MULTI-STAKEHOLDER GOVERNANCE MODEL
FINAL VERSION

WPT 1 Activity 1.5
Deliverable D.T1.5.3

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November 2018

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1 Project context

Urban green space (UGS) provides many environmental, social and economic benefits to cities and their populations. Urban green spaces make residential and working environments more liveable, improves environmental performance (e.g. filtering pollutants and CO_2 from air) and strengthens climate resilience.

However, because of the ongoing urbanisation and suburbanisation processes, natural and semi-natural green spaces of all types are increasingly under threat, which leads in turn to fragmentation of ecosystem networks and biodiversity loss.

Because the thoughtful development and management of green spaces enables us to confront many harmful environmental impacts and climate change-related risks, there is widespread demand for improved operational models for UGS governance.

The Urban Green Belts (UGB) project's main objective is to improve planning, management and decision-making capacities of the public sector related to urban green spaces, thus creating integrated sustainable UGS planning and management systems.

'Functional urban areas' (FUAs) in Central Europe with weak, non-integrated UGS management require various types of smart solutions that are being co-created and tested in the UGB project. Following a comparative situation analysis, partners jointly elaborated innovative methods and tools aimed at sustainable UGS management. These methods and tools focused on the following considerations:

1. 'Green infrastructure' (GI) as a smart tool for providing ecological, economic and social benefits through natural solutions that are unfamiliar to most local decision makers. Therefore, a Geographical Information System-based (GIS-based) spatial planning decision-support tool was elaborated for assessing and evaluating existing green spaces, and for facilitating the application of the GI approach in strategic planning.
2. Community involvement in planning and implementation processes are still quite rare in the region but are crucial for ensuring the social and economic sustainability of UGS management. Smart techniques for awareness raising and for activating civil society organisations (CSOs) and citizens through community building were elaborated.
3. Multi-stakeholder governance is an inevitable but underexploited tool for effectively managing UGS. Smart solutions for promoting cooperation between different governance levels and sectors, and internally across various departments of authorities, were developed. A training curriculum for municipalities on the application of integrated UGS planning and management in the context of multi-stakeholder governance was developed as well.

These solutions, methods and tools were compiled into three UGB Smart Models that were tested through pilot actions during the project:

*   Model 1: GIS-based solutions
*   Model 2: Community involvement
*   Model 3: Multi-stakeholder governance

Figure 1 below shows how these elements are related.
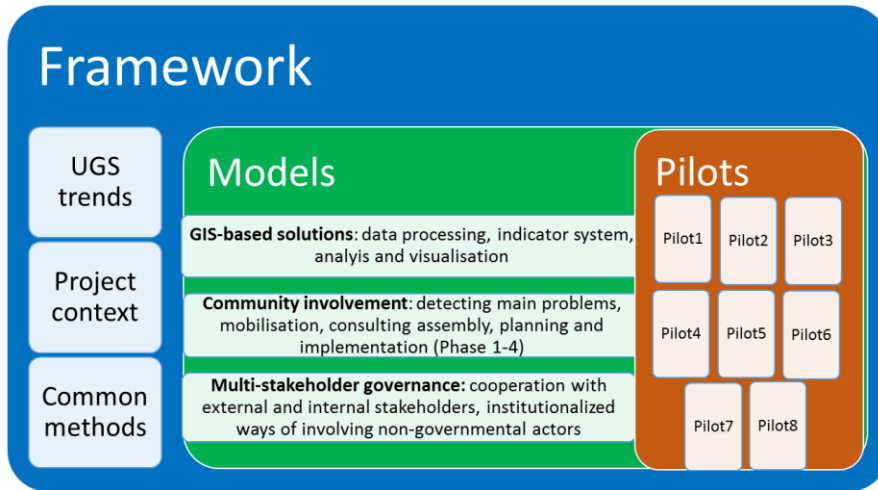
Figure 1: Connections between the framework, UGB Smart Models, and pilot actions

The flowchart of the development process of the UGB Smart Models is shown in *Figure 2*. In line with this, as a first step, a draft model was developed in all Thematic Working Groups, which then were tested through pilot actions. The finalised models will be an integral part of the *Smart UGS Governance Manual* — one of the major outputs of the project.

FUA-level stakeholder platform meetings and UGB transnational meetings supported the development of the model throughout the whole process. Furthermore, a Transnational Synergy Workshop with similar projects and initiatives would help to identify and include relevant knowledge and experience outside the consortium.
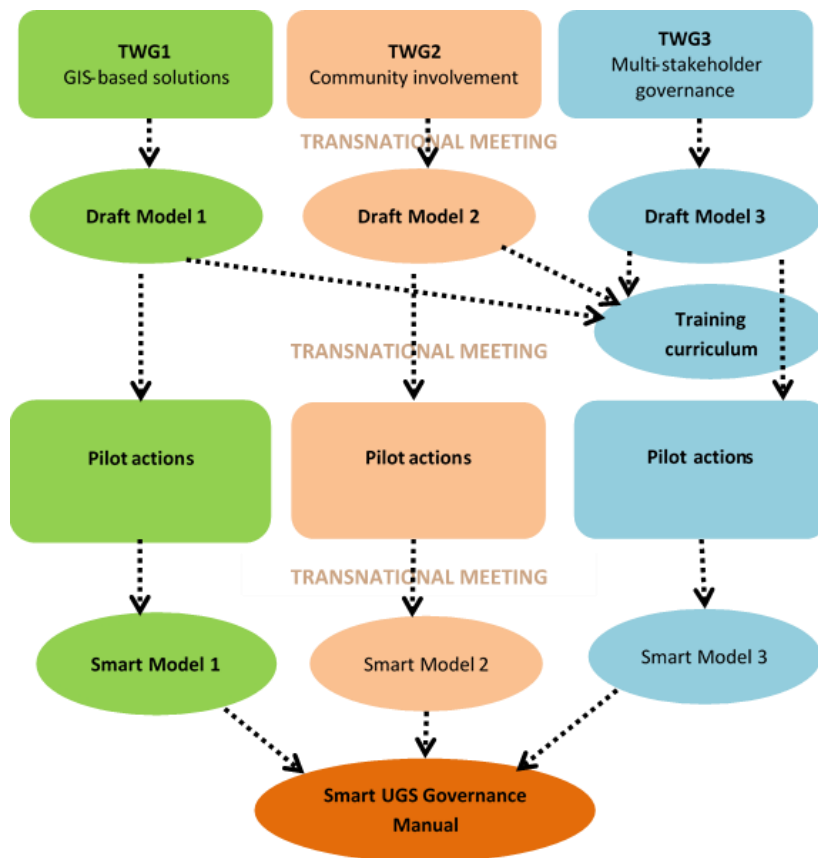
Figure 2: Development of UGB Smart Models

2   Objective

The objective of this document is to provide a smart model for multi-stakeholder urban green space governance (Model 3 under the Urban Green Belts project).

The model is designed to function as a flexible methodology that offers a wide range of applicable instruments to involve stakeholders in the planning, development and maintenance of urban green spaces. It provides guidance on how to set up and operate integrated multi-stakeholder frameworks and new cooperation forms.

During the project some the instruments described in the model were tested through pilot actions. Under Thematic Working Group 3 two pilots were undertaken — one in Budapest on multi-level governance, and another in Prague on institutionalised forms of cooperation and with the involvement of non-governmental actors. Lessons learned during the pilots were evaluated and fed back to this final model.

The model also serves as a capacity building tool for public authorities that can help in delivering more effective and sustainable UGS management.

3   Who can use this model?

This model targets organisations and bodies at diverse levels of governance (national, regional, local, and neighbourhood/community), but is aimed primarily at local and regional public authorities — the key players in urban green space governance.

The secondary target group includes urban planners and developers, landscape planners, park and garden maintenance companies, forestry agencies, environmental organisations, allotment societies and local community groups.

4   How is the model used?

The model can help in:

- understanding multi-stakeholder governance and how it can support working in partnership;
- involving regional and local stakeholders during planning phase to gain their buy-in and support, thus ensuring long-term benefits for the local community;
- developing instruments and tools targeting multi-level governance, as well as institutionalised forms of cooperation with the involvement of non-governmental actors, based on the various methods described; and
- implementing instruments and tools in partnership.

The model includes a range of instruments targeting enhanced UGS governance that can be applied by local or regional authorities when designing customised instruments to address local needs. The various instruments are illustrated by case examples drawn from various cities across Europe.

Section 5 of this document provides information on the scoping of the model, including thematic scoping (offering a delineation of relevant sub-topics) and territorial scoping (putting specific emphasis on FUAs).

Section 6 delves deeper into the theoretical background of multi-level governance (e.g. the origin of the concept, definitions, main characteristics, underlying principles) and institutionalized forms of cooperation with the involvement of non-governmental actors.

Section 7 describes the methodology providing information on specific instruments for both multi-level governance and for institutionalised forms of cooperation with the involvement of non-governmental actors.

5 Scoping

5.1 Thematic scoping

The conceptual basis of and connections between the smart models developed under the UGB project are shown in *Figure 3*.

The basic starting point for decision making associated with the complex issue of UGS development and management is the multi-stakeholder governance approach: this includes the involvement of governmental and non-governmental organisations, such as civil society, businesses, academia and the media.

Smart, GIS-based solutions have a strong role in supporting the whole process, and these are addressed in Model 1 of the UGB project.

Models 2 and 3 cover separate areas of the multi-stakeholder environment. Model 2 focuses on citizens and civil society organisations under the framework of community involvement. Model 3 provides a flexible methodology for multi-stakeholder governance that addresses internal and external cooperation frameworks. Model 3 focuses on two important aspects: (Model 3.1) multi-level governance and (Model 3.2) institutionalised forms of cooperation with non-governmental actors.

Both Model 2 and Model 3 address multiple stakeholders. The scope of Model 2 can be differentiated from the scope of the sub-topic of Model 3 in terms of institutionalized forms of cooperation with non-governmental actors (Model 3.2), according to the following:

- While Model 2 focuses on bottom-up approaches, in Model 3.2 the focus is on top-down approaches.
- Model 2 focuses on work with citizens, and on consultation.
- The sub-topic on institutionalised forms of cooperation deals with arrangements that are explicitly initiated and led by public authorities based on a contractual form according to which responsibilities are delegated to non-governmental actor.

During the pilot implementations it became clear that while point one is easily justifiable, pilots under Model 3 always presented top-down approaches, differentiation based on point 2 is working only in theory, in practice in most of the cases it is better and much more efficient to target all the stakeholders together.

The two sub-topics of Model 3 can be differentiated according to the following:

- The multi-level governance sub-topic (Model 3.1) deals with multiple governmental actors.
- The institutionalised forms of cooperation sub-topic (Model 3.2) allows for arrangements between only two actors, while the focus is on cooperation with non-governmental actors.
- In multi-level governance, the final responsibility remains with the municipality, while in the case of institutionalised cooperation, the responsibility is no longer with the municipality.

This differentiation, all three points remained valid during the pilot implementation.
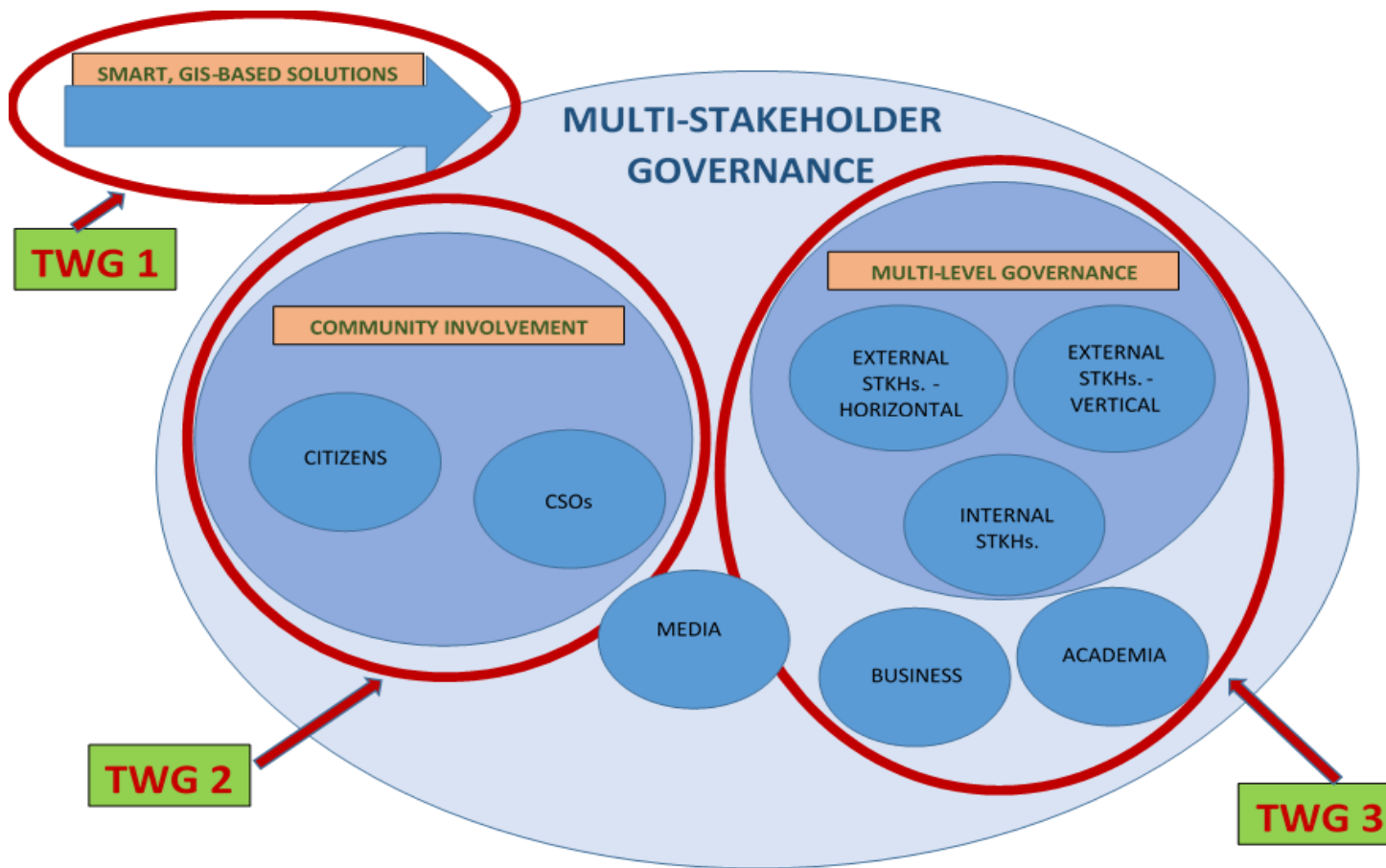
Figure 3: *Conceptual basis and connections of the three models under the UGB project*

5.2 Territorial scoping

The main aim of the multi-stakeholder governance concept is to involve all relevant stakeholders (i.e. those impacted by any planned decisions) in decision making through a dialogue process.

Besides the multi-stakeholder characteristic, effective urban green space management requires a strong multi-level approach as well. Urban green spaces are integral parts of different levels public administration units, and cooperation between these levels is essential. Within the UGB project, special attention is given to the level of Functional Urban Areas (FUAs).

An FUA is a functional economic unit characterised by densely inhabited "urban cores" and "hinterlands", and whose labour market is highly integrated with the cores. The definition, originating from labour market and commuting considerations, provides a spatial delimitation beyond administrative borders that is relevant for a multitude of thematic fields, such as transport (e.g. commuting, transport flows) economic development (e.g. labour market, strategic positioning), environment (e.g. air quality, water quality, soil sealing, urban sprawl), social well-being (e.g. health care, social housing).[1]

Figure 4 illustrates possible connections between the FUA and public administration territorial units.

The model helps in planning and implementing dialogue processes linking various territorial levels.
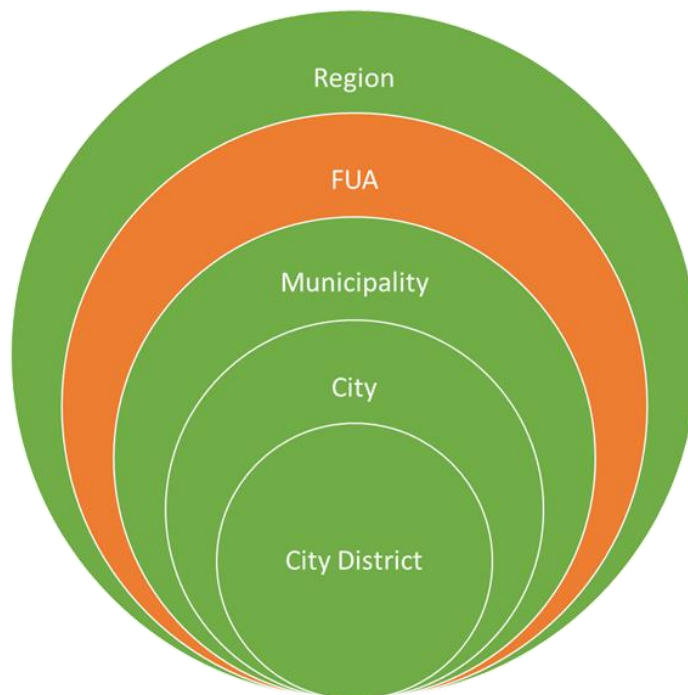

Figure 4: *The relationship between the FUA and different public administration territorial units*

During the implementation of the pilot projects it became clear that connection to the FUA depends mainly on the characteristic of the administrative structures and the type of the pilot.

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[1] http://www.interreg-central.eu/Content.Node/apply/Glossary_content.html

Pilot areas were the areas where the pilot actions under Thematic WP 2 took place. Depending on the characteristics of the pilot this could cover the whole FUA, or the whole territorial unit or could be just a part of it. In all cases the results and experience of the pilots are relevant, transferable or replicable at FUA level.

Hegyvidék (Municipality of Budapest XII. district) with the initiation of an informal forum on environmental topics (KÖZÖLD) crossed the border of the district but remained within the capital (Budapest). It was not an intention to invite municipalities outside the territory of the capital. However, at district level similar forums can be set up with surrounding municipalities. Furthermore, it is important that other authorities, like Nature Park, forest authorities can be part of the KÖZÖLD forum and their territorial relevance is for FUA level. This way the pilot has a direct effect on the whole FUAL level.
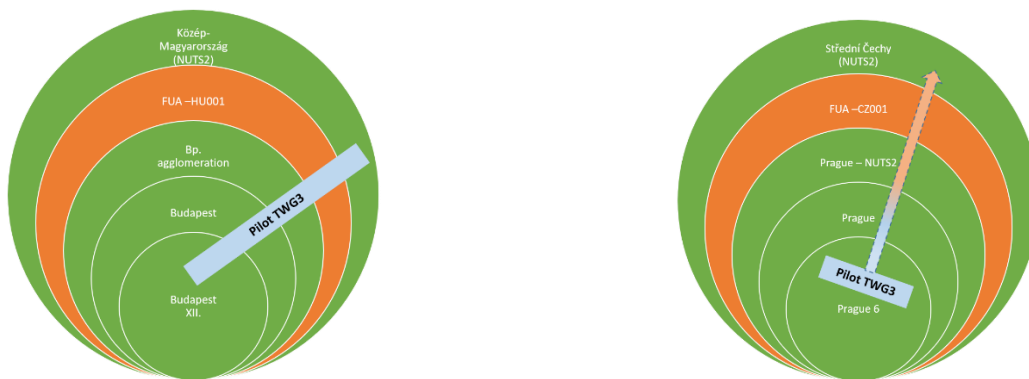
Figure 5: Connection between the pilots and the public administration units of the partners

In Prague, because of the administrative structures, districts are quite separate, no real cooperation exists among them, as it is not really needed for everyday operations. At capital level there are responsible persons for environment, but no cooperation is initiated. Still it is relevant to present the pilot results as good, replicable practice. For example, the 'green space adoption' is easily replicable, as the legal framework and the structures are the same and the content can be flexibly adopted. This way a district level pilot can have influence on the whole FUAL level, but this effect remains indirect.

As an overall experience of the pilot implementations we can declare that FUA level approaches are very valid in multi-level governance related actions. Actions related to cooperation with other than governance related stakeholders mostly have only indirect effect on the FUA level mainly by replicating successful initiatives.

6 Theoretical background

6.1 Multi-level governance

Multi-level governance is a theory of recent provenance. It has its origins in the early 1990s, and in Europe it is connected to the formulation of the European Union through the processes that culminated in the signing of the Maastricht Treaty.

The term 'multi-level governance', originally developed by the EU's Committee of the Regions (CoR) in 2009, outlines the European Commission's aim to "build Europe in partnership" through an inclusive, European decision-making process.[2]

According to the EU White Paper on Multi-Level Governance, "the shift from a resource-based to a knowledge-based European society necessitates a corresponding change in modes of governance, which should focus in the future on a more crosscutting holistic and inclusive approach resulting in more targeted Community strategies and the introduction of coordinated and integrated common policies."

The main idea behind multi-level governance was the importance of cooperation among the different government levels in a unique formulation, such as the European Union. A clearly vertical cooperation (from supranational to local level) was soon enlarged through a horizontal approach that involved cooperation among bodies at the same governance level — e.g. municipalities. The concept spread quickly during the 1990s and started to be applied in more complex processes involving several stakeholders, both directly and horizontally.

Although it is hard to draw a distinct line between multi-stakeholder and multi-level governance approaches, the most important differentiating factor is that the latter focuses on governmental organisations (government bodies and authorities), while the former focuses on non-governmental organisations (e.g. civil society, business, academia) in discussion with governmental organisations.

In the *Handbook for Multilevel Urban Governance in Europe*, multi-level governance is defined as "an arrangement for making binding decisions that engages a multiplicity of politically independent but otherwise interdependent actors — private and public — at different levels of territorial aggregation in more-or-less continuous negotiation/deliberation/implementation, and that does not assign exclusively policy competence or assert a stable hierarchy of political authority to any levels." Multi-level governance is a dynamic process that helps to increase joint ownership and implementation.[3]

A central element to the concept of multi-level governance is the recognition that delivering policies, actions and strategies is more effective in collaboration. Accordingly, in its simplest form, multi-level governance means working together across different levels of government to deliver policies more effectively.

Five principles are identified in the White Paper on European Governance that form the basis of good governance:

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[2] Coopenergy (2015) A guide to multi-level governance for local and regional authorities.
[3] Committee of the regions (2009) The White Paper on multi-level governance.

- *openness*: attaching more importance to transparency and communication in decision making;
- *participation*: ensuring participation of all relevant actors;
- *accountability*: clarifying the role of each party in the decision-making process; each actor involved should assume responsibility for the role given to them;
- *effectiveness*: decisions need to be taken at the appropriate level and time, and deliver what is needed; and
- *coherence*: ensuring coherence between diverse actions.

The application of multi-level governance contributes directly to the effective implementation and enhancement of these principles.

In multi-level governance, an integrated approach is applied that ensures the effectiveness of policy development. It involves a vertical dimension, which assists better coordination and cooperation between the different tiers of government, as well as a horizontal dimension, which brings about a coherent implementation of various sectoral policies.

Applying the multi-stakeholder governance approach can bring multiple benefits. As described in the Coopenergy project guide on multi-level governance[4], authorities can:
- ensure coherence between local, regional and national policies;
- develop clear and consistent visions reflecting local realities and strategic needs;
- establish more favourable financing mechanisms (partnerships including a range of actors can create more secure and stable conditions to attract funds and investments);
- ensure effective and harmonised communication between stakeholders;
- establish consistent monitoring and reporting practices;
- share expertise, skills and knowledge;
- pool resources, skills and techniques; and
- agree on clear roles and relationships.

In the field of urban green space management, multi-level governance incorporates diverse sectoral policies (such as employment, education, environment, culture, spatial policy and social policy) into UGS governance at diverse governance levels (neighbourhood or district, city, city-region, region and state) to achieve a holistic territorial policy approach.

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[4] Coopenergy (2015) A guide to multi-level governance. For local and regional authorities.

6.2 Institutionalised forms of cooperation with the involvement of non-governmental actors

A growing number of local authorities across Europe are investing in efforts to re-establish power relations with non-governmental actors and developing collaborative forms of governance aimed at improved management and maintenance of urban green space. Collaborative arrangements allow for more flexible, decentralised and networked governance structures, and they create opportunities for the integration of non-governmental actors, businesses, networks and citizens.

Forms of such cooperation can differ in the level of involvement of the public authority. The spectrum of possibilities includes grassroots endorsed by municipalities; co-governance (partnership between an authority and non-governmental actors, with power shared evenly between partners); and municipality-driven initiatives.

7 Methodology

The methodology includes a range of applicable instruments to involve stakeholders in planning, developing and maintaining urban green spaces. It also provides guidance on setting-up and operating integrated multi-stakeholder frameworks and new cooperation forms.

For each instrument detailed under the methodology, specific challenges associated with certain elements of UGS governance are addressed, as well as potential solutions and approaches to be applied. Practical examples are also provided for illustration purposes.

The methodology provides information on specific instruments for both multi-level governance and for institutionalised forms of cooperation with the involvement of non-governmental actors.

For the instruments tested during the pilot implementations feedback is given based on the lessons learned.

7.1 Instruments for implementing multi-level governance

The model applies an extended approach of multi-level governance, focusing on the following elements:

- cooperation with external stakeholders on a vertical level (i.e. taking a classic, multi-level approach to cooperation with higher and, if relevant, lower-level governmental bodies, and from international to local level);
- cooperation with external stakeholders on a horizontal level (on one hand, cooperation with external governmental bodies at the same governance level—e.g. competent authorities; on the other hand, including cooperation with similar governmental organisations at the same level—in our case with other municipalities, and especially within the FUA); and
- cooperation with internal stakeholders (in the context of UGS management, this refers to cooperation within the municipality with other departments, offices and municipal companies).

The instruments supporting multi-level governance detailed in the model can be grouped into the three following categories:

- instruments promoting the participation of diverse actors;
- instruments promoting territorial cooperation; and
- instruments promoting integrated local actions.

As thorough training is necessary for planning and running a multi-level governance process, the methodology also includes a training curriculum for staff to carry out their relevant assigned tasks. (*See the Annex*.)

The pilot of Hegyvidék (Municipality of Budapest XII. district) included a capacity building element, aiming to enhance the project-based cooperation of the different municipal departments. The pilot training was based on module 3 (Organizational management) of the developed training curriculum.

Main experience from the capacity building action is that it is important for local authorities to find the proper ways to operate in a partly project-based environment while keeping the traditional administrative structures as well. With the preparatory actions and meetings and the follow-up activities the municipality managed to make the training part of a process and not just a one occasion effort. The capacity building element remained alive, there are plans to keep it active for a longer term. Furthermore, although the capacity building was initiated by the Green Office of the Municipality, now new cooperation is being formulated around other topics as well, like social issues, Smart City etc.

7.1.1   Local strategic partnerships

Challenge

The absence of combined efforts at local level can seriously impede the sustainable regeneration of a local area and the delivery of improved public services that meet the needs of local people. There is a far greater chance of success when organisations and members of the community work together.[5]

Description of the instrument

In UGS governance, the establishment of a common vision, effective collaboration among various actors, and coherent action can be ensured through the establishment of local strategic partnerships. Such partnerships are initiated in most cases by governmental bodies.

Local strategic partnerships (LSPs) bring together members of the community, volunteers, representatives from the public and private sectors, and local authorities to address local problems, allocate funding, and discuss strategies and initiatives.[6] They aim to encourage collaborate work within the local community, as opposed to working in 'silos'—that is, when individuals, teams or companies might be working towards a shared objective, and often in close vicinity, but are not sharing information. As in most cases, the initiators of such partnerships are governmental bodies and authorities with key roles in driving the process. The key to the success of such partnerships, however, is vertical and horizontal cooperation between the various governmental bodies.

The main objectives of an LSP are to set out the vision of an area, to integrate existing plans and initiatives, to reduce unnecessary bureaucracy, and to coordinate the delivery of local services that improve outcomes for citizens. Benefits of a local strategic partnership include increased opportunities for joint provision of services, the ability to attract external funding and increased influence over the policies and structures of partner organizations.[6] Typically, LSPs tend to focus on the regeneration and renewal of local areas and on improving the local quality of life.

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[5] https://www.oecd.org/cfe/leed/37728868.pdf
[6] Tasan -Kok, T. and Vranken, J. (2011), *Handbook for Multilevel Urban Governance in Europe*.

Aspects to consider

First, a systematic assessment needs to be undertaken to identify and prioritise stakeholders to be included in a local strategic partnership. During the initial analysis, all the potential stakeholder groups linked to the topic in question need to be addressed. *Box 1* presents a list of various potential stakeholder categories to be taken into consideration.

LSPs: Potential stakeholder categories

- Government departments
- Government agencies
- Municipal associations
- Relevant municipalities (in case of a horizontal partnership)
- Relevant municipal companies
- Professional groups and their representative bodies
- Public institutions (e.g. schools, hospitals)
- Civil society organisations
- Community groups
- Utilities
- Private companies
- Research organisations
- Landowners and land managers
- Special-interest/lobby groups
- Media

Box 1: *Local strategic partnerships: Potential stakeholder categories*

Building on this initial identification of stakeholders, several strategic actors need to be selected for further engagement in the local strategic partnership. *Box 2* outlines several guiding questions that might be helpful in the selection process.

> **LSPs: Guiding questions for stakeholder identification**
>
> - Who can contribute substantially to creating a common vision?
> - Who will be affected by the foreseen activities?
> - Who can endorse the integration of existing plans and initiatives?
> - Will the impacts be local, regional or national?
> - Who has the power to influence the process?
> - Who are the supporters and opponents of the process?
> - Who can facilitate or impede the process through their participation, non-participation or opposition?
> - Are there specific relationships between various stakeholders that need to be addressed?
> - Who can contribute with financial or technical resources?
> - Are there stakeholder groups whose voices or concerns might not be heard?
> - Who will be responsible for implementing the foreseen activities?
>
> Based on the following source: R. Lausevic, et al. (2016), *Local Water Security Action Planning Manual*.

Box 2: *Local strategic partnerships: Guiding questions for stakeholder identification*

The initiator of the partnership needs to determine the level of engagement between the selected stakeholders in carrying out joint work. These can include the following:

- **Consult**: a consultation process in which selected actors are asked to provide basic input or feedback. The process does not provide an ongoing opportunity for input.
- **Involve**: the governmental body (the initiator) is the decision maker and there is no expectation of building consensus. Multiple opportunities are provided for input.
- **Collaborate**: stakeholders are directly engaged in decision making, and an explicit effort is made to reach consensus-based solutions. The governmental body (the initiator) remains the decision maker of last resort.

The structure of an LSP is highly flexible, is based heavily on the level of engagement, and is adaptable to meet local-level needs. This flexibility can lead to diverse arrangements, both in terms of who is represented and how the work is organised. However, local strategic partnerships typically have a board that includes senior officers from the public sector and elected members, as well as representatives from the private and community and voluntary sectors.[5]

The LSPs can use a variety of different tools and techniques, such as: forums for debate; common decision-making mechanisms; facilitations of community strategic planning; performance management systems; and mechanisms for monitoring and reporting progress.

Case study: **Local Strategic Partnerships in England**

Local strategic partnerships (LSPs) exist in nearly all local authority areas in England. They bring together representatives from the public, voluntary, community and private sectors to address local problems, allocate funding, and discuss strategies and initiatives. About one-third of these LSPs are in areas that currently receive Neighbourhood Renewal Funding (NRF), which is made available to the most deprived authorities. Some of these partnerships date back to local initiatives in the early 1990s, while others were set up later. LSPs were introduced following the Local Government Act of 2000. In some local authority areas, they have made great strides towards improving the local quality of life. LSPs perform a critical role in further developing coherent service provision and sustainable communities.

Support for the establishment of LSPs stems from the need to address the problem of a lack of joint work at local level, which in turn impedes the delivery sustainable economic, social and physical regeneration, and delays making improvements to public services.

In England, LSPs are non-statutory, non-executive organisations. Partnerships are typically funded through public service budgets, partner contributions and central government grants. The policy areas addressed by LSPs include economy, social and environmental well-being, community development, the labour market and social inclusion.

Source: https://www.oecd.org/cfe/leed/37728868.pdf

Feedback from pilot implementation

Local Strategic Partnership was tested by Municipality of XII. District of Budapest, during the setup of the KÖZÖLD forum. The forum was initiated by the XII. District and aimed to have a coordination forum among the districts of the capital to discuss environment related topics. The initiative was taken by the central municipality of the capital and now it is the 'owner' of the forum. It is an unofficial forum, there are no signed commitments from the participants, that is deliberate, as the forum is an expert forum, and this is the way how the discussion can be kept open enough. If there is an agreement or decision that something should be treated at official level, then it is initiated by the forum, and as a guiding principle a Local Action Team can be set up for that reason.

The main experience from the pilot is that at expert level people are quite open for discussion, the forum is quite useful to harmonize ideas and potential solutions to problems. To get signed commitments is much harder and on the other hand it limits openness of the forum. When setting up a Local Strategic Partnership this definitely should be taken into account and the most viable way of cooperation should be chosen.

7.1.2   Local action teams

Challenge

In the context of urban green space governance, a challenge that occurs repeatedly is how to successfully design and implement local initiatives that integrate relevant views, knowledge and expertise.

Description of the instrument

While local strategic partnerships, together with strategic directions and priorities, help define the broader vision for a local area, local action teams (LATs) focus instead on specific concrete projects or initiatives.

LATs, created to define effective community-led projects, aim to adopt a proactive multi-agency approach. Such targeted working groups can be composed of elected people, practitioners and community organisers who are able to activate different stakeholders around sustainable local action plans.[7] In practice, LATs are small teams of local experts from different organisations.

Compared with local strategic partnerships, LATs are less formal and more practical forms of cooperation. In larger frameworks, several local action teams can be formed simultaneously, each of which addresses specific local issues, while complementing each other. One or several LATs can be established under a broader local strategic partnership.

Aspects to consider

As in the case of establishing a local strategic partnership, a systematic assessment needs to be undertaken to identify and prioritise stakeholders to be included in a local action team. *Box 1* under section 7.1.1 presents a list of potential stakeholder categories to be taken into consideration. Building on this initial identification of stakeholders, strategic actors need to be selected to act as members of a local action team. One should keep in mind that local action teams are smaller working groups than local strategic partnerships: they focus on more specific issues or initiatives, and thus cover fewer thematic areas. Therefore, the selection process is more targeted, and the range of actors will be smaller than in the case of local strategic partnerships. If there is a local strategic partnership already in place, local action team members can be chosen from the actors involved in the broader partnership. *Box 3* lists several guiding questions that might be helpful in the selection process.

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[7] Tasan -Kok, T. and Vranken, J. (2011), *Handbook for Multilevel Urban Governance in Europe*.

LATs: Guiding questions for stakeholder identification

- Who can contribute substantially to developing the initiative or project?
- Who has specific expertise associated with the initiative or project?
- Will the impacts be local, regional or national?
- Who has the power to influence the process?
- Who can facilitate or impede the process through their participation, non-participation or opposition?
- Who can contribute with financial or technical resources?
- Who will be responsible for implementing the foreseen activities?

Based on the following source: R. Lausevic, et al. (2016), *Local Water Security Action Planning Manual*.

Box 3: *Local action teams: Guiding questions for stakeholder identification*

Local action teams can be established through either a vertical or horizontal approach and be organised based on a vertical approach. LATs can facilitate coordination and cooperation between different tiers of government and can support horizontal cooperation by integrating a diverse range of actors.

Case study: **Local action groups in Padua Province (LAG Patavino)**

LAG Patavino is a limited liability consortium composed of private (80 percent) and public (20 percent) shareholders. LAG Patavino includes 23 municipalities in south-west Padua Province with a combined population of 125,214. The main goals are to support the local economy and agricultural products, and to enhance natural and cultural assets through rural development projects. The purpose of creating local action groups is to develop and advance common projects through the coordination of ideas and actions, instead of through individual initiatives. The participation of different actors increases the exchange of information and ideas that can facilitate economically and mutually beneficial initiatives for the territory.

The core activity of LAG Patavino is to support the realisation of the measures contained in the Local Development Programme for 2007–2013.

LAG Patavino is managed both by public and private agencies, including the Padua Provincial Council, the Padua Industry, Crafts and Agriculture Chamber of Commerce, the regional board of the Euganei Hills Regional Park, farmers' associations, associations of craftsmen, local traders' associations, and the Antonveneta Bank. LAG Patavino works as a team through the permanent consultation tables that have been established to address various sectors or issues: the Institutional Table gathers representatives from all the municipalities of the considered territory; the Economics Table includes actors dealing with agriculture; the Financial Table gathers all credit institutions; and the Tourism Table includes agencies, consortia and the University of Padua. The work performed by the consultation tables has been essential in elaborating the Local Development Programme, and it is essential in terms of converting strategies into concrete actions.

In total, 255 projects have been financed by LAG Patavino with European funds (mostly through the LEADER Programme), with a total investment of EUR 17.23 million, of which EUR 11.37 has been received by way of grants.

Source: http://www.galpatavino.it/eng/about-us.html

Case study: **SITxell — Territorial Information System for the Network of Open Areas (Barcelona Province)**

The Barcelona Provincial Council has been drawing up a territorial information system since 2001: SITxell (and acronym in Catalan for Territorial Information System for the Network of Open Areas) contains a categorisation and assessment of non-urban land based on the analysis of its ecological and socio-economic characteristics. SITxell is a cartographic and alphanumeric database that helps with the study, analysis, evaluation and planning of open areas in Barcelona Province.

From a technological point of view, SITxell is a system structured through different layers of geographical information. At the political level, SITxell is a tool intended to assist local and regional-scale planning processes by providing accurate and reliable socio-economic and ecological information and criteria for plans and projects developed by the competent authorities.

The general objectives of SITxell are: to provide accurate, reliable and useful knowledge about the ecological and socioeconomic values of natural areas; to enable use of a multidisciplinary analysis tool to support spatial land planning and other specific land use decisions; and to make decision makers and land use planners at different political and territorial levels aware of the need for an integrated approach to land use planning and management.

The success of SITxell is based on the strength and usefulness of the information, its applicability for land use planning at different scales, and strong partnerships with various levels of government, universities, research centres and the private sector.

Under SITxell, information is gathered about natural areas and farmland under different headings, such as habitats, flora, fauna, hydrology, geology, socioeconomics, landscape ecology and ecosystem services.

To ensure the quality and accuracy, SITxell has been based on close collaboration between a wide range of actors, including municipal and county councils, departments of the Government of Catalonia, Barcelona's metropolitan institutions, scientific and technical institutions, university departments, research centres, specialised private consultants and civil society organisations.

Source: http://www.sitxell.eu/ca/default.asp

Feedback from pilot implementation

Local Action Team as a tool was originally selected to support tree alleys renewing activities of the Municipality of XII. district of Budapest. Establishing a so-called Tree Council seemed to be a visible and transparent platform and marketing tool for supporting the recognition of the importance of urban green spaces. During the implementation it became clear that the action team cannot be set up for an overall renewing activity. Therefore, a Tree Raw Replacement Strategy was developed by the municipality and then it was decided that LATs will be established for certain parts of the implementation of the strategy, meaning smaller areas, or just one street. Furthermore, the municipality decided to add a communication

strategy to the Tree Replacement Strategy with the aim is to include citizens, experts, NGOs etc. more into the LATs.

It is important to highlight that LAT is an advisory body, decision-making remains with the municipality.

The main experience that LATs are more useful for certain, well defined projects and not for larger, general, more strategic actions. Furthermore, it is essential to have a well operating stakeholder network or a proper communication strategy to support the setting up and the work of the LAT.

7.1.3   Urban green space strategy and local action plans

Challenge

In the absence of a targeted strategy, decisions on urban green space development and maintenance are taken in an ad-hoc, non-harmonised manner. This can lead to an inefficient use of resources, conflicting interests, and inadequate development and management of urban green spaces. Even if there is a strategy in place, the lack of a detailed action plan can bring about situations in which the steps necessary for implementation are not determined and responsibilities and sources are not properly allocated.

Description of the instruments

The purpose of an urban green space strategy is to confront a given situation (e.g. problems, conflicts, potentials and needs) and to put forth a vision for the future based on collective goals. Such strategies are required to address a variety of development objectives, and they must be able to effectively defend these objectives against other urban development and planning goals and the aspirations of other governmental actors.

In short, the aims of a green space strategy are:

- to safeguard the future of green spaces;
- to improve the quality of urban areas;
- to make urban areas more attractive and to thereby attract more resources; and
- to enhance the well-being of local people.[8]

An action plan can be defined as a "sequence of steps that must be taken, or activities that must be performed well, for a strategy to succeed."[9] Action plans have several essential components, including:

- definition of targeted goals;
- identification of appropriate actions;
- prioritisation of actions;
- definition of responsibilities;
- allocation of resources;

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[8] GreenKeys (2008), *A Guide for Urban Green Quality*.
[9] http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/action-plan.html

- setting a timeframe;
- identifying potential risks and mitigation measures;
- developing procedures to monitor progress; and
- developing indicators for evaluation.

Action plans in general can focus on a certain topic (e.g. one element of urban green space, such as parks, or urban forests) or certain geographical areas (e.g. green spaces in a certain district, or a smaller area for revitalisation).

Aspects to consider

Green space strategies can be elaborated by local strategic partnerships to help increase joint ownership and implementation, and to assist in applying a more crosscutting, holistic and inclusive approach.

Local action plans, in the ideal sense, are closely linked to green space strategies and are developed according to the principles of multi-level governance. This means that all relevant stakeholders are directly involved in the elaboration of these strategic documents. Vertical and horizontal cooperation is essential, and can be ensured by the establishment and proper involvement of a local action team.

Case study: **Green space strategy and action plans of the North Hertfordshire District Council**

The North Hertfordshire District Council (NHDC) in England has adopted a Green Space Management Strategy for North Hertfordshire for 2017–2021, as well as several specific action plans linked to it. The overall objective of the strategy is to provide a sustainable, strategic approach for the future management of green space. More specific objectives among others are: to highlight the value and role of parks and green spaces in meeting corporate and community needs; to provide a framework to work in partnership with key stakeholders along with volunteers to deliver improvements and external funding opportunities to green space; and to provide clear policies that prioritise essential green space investment requirements for the next four years.

The strategy was built on the findings of a citizen panel exercise, in which residents' uses of parks and open spaces and the main purposes of their park visits were analysed.

The strategy has set three priorities for the forthcoming four years: to provide an attractive and safe environment for residents; to promote sustainable growth; and to ensure the delivery of cost-effective and necessary services. The document also outlines the key funding sources for the 2017–2021 period.

A set of five specific green space action plans were linked to the broader green space strategy. The action plans focus on churchyards and cemeteries; allotments; green space; outdoor play provision; and outdoor sports facilities. The action plans also include an investment programme that provides information on the earmarked amounts for planned activities.

Source: https://www.north-herts.gov.uk/sites/northherts-cms/files/Green%20Space%20Management%20Strategy%202017-2021.pdf

7.1.4 Territorial pacts

Challenge

Insufficient cooperation between different levels of government leads to unsynchronised objectives and goals regarding UGS development and conflicting decisions on available resources.

Description of the instrument

A territorial pact is a multi-level agreement between local, regional, and national government organisations, according to which they commit to coordinating and synchronising their policy agendas to focus their actions and financial resources.[10]

The territorial pact is a means of bringing together all the resources present at the local level and directing them towards the realisation of shared development objectives.[11]

The aim of these pacts is to maintain and coordinate various development projects in a territory (a province, city or a large neighbourhood) and to put them into an integrated framework, based on bargaining. In a territorial pact, the partners define a set of development goals for the territory; select projects according to these goals; and agree on measures to facilitate and support their realisation.[12]

Aspects to consider

The process of concluding a territorial pact is based on consensus-making and a process of bargaining. This entails that such solutions need to be sought that are beneficial for all parties who may advocate different priorities.

The scope of territorial pacts can vary widely in terms of:
- tiers of administration involved (local, regional, national, European);
- nature of the partnership (vertical or horizontal);
- type of remit (setting guidelines or delivery of products or results);
- scope of action (broad or specific);
- sectors involved;
- duration of the agreement (temporary or permanent); and
- funding (European, national, local or private, or no funding).[13]

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[10] Committee of the Regions (2011), 'Territorial Pacts: Making the most of Europe 2020 through partnership'.
[11] Tasan-Kok, T. and Vranken, J. (2011), *Handbook for Multilevel Urban Governance in Europe*.
[12] https://www.eurofound.europa.eu/observatories/eurwork/articles/labour-market/territorial-pacts-a-new-form-of-decentralised-social-dialogue
[13] Committee of the Regions (2011), 'Territorial Pacts: Making the most of Europe 2020 through partnership'.

Case study: **Green Siena Territorial Pact**

The Green Siena Territorial Pact was initiated by the Province of Siena in Italy. The objective of the pact was to increase employment and investments in agriculture and farm tourism, with the long-term aim of integrating high-quality agriculture with local products, environmental protection and tourism. One specific objective is to promote a development path for agriculture that ensures a balance between the use and the protection of natural resources. In addition to the Provincial Administration of Siena, the initiative was supported by 20 municipalities in the Province of Siena, one municipality in the Province of Florence, the Chamber of Commerce of Siena, representatives of the banking and credit sector, representatives of the trade union workers' associations, and representatives of the professional entrepreneurial unions. Those who signed the pact agree to respect its principles and other commitments associated with the areas of agriculture, environment and tourism.

Sources: OECD Territorial Reviews: Siena, Italy 2002. http://green.terresiena.it/en/project/pact-for-sustainability

7.2 Instruments for institutionalised forms of cooperation with the involvement of non-governmental actors

Public authorities initiate and lead the arrangements listed in this section. These forms of cooperation are based on a contractual agreement according to which responsibilities are delegated to non-governmental actors.

The type of cooperation can differ in terms of the level of involvement of the public authority. The spectrum of possibilities includes: grassroots endorsed by municipalities; co-governance (partnership between an authority and non-governmental actors, with power shared evenly between partners); and municipality-driven initiatives.

In such forms of institutionalised cooperation, the responsibility no longer remains with the municipality, but is delegated instead to the contracted parties.

The instruments detailed under this section target different types of urban green spaces, such as:

- business improvement districts (larger areas or neighbourhoods within a municipal territory);
- green barters (mostly neglected urban green spaces or derelict areas); and
- green space adoption and grant programmes (smaller sections of green spaces, such as kerbside trees, hedges, street greens and green verges, neighbourhood greens, roundabouts and abandoned areas.

Aspects to consider

Typically, instruments for institutionalised forms of cooperation with the involvement of non-governmental actors are applied when local lack sufficient economic and human resources to properly maintain and develop urban green space. The selection of an appropriate instrument mostly depends on the type and size of the green space, and on the type of the resource that is lacking. For example:

- *Business improvement districts* are appropriate tools for maintaining green space in larger areas or whole neighbourhoods, and when additional funds need to be secured for such a purpose.
- *Green barters* can help in securing funds for the maintenance of neglected urban green spaces.
- *Green space adoption* can ensure additional economic and human resources for properly maintaining and developing smaller pieces of green spaces.
- In contrast, instead of focusing on lacking economic resources, *grant programmes* can effectively address the lack of human resources needed for proper maintenance and development of smaller sections of green spaces.

7.2.1 Business improvement districts

Challenge

Local authorities often lack sufficient resources for developing urban green space, or even for properly maintaining existing green space in larger areas and neighbourhoods within their municipal territory.

Description of the instrument

Business improvement districts (BIDs) are fast becoming popular globally: there are thousands throughout the world, including 1,400 in the United States and growing numbers in Europe (especially in the United Kingdom and Germany), South Africa and Canada.

A BID is an independent, business-owned and business-led company that seeks to improve a designated location for commercial activity. Within this location, businesses are required to pay an additional tax or levy to fund projects within the district's boundaries. The BID, funded primarily through this levy, can also draw from other streams of public and private funding.

BIDs are typically created through an election process. If a majority of firms in an area votes to join the BID, then all are compelled by law to do so. Members pay a levy, collected with their business rates, which helps fund collective projects that benefit the whole area. The BID is renewed every four or five years with a fresh election. BIDs primarily provide services that councils lacking sufficient resources have cut.[14]

A BID is tool for directly involving local businesses in local activities, and which allows the business community and local authorities to work together to improve the local trading environment. Various services can be provided through a BID: the only requirement is that the service should be something in addition to those provided by local authorities. Improvements can include, among others, urban green space management, extra safety, cleaning and maintenance, or other environmental measures. A BID can be set up by the local authority, a business rate payer, or an individual or company whose purpose is to develop the area. BIDs typically charge a levy rate of between 1 percent and 4 percent of rateable value. Once the term of operation is completed, the BID ceases automatically. If the BID company wants to continue its activities, it must hold a new election. A BID body, is charged with managing a BID: this is often a private company, but can be a partnership with the local authority. Most BID bodies operate as not-for-profit companies.[15]

In England and Wales, BIDs were introduced through legislation (the Local Government Act of 2003) and subsequent regulations in 2004.[16] In Germany, several Federal States (Länder) have introduced specific legal framework to create BIDs.

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[14] http://www.economist.com/news/britain/21583704-companies-are-stepping-provide-services-councils-are-cutting-bid-victory

[15] https://www.gov.uk/guidance/business-improvement-districts

[16] Cook, I. R. (2008), 'Mobilising urban policies: The transfer of US Business Improvement Districts to England and Wales, *Urban Studies* 45 (4).

The existence of a national or regional legislative framework, however, is not a prerequisite for the formation of a BID. In Serbia, as part of the country's 2002 local government reform programme, financed by USAID, two cities received support to form their own business improvement districts. As the two cities, Valjevo and Zrenjanin, had no experience in downtown or town centre management, and thus no existing norms or practices, their BIDs were established relatively quickly. Later, in 2003, it was decided by national and local officials and local businesses that a third Serbian BID would be established in the city of Kruševac, and a fourth one in Niš.[17]

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*Case study***: Better Bankside, a London-based, business-led green space management scheme**

Better Bankside is a non-profit business improvement district (BID) scheme established in 2005. The BID area stretches between Blackfriars and London Bridges, and south to Southwark Street in London's Bankside District. BIDs are independent, business-owned and business-led companies that seek to improve a given location for commercial activity. Better Bankside is run by its members, comprising more than 620 companies operating in the BID area, each of which pays an annual levy.

The U.K. Parliament approved legislation allowing the creation of business improvement districts in September 2004. Better Bankside, one of the first BIDs to be established in the U.K., was approved by ballot in 2005.; it was approved by ballot on two subsequent occasions, as well, in 2010 and 2014. Businesses that lie within the BID area and for which total rateable values of their business premises reach a certain threshold (GBP 17,500) are eligible to vote. Based on the approvals, the BID is funded through a compulsory levy on all eligible businesses within the boundaries it has set. Levy income is supplemented by a range of non-levy sources (including voluntary subscriptions from non-levy-paying businesses, voluntary contributions to corporate social responsibility, and grants from various sources).

The services of Better Bankside are additional to those provided by the local authority and other actors. Better Bankside has a core programme that includes cleaning, greening and safety services.

Launched in 2007, Bankside Urban Forest is a long-term partnership project run under the Better Bankside initiative, which aims to improve and regenerate the network of public space features in the Bankside area, such as streets, pavements, squares and parks.

The strategy introduces elements associated with green infrastructure and urban resilience, but it also has strong social and economic aspects. The aim of the project is not at turn the area literally into a forest, though it does create opportunities for greening, using trees, planted walls and other means.

The project encourages investment in streets and other public spaces; promotes greater exploration, footfall and cycling across the area; and helps to improve local connections between green spaces, amenities and where people live and work. Bankside Urban Forest aims to establish connections between people and places in Bankside.

Source: http://www.betterbankside.co.uk/

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[17] Ward, K. (2007), 'Imagining urban futures', Working Paper 2, Business Improvement Districts: policy origins, mobile policies, and urban liveability.

7.2.2 Green barters

Challenge

A general problem for local authorities is a lack of sufficient resources for developing or properly maintaining certain neglected urban green spaces.

Description of the instrument

For businesses, green barter arrangements involve the exchange of maintenance or development obligations for a formalised right to use the values of a given space for business profits. In such schemes, a kind of bartering procedure is developed between municipalities and businesses in which businesses are granted permission to profit in certain ways from services delivered in relation to urban green space development; in return, these businesses invest in the enhancement of maintenance of specific urban green space. Green barters can vary from a short-term business deal to longer-lasting and more complex partnerships.[18]

Case study: **Public-private participation for green space rehabilitation in Lodz**

In Lodz, Poland, a public-private partnership played a significant role in the rehabilitation of a park area bordering a construction site. The Lisciasta Park Residence, with seven buildings with 158 apartments, is a residential area in the northern part of Lodz that was completed in 2013. This area is bordered on the south and east by a park with a small river and several reservoirs. A large amount of construction waste, left from the construction of nearby housing estates built decades ago, was lying beneath the ground in the wilder sections of the park.

The developer company, Budomal, started construction of the Lisciasta complex in 2009. In 2013, at the time of sale of the second batch of apartments, the company proposed that it would clean up and rehabilitate the adjacent green space, partly as a compensation for the trees that had to be removed because of the construction activities, and partly to develop the residential neighbourhood. The size of the contaminated area that needed rehabilitation was approximately 600 m². The offer was taken up by the municipality, and a short-term public-private partnership was established between the City Office and the developer to rehabilitate a section of the park adjacent to the residential area. Under this temporary arrangement, the land is still publicly owned; and after rehabilitation, its everyday management has been taken over by the City Office.

Source: Buijs, A., et al. (2016), GREEN SURGE, Deliverable 6.2: 'Innovative governance of urban green spaces – Learning from 18 innovative examples across Europe'.

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[18] Buijs, A., et al. (2016) GREEN SURGE, Deliverable 6.2: 'Innovative governance of urban green spaces – Learning from 18 innovative examples across Europe'.

7.2.3 Green space adoption

Challenge

Oftentimes, local authorities lack the economic and human resources sufficient to properly maintain and develop small sections of green space, such as kerbside trees, hedges, street greens and green verges, neighbourhood greens, roundabouts and abandoned areas.

Description of the instrument

Under a scheme targeting green space adoption, businesses sign contracts with the municipality for a certain period, according to which they agree to develop and maintain smaller sections of green spaces and areas in return for on-site acknowledgement of their business-sponsored activities (e.g. a plaque or sign or other visible means of promotion). Additionally, the scheme can be supported by economic incentives, such as tax reduction or exemption. Through such an arrangement, public funds earmarked for green space maintenance can be substantially reduced, while at the same time local businesses gain a unique opportunity to promote their activities.

Case study: **Adopted green spaces in Oradea**

The Municipality of Oradea, Romania, launched an initiative that allowed some smaller green spaces to be 'adopted' by private companies. In line with the programme, businesses sign one-year contracts with the municipality (the contracts can be extended). The contracted companies become exempt from fees that they would normally pay to use public spaces for private purposes.

The demand for such green space development has increased significantly. Because of the limited number of green spaces on offer, companies are queuing to acquire new spaces. By May 2015, 56 portions of green space had been 'adopted', 18 of which are roundabouts.

Source: Buijs, A. et al. (2016) GREEN SURGE, Deliverable 6.2: 'Innovative governance of urban green spaces – Learning from 18 innovative examples across Europe'.

Feedback from pilot implementation

In Prague 6 Green Space Adoption was tested for establishing a therapeutic garden. The intention of the municipality was to establish a garden that is used and maintained by disabled or old people through an organization working with them. After analysing several areas finally an agreement was signed with an NGO dealing with disabled children. The building where the NGO operates and the land around that is owned by the municipality. Now the land is leased to the NGO for 10 years to establish and maintain the garden. In this case the benefit to the NGO is not a promotional one, as they can use the garden as a therapeutic element in their activities.

The main lesson learnt during the pilot is that it was hard to find the right land and the right organization. Contracting and application of the scheme itself was relatively easy, no legal constraints occurred.

7.2.4   Grant programmes

Challenge

Oftentimes, local authorities lack the economic and human resources sufficient to properly maintain and develop small sections of green space, such as kerbside trees, hedges, street greens and green verges, neighbourhood greens, roundabouts and abandoned areas.

Description of the instrument

Under grant programmes, funding provided by the municipality obligates the grant awardees to meet certain objectives and to adhere to some specific funding requirements. Grants can support community groups, civil society organisations, individuals and businesses for taking on responsibility for green space maintenance (or, in specific cases, development).

Case study: Maintenance contracts in Utrecht

The Municipality of Utrecht, Netherlands, introduced maintenance contracts in the 1980s, which allowed citizens to maintain certain sections of public green space in their present shape. Within this new system, the changing needs and wishes of residents are woven into the contract terms, as well as certain municipal procedures. The consequence of this arrangement is that the design and maintenance of green spaces have been increasingly adapted in line with the wishes of residents.

The municipal Department of Public Works had several reasons for developing this contract model. First, the economic recession in the 1980s forced the Utrecht authorities to cut spending on the maintenance of public green space. Second, the municipality also wanted to avoid the use of herbicides and to rely instead on costlier manual weeding. Third, it was at that time that the idea of engaging citizens in policy and management became popular in the Netherlands.

At the same time, several groups of residents were developing proposals for public green space elements that they wanted to manage themselves, although this need conflicted with the municipal bureaucracy.

Against this backdrop, the idea was raised to let citizens maintain elements of public green space themselves. According to the concept if, if the locals wanted to preserve the more expensive, labour-intensive green space elements in their neighbourhood, they would have to maintain them themselves. After the initiative was launched, the municipal authorities became much more supportive of citizens' initiatives, and room was created for discussion and negotiation.

In economic terms, the scheme functions as a grant programme. In the various districts of Utrecht, separate 'liveability' budgets are made available to finance garden renovations on the basis of written estimates provided by the self-managers, as well as to subsidise self-management associations. The district bureau also provides credit notes for the self-managers, with which the latter can go to a gardening centre to buy tubers and bulbs.

A wide range of objects are now resident-managed, including roadside verges, conservation areas, a monastery garden, a common backyard, and even 'non-green' public areas like playgrounds. By 2002, the number of contracts had increased to approximately 600 for the eight older districts of Utrecht.

Source: Carmen Aalbers, C. and Ekamper, T. (2002), 'The Utrecht-Houten Case Study', Alterra Green World Research.

Feedback from pilot implementation

The grant programme part of the pilot was based on a previous scheme of Prague 6. That was a successful but rather small scheme for citizens / detached houses for maintain/modernize their green area. Based on the experience the new scheme is a modified version, changed in (1) target group, (2) scope of activities, (3) contracting terms.

An important experience of the pilot is that these type of grant programmes should be planned well in advance as their budget is approved by municipality (yearly base). Furthermore, in Prague 6 the municipality could build on the experience of the previous programme. Starting from the ground demands more preparatory tasks to map the needs and develop appropriate scheme. In this case it is also suggested

to have a test phase or keep a rolling planning for the scheme in order to keep the essential level of flexibility.

7.2.5   Social enterprises

Challenge:

One of the problems public administrations are facing during the realization of publicly beneficial projects with the potential to generate economic added value are legal difficulties restricting entities under public law to flexibly manage revenues.

Description of the instruments:

The European Commission developed the following definition for social enterprise in the communication on the Social Business Initiative[19]:

'A social enterprise is an operator in the social economy whose main objective is to have a social impact rather than make a profit for their owners or shareholders. It operates by providing goods and services for the market in an entrepreneurial and innovative fashion and uses its profits primarily to achieve social objectives. It is managed in an open and responsible manner and, in particular, involve employees, consumers and stakeholders affected by its commercial activities.'

In line with OECD, social enterprises are organisations that can take different legal forms across countries to pursue both social and economic goals with an entrepreneurial spirit. Social enterprises are emerging in the provision of community services, including in the educational, cultural and environmental fields. Social enterprises are directly engaged in the production and/or sale of goods and services, unlike traditional non-profit organisations. Activities carried out by them require a minimum number of paid workers, even if they may combine voluntary and paid workers.[20]

Social enterprises are not volunteer organizations in that they operate as an enterprise by selling in a market, and can be registered as for-profit or non-profit. Profits are principally used to fund social programs.[21]

Social enterprises undertake business activities that can directly benefit the environment and the management of green spaces. They can play an important role in local development and often create job opportunities for people with health, social or cultural disadvantages. Profit is generally used for the further development of a social enterprise. It is equally important for such forms of business to achieve profit as well as to increase public benefit.

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[19] European Commission (2011), Social Business Initiative. Creating a favourable climate for social enterprises, key stakeholders in the social economy and innovation. COM(2011) 682 final

[20] OECD, The social enterprise sector: A conceptual framework

[21] https://www.investopedia.com/terms/s/social-enterprise.asp

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