²
- PIB (2010) : 27, 1 milliards USD soit 20 840 USD par habitant
- Communes sur l'aire fonctionnelle : 150 municipalités avec une population moyenne de 8 712 habitants par municipalité
- Taux de chômage (2012) : 16,1 %.
- 1 aire centrale
- Concentration : 81,6 % de la population réside dans l'aire centrale
- Indice de fragmentation : 11,5 (nombre de communes pour 100 000 hab. dans l'aire fonctionnelle)

Quelles structures de gouvernance métropolitaine ?

- L'Aire Métropolitaine du Grand Porto (Grande Área Metropolitana do Porto - GAMP) englobe 17 municipalités dont la ville de Vila Nova de Gaia (plus de 300 000 habitants), Porto (238 000 habitants), Matosinhos, Gondomar, Santa Maria da Feira et Maia pour les plus grandes.
- Le pouvoir exécutif de la GAMP est assuré par la Junta Metropolitana, conseil exécutif composé des 17 maires des municipalités de la métropole. La Junta est présidée par un président et deux vice-présidents.
- Deux autres organes existent au sein de la structure administrative. D'une part, l'assemblée métropolitaine (Assembleia Metropolitana) composée de 55 membres élus pour quatre ans par les conseillers municipaux de la métropole. D'autre part, le conseil métropolitain (Conselho Metropolitanano) qui se contente d'un rôle consultatif limité. Il est composé des membres du Conseil, du Président de la coordination régionale et le développement (CCDR-N) et des représentants de certains organismes publics, dont les activités sont souvent en lien avec la GAMP. Ce dernier est généralement directement élu par la Junta.
- A noter que la Commission de Coordination et de Développement Régional du Nord (CCDR-N – Comissão de Coordenação e Desenvolvimento Regional do Norte) est un organisme déconcentré de l'Administration Centrale ayant pour mission de promouvoir les conditions pour le développement intégré et soutenu du Nord du Portugal (NUT II).

Bref historique des réformes de gouvernance métropolitaine et réformes en cours

- 1991 : loi du 2 août qui institue les Aires Métropolitaines de Porto et de Lisbonne. La métropole de Porto compte alors 9 municipalités. Cependant, en 1991, la création des aires métropolitaines n'est pas accompagnée de la réglementation relative à leurs compétences respectives. Il faudra attendre douze ans.
- 2003 : loi établissant le statut juridique et les compétences des aires métropolitaines portugaises. L'Aire métropolitaine de Porto (AMP) devient l'Aire Métropolitaine du Grand Porto (GAMP) et cinq nouvelles municipalités rejoignent la structure métropolitaine.
- 2008 : loi du 27 août instituant un nouveau régime juridique des aires métropolitaines de Porto et de Lisbonne.
- 2010 : deux nouvelles municipalités rejoignent GAMP.
- 2013 (septembre) : une 17ème commune rejoint GAMP (Paredes).
- 2013 : une loi récente (n°75/2013) a réformé les institutions métropolitaines.

Éléments d'information sur l'organisation de la structure métropolitaine
Mode de financement

- La GAMP s'articule autour de plusieurs directions au sein de son organisation : Transport, Tourisme, Culture et Patrimoine, Musées, Environnement, Universités, Enseignement supérieur, Éducation et formation, Associations professionnelles, Sport et la cohésion sociale.

- Budget (2013) : 2 473 400 EUR

⁹ OCDE (2014) VERS UNE CROISSANCE PLUS INCLUSIVE DE LA METROPOLE AIX-MARSEILLE : UNE PERSPECTIVE INTERNATIONALE

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|---|--|
| <i>de la structure métropolitaine</i> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Dépenses (2013) : Frais de personnel : 447 000 EURs ; Acquisition de biens et de services de remplacement: 1 654 354 EUR; Acquisition de biens en capital: 46 700 EUR; Subventions: 160 001 EUR; Transferts courants: 160 322 EUR; Autres: 5003 EUR • Recettes (2013) : Dotations de l'État et des municipalités : 2 432 717 EUR (à noter que 60 % du budget de la GAMP provient de dotations étatiques) ; Recettes du capital : 10 003 EUR ; Taxes immobilières : 30 301EUR ; Autres : 379 EUR |
| <i>Compétences exercées par l'entité métropolitaine</i> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Les compétences de la GAMP sont liées à l'articulation des investissements municipaux pour l'intérêt supra-municipal et à la coordination des services entre les municipalités et les services de l'administration centrale dans divers domaines (santé, éducation, infrastructures de transport, équipements collectifs,...). La GAMP participe également la gestion stratégique, économique et sociale, et à la gestion territoriale au sein des collectivités locales incluses dans l'espace métropolitain. En réalité, la GAMP ne dispose pas de compétence propre, elle exerce les compétences précitées soit avec les municipalités, soit avec le pouvoir central ce qui cantonne la structure métropolitaine dans des projets de faible envergure. • A noter que l'aire métropole n'a aucune compétence dans la politique du logement : celle-ci est définie au niveau central et mise en place par les collectivités locales. • A l'heure actuelle, il n'existe pas de document de planification stratégique à l'échelle métropolitaine. Cette absence de plan stratégique n'incite aucune coopération stratégique entre les municipalités pour assurer un développement équilibré du territoire. A contrario, les municipalités sont responsables des documents de planification stratégiques à l'échelle municipale. A noter qu'au niveau national, il existe un document national stratégique, le PNPT (Plano Nacional da Política de Ordenamento di Territorio). |
| <i>Structures consultatives associant les entreprises/citoyens ?</i> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Jusqu'à présent, les structures consultatives associant les citoyens étaient quasi-inexistantes. • Prenant en compte le déclin de la compétitivité de Porto et de ses municipalités avoisinantes, la GAMP entend aujourd'hui développer des clusters technologiques et innovants en étroite collaboration avec les universités de la métropole. Divers projets sont en préparation. • Récemment s'est constitué le Centre d'innovation social métropolitain (Centro de Inovação Social Metropolitano – CIS) qui promeut et soutient les projets liés à l'entrepreneuriat et à l'innovation sociale à l'échelle de la métropole. • Créé également récemment (mars 2013), le CRE-Porto est un centre d'excellence régional en charge de soutenir et d'identifier de projets de recherche scientifique dans le domaine de l'éducation pour le développement durable. Cette structure a été reconnue en tant que telle par l'Université des Nations Unies qui a établi un réseau de CRE dans le monde. |
| <i>Exemples de projets phares/structurants menés à l'échelle métropolitaine qui ont contribué à renforcer l'identité métropolitaine</i> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Le métro de Porto est l'un des projets phares de la métropole. Cependant, il est critiqué à plusieurs égards. D'une part, après plusieurs années de discussion avant le début de la construction (de 1990 à 2002), il semblerait que certaines municipalités aient été mieux desservies que d'autres lors de la construction de ce métro en raison des forces politiques en place de l'époque (par exemple, Valongo a été mise de côté alors que sa démographie augmentait). D'autre part, ce projet de métro s'est avéré être coûteux (surcoût de 1 500 millions d'euros). Aussi, le métro de Porto, véritablement projet métropolitain en soi, a finalement fragilisé l'identité métropolitaine. Il est aujourd'hui administré par une entreprise publique d'Etat. • Création d'un réseau de parcs métropolitains afin de dynamiser l'espace environnemental de l'aire métropolitaine. • Projet AVENIR (FUTURO) qui consiste à planter 100 000 arbres d'ici 2015 afin de reboiser certaines zones de l'aire métropolitaine. Ce projet est parrainé par le Centre régional pour le développement durable de l'aire métropolitaine et l'université catholique de Porto. Les arbres sont plantés bénévolement par les habitants. |
| <i>Facteurs contribuant à faciliter la mise en oeuvre des réformes métropolitaines</i> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pas applicable |
| <i>Facteurs limitant ou empêchant les réformes</i> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Moyens financiers trop faibles pour mettre en place des projets structurants ; • Pendant plus d'une décennie, la métropole de Porto a existé sans exercer aucune compétence. L'incertitude face à cet échelon administratif a contribué au manque d'identité métropolitaine actuelle. Aujourd'hui encore, les compétences de la métropole sont mal définies et ne lui confèrent qu'un champ d'action restreint ; • Absence de stratégie claire sur le plan de développement de l'aire métropolitaine sans document de planification stratégique ; • Manque de participation et d'intérêt des citoyens pour les problématiques métropolitaines ; • Un découpage administratif non adapté à la réalité urbaine de la métropole ; • Développement polycentrique de la GAMP dans lequel les territoires avoisinants ont un rôle autant, voire plus, attractif que la ville-centre de Porto (par exemple, Vila Nova de Gaia, qui est plus |

peuplée que Porto). Cette « compétition urbaine » peut contribuer à entraver la mise en place d'une métropole stratégique et attractive.

OSLO¹⁰

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| <i>Aire fonctionnelle métropolitaine (source : OCDE, base de données métropolitaines)</i> | <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Population (2012) : 1,26 million d'habitants soit 25,3% de la population nationale• Superficie (aire fonctionnelle) : 7 099 km², l'aire urbanisée représentant 2,16% de la superficie totale• Densité : 178 habitants par km²• PIB (2010) : 59 milliards USD soit 48 180 USD par habitant• Communes sur l'aire fonctionnelle : 30 municipalités avec une population moyenne de 42 066 habitants par municipalité• Taux de chômage (2012) : 3,2 %.• 1 aire centrale• Concentration : 47 % de la population réside dans l'aire centrale• Indice de fragmentation : 2,4 (nombre de communes pour 100 000 hab. dans l'aire fonctionnelle) |
| <i>Quelles structures de gouvernance métropolitaine ?</i> | <ul style="list-style-type: none">• La Norvège se caractérise traditionnellement par trois niveaux de gouvernance : l'administration centrale, les comtés (les régions) et les communes. La région d'Oslo présente une organisation singulière en raison de son statut de capitale (Oslo bénéficie à la fois du statut de commune et de comté).• La région métropolitaine d'Oslo, appelée Oslo Regional Alliance ou encore Oslo Region, est une collaboration politique de 67 autorités locales dont la ville d'Oslo, les comtés de Buskerud, Akershus et Østfold, et les municipalités aux alentours d'Oslo. Cette entité englobe 2,3 millions d'habitants avec une croissance de population soutenue (38 000 habitants en 2011).• L'alliance est une organisation basée sur l'adhésion volontaire des collectivités dont l'objectif principal est de renforcer la région métropolitaine d'Oslo comme une région compétitive et attractive en Europe. Cette collaboration politique régionale se présente comme une réponse à la concurrence accrue des villes et régions européennes voisines. |
| <i>Quelles structures de gouvernance métropolitaine ?</i> | <ul style="list-style-type: none">• La Norvège se caractérise traditionnellement par trois niveaux de gouvernance : l'administration centrale, les comtés (les régions) et les communes. La région d'Oslo présente une organisation singulière en raison de son statut de capitale (Oslo bénéficie à la fois du statut de commune et de comté).• La région métropolitaine d'Oslo, appelée Oslo Regional Alliance ou encore Oslo Region, est une collaboration politique de 67 autorités locales dont la ville d'Oslo, les comtés de Buskerud, Akershus et Østfold, et les municipalités aux alentours d'Oslo. Cette entité englobe 2,3 millions d'habitants avec une croissance de population soutenue (38 000 habitants en 2011).• L'alliance est une organisation basée sur l'adhésion volontaire des collectivités dont l'objectif principal est de renforcer la région métropolitaine d'Oslo comme une région compétitive et attractive en Europe. Cette collaboration politique régionale se présente comme une réponse à la concurrence accrue des villes et régions européennes voisines. |
| <i>Bref historique des réformes de gouvernance métropolitaine et réformes en cours</i> | <ul style="list-style-type: none">• 2003 : lancement de la « Responsibility Reform » à la suite d'un Livre blanc sur la démocratie locale.• 17 décembre 2004 : création de l'Oslo Regional Alliance• 2006 : nouveau Livre blanc sur la réforme régionale qui promeut une administration à trois niveaux : l'administration centrale, les régions/comtés et les communes.• 2013 (1er janvier) : adhésion des municipalités de Kongsberg, Rollag, Notodden, Hjartdal au sein de l'Oslo Regional Alliance. |
| <i>Éléments d'information sur l'organisation de la structure métropolitaine</i> | <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Le Conseil est l'organe exécutif d'Oslo Regional Alliance. Avec 18 membres, il est composé de certains maires des municipalités et des comtés de la région, ainsi que celui de la ville d'Oslo. La composition du Conseil est donc une sélection représentative des maires municipaux de la région, avec notamment les maires des communes d'Akershus et de Buskerud et le député maire du comté d'Østfold. Actuellement, le maire d'Oslo est également le président actuel du Conseil. Le Conseil se réunit au moins une fois par an pour définir la stratégie annuelle et le montant de la cotisation annuelle. Il s'est réuni quatre fois en 2012.• Les habitants d'Oslo Regional Alliance paient une cotisation annuelle de 20 à 40 centimes d'EUR (1,50 à 3 couronnes norvégiennes).• Au service des instances politiques de la région métropolitaine d'Oslo, le Secrétariat est responsable de la coordination générale de l'ensemble du travail administratif. L'Oslo Regional Alliance dispose également d'une antenne de liaison et d'un groupe d'experts techniques issus des membres des administrations des collectivités locales. |

¹⁰ OCDE (2014) VERS UNE CROISSANCE PLUS INCLUSIVE DE LA METROPOLE AIX-MARSEILLE : UNE PERSPECTIVE INTERNATIONALE

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| | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Afin de développer la compétitivité de la métropole, Oslo et le comté d'Akershus ont créé l'agence Oslo Teknopol qui promeut l'attrait international de la région pour les entreprises basées sur la connaissance et l'innovation. |
| <i>Mode de financement de la structure métropolitaine</i> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Budget (2012) : 656 350 EUR • Revenus (2012) : recettes fiscales (637 600 EUR) et recettes exceptionnelles et remboursement de la TVA (19 050 EUR) • Charges d'exploitation (2012) : salaires internes/dépenses de fonctionnement (187 114 EUR) ; projets de développement (166 628 EUR) ; TVA sur les dépenses (112 535 EUR) et autres charges d'exploitation (17 961 EUR). |
| <i>Compétences exercées par l'entité métropolitaine</i> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Oslo Regional Alliance est compétente dans les domaines suivants : coordination des services partagés entre les communes, innovation et la compétitivité ; aménagement du territoire et les transports ; logements sociaux et services sociaux locaux. • Les Comtés sont en charge de l'enseignement supérieur, du développement régional, des infrastructures routières régionales, de l'environnement et, enfin, de la politique commerciale et industrielle. En termes de planification stratégique, les comtés sont responsables des Counties Plans et assurent un rôle de supervision sur les plans municipaux. • Les communes ont les compétences suivantes : protection des enfants, enseignement primaire et secondaire, soins de santé, services sociaux, culture et loisirs, infrastructures techniques et aménagement du territoire local. Ainsi, les communes jouent un rôle essentiel sur le plan de la prestation des services et contribuent également au développement économique local par l'intermédiaire des plans municipaux. Ces plans leur permettent entre autres de créer des opportunités de développement économique, d'améliorer le maillage des transports publics et d'optimiser l'offre de logements. • L'administration joue un rôle central dans le plan de développement territorial. Le Ministère de la gouvernance locale et du développement régional (Ministry of Local Government and Regional Development) définit le document de planification et de construction (Planning and Building Act – PBA) tandis |
| <i>Structures consultatives associant les entreprises/citoyens ?</i> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • L'agence Oslo Teknopol associe les entreprises dans sa mission pour renforcer la compétitivité de la région. • Junior Achievement Young Enterprise (JA-YE) a été créé pour soutenir l'emploi des jeunes et retenir les talents. Il s'agit d'un centre d'enseignement tourné vers le monde des entreprises. Chaque année, est organisé le JA-YE Innovation Camp dans le cadre de la semaine de l'innovation qui réunit environ 70 étudiants des lycées de la région métropolitaine. Les élèves travaillent sur un projet pendant une journée et présentent leur projet devant un jury composés d'acteurs du secteur privé. |
| <i>Exemples de projets phares/structurants menés à l'échelle métropolitaine qui ont contribué à renforcer l'identité métropolitaine</i> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • L'entité métropolitaine a créé 5 pôles de compétitivité : un pôle sur la culture (musique, design et architecture), l'énergie et l'environnement, l'industrie portuaire, les technologies de l'information et les sciences de la vie. Chacun de ces pôles a développé ses propres projets pour renforcer la cohérence et l'identité de la région métropolitaine. – Dans le domaine des sciences de la vie, le « Oslo Cancer Cluster » a développé un important centre de recherche sur la santé (1 600 employés et 30 entreprises et organisations). Ce Centre d'Excellence Norvégien entend devenir le plus grand centre de recherche contre le cancer en Europe d'ici 2015. – Dans le cadre du cluster sur la culture, la région métropolitaine accueille 5 000 événements musicaux par an (Live Music Capital of Scandinavia). • La semaine de l'Innovation (Oslo Innovation Week - OIW) rassemble, sur une semaine, entrepreneurs, académiques, investisseurs et scientifiques qui échangent sur les différents aspects de l'innovation et de la politique industrielle. Plusieurs événements sont organisés dans le cadre de cette semaine pour l'innovation : le Campus pour l'innovation (Innovation Camp), un forum sur l'investissement (Lab Investment Forum) et une journée « Business & Industry Day ». • Autre projet phare, le train à grande vitesse pour relier les villes d'Oslo, de Göteborg et de Copenhague en 2h20 à l'horizon 2025 dans le cadre du Corridor pour l'Innovation et la Coopération (Corridor of Innovation and Cooperation- COINCO). • Dans le cadre de la coopération scandinave entre Oslo/Copenhague/Göteborg et Malmö, plusieurs projets régionaux ont vu le jour ou sont en cours d'élaboration. Dans le domaine de la santé, un accord a été signé entre MedCoast Scandinavia (Oslo – Göteborg region) et Medicon Valley Academia Øresund Region) afin créer l'un de plus grands clusters européens dans le domaine médical (base de données communes contenant plus de 1500 entreprises actives dans le domaine de la science de la vie). |
| <i>Facteurs contribuant à faciliter la mise en oeuvre des réformes</i> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • L'adhésion volontaire des municipalités et comtés au sein de la Region Oslo Alliance. • Une croissance économique et démographique forte. |

- La planification territoriale telle que définie dans la région d'Oslo implique une forte coordination entre les trois échelons administratifs. Or, on constate un manque de coordination et des désaccords politiques entre le pouvoir central et les municipalités, essentiellement sur les politiques de transport et d'occupation des sols, et entre les membres de la région métropolitaine. Cela entraîne un manque de cohésion territoriale d'autant que la répartition des rôles et des responsabilités de chaque niveau territorial n'est pas toujours précise.
- Les compétences de la Région Oslo restent faibles en raison du poids des autres échelons territoriaux.
- Trop grand nombre de communes qui souffrent d'une masse critique insuffisante.
- Le budget de la structure métropolitaine est limité.
- Oslo Regional Alliance souffre d'un périmètre de compétences et d'actions limité.
- Le Conseil de l'Oslo Regional Alliance n'est pas représentatif de l'ensemble des municipalités qui le composent (représentation partielle).

ITALY¹¹

Italy went through more than two decades of deadlock in the metropolisation process before the recent turn in 2014. The initial legal framework (introduced in 1990 with Law n. 142/1990) offered the possibility for ten major cities of Italy (Rome, Turin, Milan, Venice, Genoa, Bologna, Florence, Bari, Naples and Reggio Calabria) to establish "metropolitan cities" (*città metropolitana*), endowed with a range of key competencies (e.g. in terms of spatial planning, economic development, etc.). These new institutions would require a regional law to create them, in the absence of which the central government would intervene itself. However, neither the regions nor the central government took any strong institutional or financial action. A few instances of local attempts to establish *città metropolitane* remained unsuccessful (e.g. Bologna in the 1990s, Rome and Turin in the 2000s). As a special case, Rome was given different competences from all other Italian municipalities in Law n. 42/2009, Art. 24 (Roma capitale).

In 2012, the Italian government decided to address the institutionalisation of Italian metropolitan areas more directly. In 2013, it committed itself to presenting a new draft law creating *città metropolitane*, which would leave no possibility for the regions to oppose it. The government also proposed to put aside some financial incentives in the EU Structural Funds 2014-20 programming period in order to support investments at the metropolitan scale for the ten cities previously targeted and four additional cities from the special status regions (Palermo, Messina, Catania in Sicily, as well as Cagliari in Sardinia). After a long and difficult legislative process, in April 2014, the Italian parliament passed Law n. 56/2014, which identified a roadmap up to 31 December 2014 to establish *città metropolitane*.

In an effort to avoid the vexed question of how to identify the boundaries of those metropolitan areas – which had proven a major obstacle to the emergence of metropolitan structures in the past – the government decided to take the territories of the corresponding provinces as the territories for which to assign by law the status of *città metropolitana*. The main functions devolved to the *città metropolitane* are: local planning and zoning; provision of local police services; transport and city services regulation. However, the government left each territory the freedom – and responsibility – to decide the depth and breadth of inter-municipal co-ordination. The law also provides the possibility of changing the provincial boundaries and of striking specific agreements between the metropolitan cities and individual contiguous municipalities or clusters of municipalities. Nonetheless, the complex political-administrative procedure required to expand the boundaries of metropolitan cities may be regarded as an obstacle discouraging this option.

The new metropolitan cities have been operational since 1 January 2015. The *città metropolitana* is composed of the municipalities (*comuni*) that had been part of the same province. Each *città metropolitana* is headed by a metropolitan mayor (*sindaco metropolitano*), who is the mayor of the chief town (*capoluogo*). The metropolitan mayor is assisted by two bodies: a legislative body, the metropolitan council (*consiglio metropolitano*), whose members are indirectly elected by the city councils of each municipality in the *città metropolitana*; and a non-legislative assembly, the metropolitan conference (*conferenza metropolitana*), which is composed of the mayors of the municipalities closest to the main town.

¹¹ OECD (2016), OECD Territorial Reviews: The Metropolitan Region of Rotterdam-The Hague, Netherlands, OECD Publishing, Paris.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264249387-en>

The law that transforms the provinces is preliminary to their formal abolition, as the Italian Constitution needs to be revised in order to change the current bicameral parliamentary system.

Co-ordinating metropolitan and municipal spatial planning: Different examples of mechanisms¹²

London: The Mayor's duty to consult and inform

In the Greater London Authority (GLA), the "London Plan" produced by the Mayor of London is the master spatial development strategy for the Greater London area. London boroughs' local plans need to be in general conformity with the London Plan, and its policies guide decisions on planning applications by councils and the Mayor. The Mayor is, however, bound by the duty to consult on any alteration to or replacement of the London Plan with counties and districts adjoining London, and to inform local planning authorities in the vicinity of London of his views concerning any matters of common interest relating to the planning or development of London or those areas. Following the latest alterations to the plan in January 2014, the Mayor held two consultation events specifically for the Wider South East in March and June 2014. Over 200 individuals from all local authorities within the Wider South East as well as representatives from strategic partnerships and liaison groups were invited to these two events, with over 50 officers and some elected members attending each event.

Chicago: A technical assistance programme for local communities

Although the Chicago Metropolitan Agency for Planning (CMAP) does not have formal authority over land use and zoning, which remain under municipal jurisdiction, the implementation of the metropolitan master plan "GO TO 2040" at the local level is facilitated by the technical assistance programme funded through the US Department of Housing and Urban Development's Sustainable Communities Regional Planning Grant Program. The CMAP initiated the Local Technical Assistance (LTA) Program in 2010. This programme provides assistance to communities across the Chicago metropolitan region to undertake planning projects that advance the principles of GO TO 2040. The CMAP has initiated 160 local projects with local governments, non-profit and intergovernmental organisations to address local issues at the intersection of transport, land use and housing, including the natural environment, economic growth and community development. The CMAP announced 25 new LTA projects in October 2014. This fourth wave of projects emphasises implementation of past plans, such as updates of zoning and regulations, the creation of capital improvement plans and analysis of municipal review procedures.

Vancouver: A regional context statement from each local authority

The Greater Vancouver Regional District (GVRD), renamed Metro Vancouver in 2007, brings together 24 local authorities (22 municipalities, one "Electoral Area" and one aboriginal community called "Treaty First Nation"). Metro Vancouver co-ordinates regional planning by producing the Regional Growth Strategy (RGS). The RGS calls for the alignment of the spatial plans of member local authorities as it requires each member local authority to provide a Regional Context Statement to "demonstrate to the Metro Vancouver Board how its Official Community Plan Supports the RGS".

Frankfurt: A legal obligation to co-ordinate between the inter-municipal association and the state

Two distinct authorities are in charge of spatial planning in the area of Frankfurt: at state level, the Regional Assembly of South Hesse (corresponding to the Administrative District Darmstadt), which is elected by the representative bodies of counties, the urban districts, the municipalities that have more than 50 000 inhabitants; and at the inter-municipal level, the Regional Board of the Regional Authority FrankfurtRheinMain (*Regionalverband*), which has acquired legal competencies for regional land-use planning covering the territory of its member municipalities. The law requires the two entities to agree on the plan, which is usually achieved by harmonising regional/municipal and state planning, but the process of reaching agreement can be considerably long. The *Regionalverband* emphasises its greater closeness to municipalities and better knowledge of details, claiming priority of regional over state planning. A Mediation Committee has been created to consolidate differing views. The Mediation Committee consists of ten members, appointed in equal number by the Regional Assembly and the *Regionalverband*. The Committee Chair and his deputy are appointed annually, alternating between

¹² OECD (2015), *Governing the City*, OECD Publishing. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264226500-en>

representatives of the two institutions. The Mediation Committee convenes only in case of serious disagreements, which have been avoided so far.

Municipalities are responsible for micro-planning, which can also conflict with the regional plan. They may raise objections that are dealt with in a similar fashion like the co-ordination of planning between the state and the region. Moreover, the law prescribes the participation of citizens, interest groups and specialized agencies. It entails the need for co-ordination meetings, which generated some 15 000 modification requests for the current land-use plan (which came into force in October 2011, replacing the land-use plans for the 75 cities and counties of the region).

A single authority in charge of co-ordinating transport and spatial planning at the metropolitan level: Selected examples from OECD countries (cont.). Unitary countries¹³

In **Korea**, the cities that have the status of “metropolitan cities” are in charge of planning both transport and land use. For example, the Daejeon metropolitan government elaborates both the 2030 Daejeon Urban Transport Plan and the Urban Basic Plan – however, these are handled by different departments within the metropolitan government, which both reported an occasional lack of internal co-ordination. In the United Kingdom, the Greater London Authority (GLA) is responsible for the strategic integration of key policies such as spatial planning and transport, and it has a binding authority over its members (city and boroughs) in this regard. Concerning spatial planning, the Mayor of London produces the “London Plan”, a statutory spatial development strategy for the Greater London area, which sets out a fully integrated economic, environmental, transport and social framework for the development of the capital up to 2031. Regarding transport, the GLA does not provide services itself but appoints the Board of Transport for London, which is responsible for underground, rail and surface transport. It should be noted, however, that the spatial coverage of the GLA is relatively limited compared with the OECD definition of the functional urban area (FUA).

Federal countries

In Germany, Verband Region Stuttgart (VRS) was created in 1994 as a voluntary association of the city of Stuttgart and five adjacent districts, through legislation of the state of Baden-Wurtemberg. The VRS is governed by a directly elected regional parliament composed of 93 members. It is responsible for long-term regional integrated planning, including both regional transport planning and land-use planning. With regard to transport planning, the VRS is the second-largest shareholder of the Stuttgart Regional Public Transport and Tariff Association (*Verkehrs- und Tarifverbund Stuttgart*, VVS), which operates the regional public transport system. Although, in principle, municipalities have exclusive planning rights in their territory, they are bound to the goals and principles of higher level spatial planning. The VRS has the authority to overrule local land-use plans and to restrict all activities which contradict the regional plan. As a last resort, it can also sue the municipality that violates its planning rule.

In the United States, the Chicago Metropolitan Agency for Planning (CMAP) has the responsibility to plan for the integration of transport and land-use planning. Transport is controlled by the Regional Transit Authority (RTA), which oversees the three service boards in the metropolitan area, whereas land use and zoning are a municipal responsibility. In 2009, the CMAP published a long-range comprehensive regional plan, entitled “GO TO 2040”, which establishes co-ordinated strategies that help the region’s 284 communities address transport, housing, economic development, open space, the environment and other quality-of-life issues. The plan was unanimously adopted by its members following an extensive consultation process that attracted attention from other metropolitan planning organisations (MPOs) for its use of MetroQuest, an online scenario visualization tool. Metropolis Strategies (a civic organisation for improving regional planning, which closed in May 2014 after 15 years of activity) campaigned for the consolidation of the CMAP and the RTA, which would give the CMAP the authority and resources to improve co-ordination of regional transport services.

¹³ OECD (2015), *Governing the City*, OECD Publishing. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264226500-en>