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# BRIGHT FUTURE management plan

SPECIFICATION OF THE KEY RESEARCH AND PROCEDURAL QUESTIONS

EDITORS: DAVID BOLE, JANI KOZINA, JERNEJ TIRAN

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# 1. Abbreviations

- AB: Advisory board
- CICADIT: University of Bucharest – Interdisciplinary Center for Advanced Research on Territorial Dynamics
- PI: project investigator
- PP: project partner
- PPI: principal project investigator
- SB: Steering board
- SL: Social Life Limited
- UEF: University of Eastern Finland – Department of Geographical and Historical Studies
- UvA-AISSR: University of Amsterdam – Amsterdam Institute for Social Science Research (AISSR)
- SIT: small industrial town(s)
- YF: The Young Foundation
- ZRC SAZU: Research centre of the Slovenian academy of sciences and arts
- WP: work package

# 2. Overall research questions and research hypotheses

## 2.1 Introduction

In the project, we think that the post-industrial models and paradigms do not represent the final nor the complete point of discussion about future urban development. Rather, we believe that they serve as a basis for critical reflection and further dialogue on the role of industry, particularly in smaller traditional manufacturing/mining towns across Europe. There is a sense that most post-industrial urban models such as the global city, post-fordist city, cultural city, etc., paint a rather negative and gloomy picture of industrial activities in cities. It is sometimes implied that manufacturing is to be avoided, turned into something "better" (upgraded) into more "creative" or "innovative". Policy prescriptions routinely overlook industry- and place-specific factors that enable or restrict the viability of manufacturing over time (Doussard & Schrock, 2015). Urban policies have followed this footpath, arguably tailor-made for larger urban conurbations than for smaller towns. Those policies came to life with different revitalisation strategies, which are often more concerned with marketing and branding places as the 'new knowledge cities' (Van Winden, 2010), or forcing cultural-led development without respecting existing conditions (Cruickshank, Ellingsen, & Hidle, 2013; Gainza, 2016; Gribat, 2013) or with doubtful overall effects (Beekmans, Ploegmakers, Martens, & van der Krabben, 2015).

On the other hand, most recent research acknowledges that small and medium sized towns in Europe are under-researched and have their own specific territorial capital and related territorial potentials (Servillo, Atkinson, & Hamdouch, 2017). The main challenge is to find embedded local social, cultural and economic specificities in small industrial towns, which enable them to evolve further – which they appear to do since a significant share of small and medium sized towns in Europe maintains their productive economic base[1]. By 'evolving further', we imply that they hold certain socio-cultural specificities derived from their specific industrial history and their embeddedness in regional/national urban systems. Those are enabling them to either maintain their (neo)industrial character or bring

[1] In a study of 31 sample towns across Europe by Hamdouch et al. 2017, 29 % of towns had a predominately productive economic profile, 61 % had a mixed profile (residential/creative/productive), while 10 % had a residential profile.

new development based on past industrial traditions. This concept for initiating tailored development is called the territorial approach to development (TAD), which fosters grass root initiatives, and promotes new mechanisms for economic development (Cartwright, Pieterse, & Swilling, 2016). In the project, we wish to analyse a set of small industrial towns across Europe as case studies, to identify those specificities[2] and finally direct regeneration and other urban policies towards respecting the particularities of the small European industrial town.

This chapter is structured as follows:

- In the first part first a common understanding of the key terms used in the project: small industrial towns, post-industrial models and social innovations are explained;
- In the second part, the BRIGHT FUTURE working model is presented with key questions and hypothesis.
- In the third part comparative approach and key methodological orientations for future work are given.

## 2.2 Preliminary explanation of most common terms

### Small towns

Small towns are vital elements and at the same time a predominant feature of settlement systems in all developed countries (Wirth et. al., 2016, ESPON 1.4.1, 2006). They bridge metropolitan and rural areas and thus balance the national and regional settlement systems (Filipović et. al., 2016; Hinderink & Titus, 1988; Maly, 2016 in: Steinführer et. al. 2016). It is often less well acknowledged that around 56 % of European urban population live in small- and medium-sized towns (CEC 2011) and around one-fifth in small towns (Steinführer et. al. 2016).

There are numerous methodologies how to define urban settlement and small towns in European countries. Small towns are usually defined and further classified with administrative (e.g. population thresholds, administrative role), morphological (population density, continuity of the built-up area), and socio-economic criteria (dominant function, socio-economic performance). In a recent study of ESPON TOWN Project (Small and medium sized towns in their functional territorial context; 2012–2014; Servillo et al. 2014), morphological criteria (combination of population size and population density) was used (table 1).

Table 1: Typology of SMST according to population size (Sevillo 2014):

| | |
|---|---|
| **small SMST** | **population density of more than 300 inh./km2 and a population of less than 25,000** |
| medium SMST | population density of more than 300 inh./km2 and a population between 25,000 and 50,000 |
| large SMST | population density of more than 300 inh./km2 (but smaller than 1,500 inh./km2) and a population of more than 50,000. |

[2] Those might be specific personal networks (Musterd & Gritsai, 2012) or strong local identity, social cohesiveness, human capital, specific past knowledge or practices … and a myriad of other possible factors that we construe as »socio-cultural specificities«.

For decades, small towns have been a rather neglected part of urban systems in scientific literature as well as in spatial planning policies. Only with ESDP (1999), when EU set polycentric development in the limelight of European spatial development goals, small towns started to gain more attention in European and, consequently, national planning policies. “The key characteristic of towns and cities is their role as urban centres within regional systems. This role is expressed not only through the concentration of centrality functions, such as jobs, services or amenities, but especially through their linkages with other settlements” (Sýkora & Mulíček, 2017).

The territorial cohesion discourse continued in the following policies and documents concerning European and national spatial planning, e.g. The Green Paper on Territorial Cohesion (2008), Europe 2020 Strategy for smart, sustainable and inclusive growth (2010) and the Territorial Agenda for the European Union 2020 (2011), where small towns are providers of services of general interest, infrastructure and employment, and considered as highly important not only for tackling rural depopulation issues but also for ensuring an acceptable quality of life. Recently, we are witnessing an increasing interest in small towns also due to growing recognition of the importance of exchanges between rural and urban households, enterprises and economies (Spasić & Petrić 2006).

There are two rather antagonistic conceptualisations of small towns. The first consists of small towns that often face economic and population decline[3] and shrinkage are less developed and are usually in need for policy action from outside and from within to cope with present day economic dynamics. The second considers small towns as last resorts of true urban ambience and idealises them as being the most appropriate (or natural?) linkage between the urban and the rural, a potentially sustainable form of urban structure (ESPON 1.4.1, 2006). They possess number of advantages, frequently determined by quality-of-life factors, ranging from favourable living environment, lower costs of living, public security, social networks etc. (e.g. Erickcek & McKinney 2006; Pink & Servon 2013; Wirth et al. 2016). These two conceptualisations also imply two contrasting development scenarios, resulting small towns as winners and losers in a polarization process (Fulton & Shigley 2001).

## Post-industrial models in urban studies

The idea of 'post-industrial society' and a constellation of related terms, such as 'service society', 'knowledge society', and 'information society', achieved a prominent place in debates in academia from the 1970s as analysts sought to make sense of the ways in which modern forms of life were being transformed (Smart 2011). The central thesis, outlined in the influential work of Bell (1973), is that economic life, production, and the world of work have been transformed by the introduction of innovations in information technology. In particular, that in the second half of the twentieth century in the more highly developed societies, employment in manufacturing declined and professional, technical and other service occupations has increased in number, as developments in theoretical knowledge, information technology, and communications became the initiators of change (Smart 2011).

Many cities in the main capitalist countries went through a period of deindustrialization as jobs dispersed to low-wage regions and countries from the 1970s (Scott & Storper 2014). This process is described as ‘vertical and horizontal disintegration of production’ (see Krugman 1991; Scott 1983; 1986; Scott & Storper 1987; cf. Phelps & Ozawa 2003: 591). In many cases, it was followed by severe crisis conditions in the core. After a transitional period of slow growth in the 1970s and early 1980s,

[3] Research in populations numbers in Europe shows the decline of smaller cities from 1960 onwards in comparison to medium and larger cities(Turok & Mykhnenko, 2007).

large cities in the core again experienced a string resurgence as the 1980s wore on. Cities now found themselves at the focal point of a new 'post-Fordist' economy, characterised by a decisive shift away from materials-intensive manufacturing to various kinds of high technology, management, logistical, service, design and cultural sectors (Scott & Storper 2014). More recently, a number of cities in former 'third-world' countries (especially very large cities such as Hong Kong, Seoul, Shanghai, Singapore, Mexico City and Sao Paolo) are also beginning to shed manufacturing jobs and to participate actively in the new post-Fordist economy (Scott 2011; cf. Scott & Storper 2014). Although the Post-industrialism as a concept is highly Western-centric, it has been exported to the mega-cities of the Global South. The hypothesis can be drawn that if the horizontal disintegration has ended, then the vertical disintegration must have been intensified. Or let's say it in a different manner: since it seems that the world produces no fewer goods, where has all the manufacturing gone? Are we facing in these terms a global multi-level core-periphery divide?

Developed countries moved classical manufacturing to developing countries and entered post-industrial age by favouring services, knowledge, creativity, and innovation. Developing countries, previously deep in agricultural age, took over the role of industrial producers. The question arises here, whether this shift can also be traced within different subsystems of the developed world (e.g. from capital cities to second/third-tire cities within national/regional economies, from big to small and medium-sized cities)? Does the neo-industrial city (still) exist in the European context? As emphasised by Phelps and Ozawa (2003: 585), yet even the broad historical shift of today's economically advanced nations from agrarian to manufacturing to tertiary-dominated economies is one that has not always been reflected in the analysis of agglomeration.

Suarez-Villa (1989) was tracing manufacturing restructuring and decentralization in the late industrial period within polycentric urban areas. Phelps and Ozawa (2003: 592) call this process 'selective decentralization' when central cities had become service-industry dominated with manufacturing activities generating associated material linkages in suburban areas. Scott (1982: 129) went further on (one spatial level higher) by highlighting not only massive decentralization of industry from inner city to suburbs, but also the beginning of a major dispersal away from the metropolis altogether and out into the distant hinterland areas. The question remains, what is going on with these areas now? What are their spatial, social and economic implications?

According to Phelps and Ozawa (2003: 593), the beginnings of a much broader dispersal of economic activity detected by Scott by the end of the 1970s might be thought of as the beginnings of a post-industrial form of urban agglomeration. The main focus in the literature from then on seems to be on this type of agglomeration. The sub-localities of main post-industrial centres were to a large degree investigated as problem areas in need of spatial, economic and social regeneration. There are rare examples to treat them as bearers of industrial heritage encompassing remnants of labour/social values that were shaped through the last two centuries. It seems that now we are talking only about different forms of capital(ist) city.

In post-industrial society, the focus has clearly shifted from production of goods to provision of services. The present urban development is accompanied by the constantly changing watchwords such as captive cities, manipulated cities, postmodern cities, insurgent cities, consumer cities, cities as entertainment machines, the carceal city, the neoliberal city, the fragmented city, the dual city, the digital city, the global city, and the creative city (Scott & Storper 2014). The question remains, whether these are different concepts, each of them encompassing its unique specificities, or are they really just different approaches of self-advertisement/branding of urbanity as modernity?

More critical views of post-industrial society see the entire process as the highest evolution of capitalism, wherein the system produces commodities as opposed to practical goods and is determined privately instead of socially. Scott and Storper (2014) argue that at the present moment in history, urbanisation processes are profoundly shaped by the social and property relations of capitalism, though they cannot be reduced to functionalist expressions of those relations, because they are also shaped by ideas, interests and politics. At this point, we may ask ourselves, whether 'neo-industrial cities' in the Western economies (still) possess any differences in ideas, interests and politics in comparison to their predominantly expanded successor the 'capitalist city'? If yes, what are the spatial, social and economic implications? Can the values and heritage of industrial society (unionized work, solidarity, 8-h work time, social security, etc.) still be traced in neo-industrial city vs. post-industrial/capitalist one? Can we talk about greater solidarity, social cohesion, intergenerational dialogue in neo-industrial cities? Can we merge all these differences under the umbrella of 'forgotten heritage of industrial city'? If yes, can we also talk about its revival and returning back to the capitalist cities through forms of social innovation?

## Social innovations

Although the concept of social innovations is not new, its definitions have stayed rather ambiguous. From the 1990s, the concept of social innovations has been used in a variety of academic sub-disciplines (Hillier et al. 2004, in: Baker & Mehmood 2015), including management studies, which brought focus on organizational innovation and organizational leadership (Baker & Mehmood 2015). The concept is commonly used in regional development studies, especially in relation to social, economic and environmental capital, promoting innovation dynamics in a given geographic area (Moulaert & Nussbaumer 2005 in: Baker & Mehmood 2015).

Social innovations are a central driver and element of social change (Howaldt et al., 2015). They are oriented towards meeting social demands and resolving societal challenges in a better way than the existing practices in society. Social innovations are complex processes of inventing, securing support for, and implementing novel solutions to unmet social needs and problems (Phillis et al. 2008, 34, in: Brandsen et al. 2016; Mulgan et al., 2007, 2, in: Nicholls et al. 2015). Socially innovative actions, strategies, practices and processes arise whenever problems of poverty, exclusion, segregation, and deprivation or opportunities for improving living conditions cannot find satisfactory solutions in the "institutionalized field" of public or private action (Moulaert et al. 2014b, in: Nicholls, et al., 2015). In cities, social innovations commonly emerge in deprived areas due to factory closures and resultant unemployment, the development of areas with high density of lower income groups, and physical decline of neighbourhood infrastructure. These situations are often coincided with the lack of community institutions and limited government interventions (Moulaert 2009 in: Baker & Mehmood 2015). Social innovations can be understood as measures taken by ordinary people, usually on a local scale. Therefore, they are closely related to the notion of social capital (Baker and Mehmood 2015), referring to networks, shared norms, values and understandings that facilitate co-operation within and between groups (Putnam 2004 in: Baker & Mehmood 2015).

Social innovations focus on new social processes (associated to the organisational and social processes that produce innovation; e.g. new forms of cooperation and organisation, dependent on individual creativity); and new social outputs and outcomes (e.g. new concepts, policy instruments, regulations, more sustainable forms of community development, etc.), that profoundly enhance or change the basic routines, resource and authority flows, power structures or beliefs of the social system in which social innovations occur (Nicholls et al. 2015; Howaldt et al. 2015; Brandsen et al. 2016; Baker & Mehmood 2015). Howaldt et al. (2015) stated that »social innovation encompasses new practices (concepts, policy instruments, new forms of cooperation and organisation), methods, processes and

regulations that are developed and/or adopted by citizens, customers and politicians, in order to meet social demands and to resolve societal challenges in a better way than existing practices«. To consider social innovation as successful, it is supposed not only to have long lasting and broad impacts on the social, political and economic contexts that created the problem in the first place (Westley & Antadze 2010, 2, in: Nicholls et al. 2015; Baker & Mehmood 2015) but also to enhance resilience and sustainability of social and territorial systems (McGowan & Westley 2015).

Social innovations are social and territorial constructs, and are path dependent. They are embedded in society and appear only in specific places, under certain circumstances. This social and territorial embeddedness of social innovations stems from the fact that different milieus have different social structure, and cultural characteristics. They not only influence the society's capacity to develop innovations and produce growth, but also their ability to adapt to the changes induced by different types of innovations (Fontan et al. 2008). The relationship between territory and innovations has been quite thoroughly studied. Different authors used different notions, such as innovative millieus (Aydalot 1986; Maillat 1992), industrial district (Becattini 1991; Piore & Sabel 1984), technopole (Benko 1991), and regional innovation system (Braczyk et al. 2003; Doloreux & Revilla Diez 2007) (in: Fontan et al. 2008).

The rationale for social innovations is finding new solutions to unsolved social problems. Social innovations can be understood in different ways, as an output (e.g. as a result of new social practices and experiences, or changes in established set of rules), or as a process (e.g. fostering more inclusive practices). The two fundamental features of social innovations are 1) that they are civil-society-initiated (as a response of society to a certain need, a desire, an aspiration, or a quest for solution) and 2) that they emerge at meso-social or micro-social levels (the response of society is constructed locally) (Fontan et al. 2003, in: Fontan et al. 2008). Social innovations do not stem from new mechanisms of processes introduced by the large organizations and institutions but from localized and localizable actions (Fontan et al. 2008). The success of social innovations is highly dependent on the so called socio-territorial capital of local community (Klein et al. 2008). This refers to local community's political "culture" and institutional thickness (participation of leaders, potential for local support, the organizational capacities of the performers of collective actions, coalition building, specific constellations of actors, lobbies, government decisions) (Brandsen et al. 2016; Klein et al. 2008), social factors (freedom, diversity and density of contacts) (Evers et al. 2014, in: Brandsen et al. 2016), and financial resources available (Klein et al. 2008).

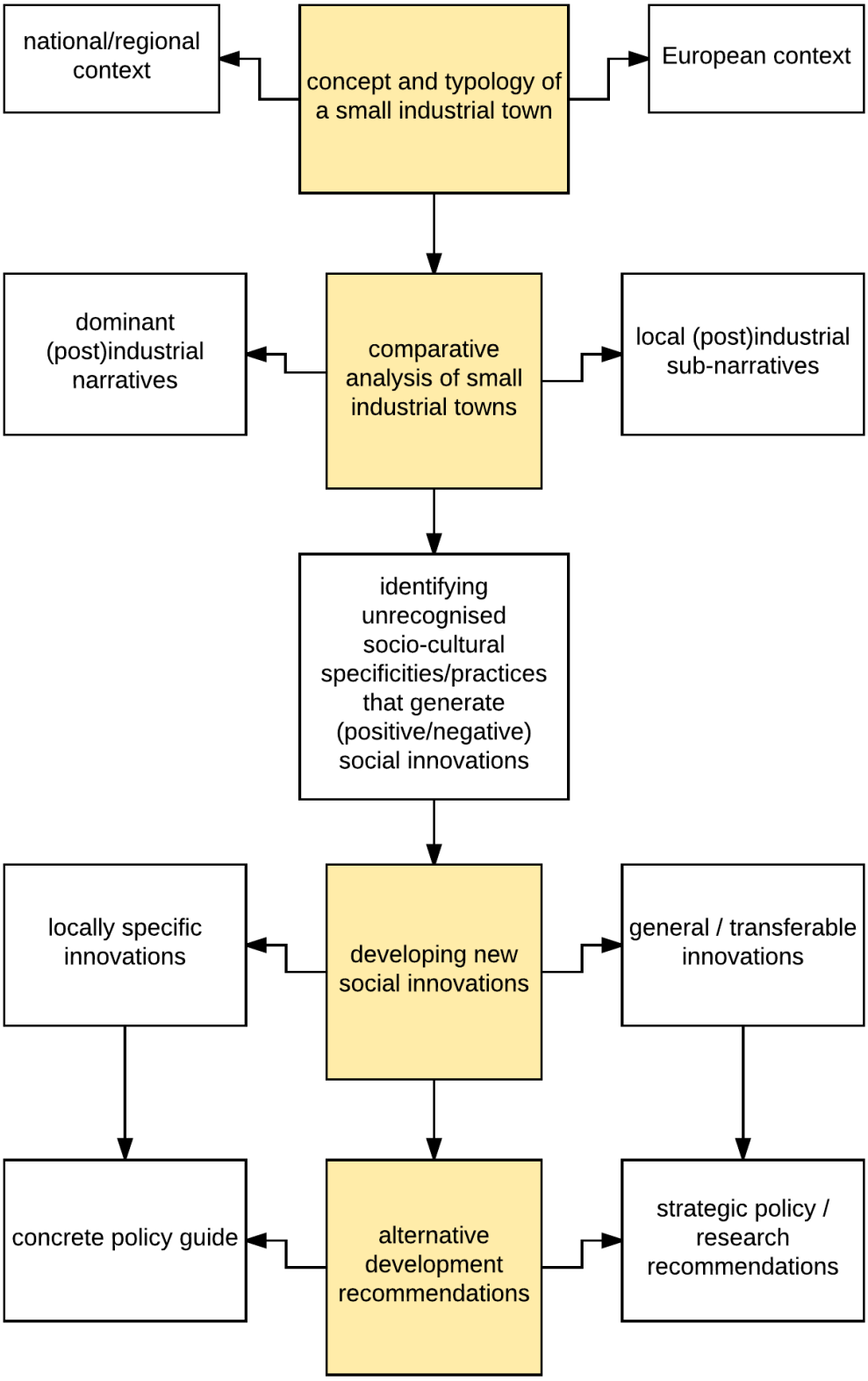
Social innovations are driven by the society's goal to improve the quality of life. This aspect is in close relation to institutions in a sense that social innovations usually appear in response to what is viewed as the incompetence of large social institutions, incapable of ensuring the desired quality-of-life level. Innovations in this context are meant as changes within institutional system (Fontan et al. 2008), claimed by society. These claims are usually oriented towards greater democracy in decision-making, by promoting efficiency, social capital, social networks sharing and the feeling of participating. Social innovation in this view means transforming society from the bottom- up (Harrisson 2007), but at the same time, it has to be "linked" with state-led institutions, which operate in a "top-down" manner. Novy et al. (2012 in: Eizaguirre et al. 2012) thus propose "bottom-linked" approach, combining local citizens' initiatives with the action of public administrations.

The definition of social innovation for our work is taken from the European Commission 7th Framework programme TEPSIE project (The Young Foundation, 2012).

*"Social innovations are new solutions (products, services, models, markets, processes etc.) that simultaneously meet a social need (more effectively than existing solutions) and lead to new or improved capabilities and relationships and better use of assets and resources. In other words, social innovations are both good for society and enhance society's capacity to act."*

There is a strong underlying collaborative aspect of social innovations and innovation processes. Participation, communication, social networks, social capital, democracy, etc. are only few notions that usually come with the debates about social innovations. Participation of all relevant stakeholders or stakeholder groups is of key importance for the process of generating social innovation to be successful.

## 2.3 Working model



## Conceptual working model

We can sum-up our approach in the following project design (Figure 1). In the first step we will conceptualise small industrial towns for our and future research with some quantifiable criteria and corresponding indicators. Based on general parameters and information from previous research we wish to create a robust structural typology of industrial towns in national or regional context ('ideal types' of SITs). General typology will also be useful also for selecting case study towns for the second step. We will look into how the SIT's developed within specific national societal context and what are their present-day developmental trajectories. If we will find common traits of SIT's in Europe we can construct 'the ideal' SIT on the European level as well. In the second step, we will focus on 'ideal types' of SITs (or prototypes) as a point of comparison for our case study towns. By exploring dominant (post)industrial narratives and hidden ones (or sub-narratives) we will also be able to identify stakeholders and socio-cultural practices that could potentially generate positive and social innovations in the third step. The aim of social innovations (step 3) is to boost the transformation or 'reinvention' of industrial towns across Europe by acknowledging place and context specific qualities. We believe that some innovations are dependent on local characteristics; and there are some that we can reproduce in less successful industrial towns. In the final fourth step we will reflect on our findings and propose concrete policy recommendations. The most important part will be to start a debate on how to shape new (re)developmental agendas for transitional industrial towns in Europe.

## Key goals, research questions and hypothesis

Main goal of the project is to go beyond the economy-driven post-industrial narratives suited to large tertiary cities and to find conceptual alternatives for (re)development of former and present industrial towns in Europe. We want to know how post-industrial narratives take part in generating social innovations in different fringes of Europe. Subsequently we want identify national contexts, societal phases and traditions of social participation that influence post-industrial narratives in SITs.

From this goal, we can form the overall research question: **what are the socio-cultural specificities and place-based qualities of small European industrial towns and how are they generating social innovations in different fringes in Europe?**

The basic hypothesis is that small industrial towns have an important group of socio-cultural factors (or specificities) and hold certain spatial qualities that can improve redevelopment strategies. These socio-cultural and spatial factors come from:

- their industrial history (such as specific knowledge, personal networks, cultural and social practices, traditions, industrial cultural heritage, internal territorial identity, daily routines and lifestyle etc.);
- or their present-day embeddedness in regional/national context (their role in regional/national macro dynamics, core/periphery relations, specific semiotics, external territorial identity etc.)
- or their spatial characteristics (such as physical infrastructure, vacant spaces, under-utilized building stock etc.).

We believe that we can use the knowledge of these advantages as social innovations for revising urban regeneration strategies and decision processes to achieve smart and sustainable transformation pathways. In addition to fostering the positive image of (re-)industrialisation of small towns we wish to point out the two faces of territorial capital and the impact of this division (perceived more/less 'successful' post-industrial transitions) on the ethical and moral direction of social innovations.

To break down the overall research question and to answer to it systematically, we have set a number of issues and corresponding research questions addressing key challenges in the project. We are presenting them in the following table, together with the project structure.

Table 2: Issues and corresponding research questions in the project.

| ISSUES | RESEARCH QUESTIONS | WP NO. |
|---|---|---|
| Definition of a SIT on national levels | • What are the dominant characteristics of small industrial towns (SITs) within the national context?<br>• What are the historical trajectories that shaped SITs (industrialisation, urban development)?<br>• What are the characteristics of SITs in the national context?<br>• How do SITs compare to the national level? | WP2 |
| Relating industrial development and urban development in Europe | • What are the characteristics of industrial regions in the European context?<br>• How do industrial regions perform relative to non-industrial regions? | WP2 |
| Role of SITs in the European and national systems | • Are there any specific patterns common to all European SITs (shrinkage/growth, employment …)?<br>• What is the socioeconomic role of SITs in national and European context?<br>• Are there any patterns explaining broader structure of European SITs and indicate their typology?<br>• Can we define ideal types of SITs at the national and/or supranational level? | WP2 |
| National and European developmental trajectories of SIT | • What are the national "prototypes" of SIT's according to their societal context?<br>• What are the positive and negative development trajectories of those national "prototypes"?<br>• How do our case study towns perform relative to the national and European trajectories, e.g. how do our case towns differ from the "ideal" type(s) of SITs? | WP3 |
| Symbolic structure of SIT | • What are the visible and invisible symbols of past industrial tradition in case study towns?<br>• How are the symbols of industrial tradition presented and how important are they in present-day activities?<br>• How do symbols of industry and strategic use of culture (in development projects, media…) shape the dominant post-industrial narratives? | WP3 |
| Social, cultural specificities and characteristics | • What are the hidden and alternative local sub-narratives?<br>• Are there unrecognised collective or individual sociocultural practices within those communities that can generate (positive/negative) social innovation? | WP3 |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| | • Are there conflicts in dominant and sub narratives and how are they expressed? (e.g. culture vs. industrial based development)? | |
| Social sustainability in SITs | • How can we compare and assess social sustainability in case study towns?<br>• How can we develop a participatory process that includes key stakeholder across sectors in developing our understanding of social sustainability?<br>• What are national and stakeholder-specific perceptions of social sustainability? | WP4 |
| Local innovation strategies | • What are the specific needs for social innovations in local case study communities?<br>• What are the specific preconditions (e.g. institutional, financial, procedural, cultural/personal (?) for generating, legitimising and implementing social innovations?<br>• How can we translate collective and individual sociocultural practices into new social innovations in case study towns?<br>• How can we identify actionable social innovations, which positively influence future quality of life in case study town? | WP4 |
| Proposing innovation strategies for SITs | • Which social innovations can be more broadly applicable across SITs in Europe?<br>• What are the roles of specific stakeholders (public and private) in creating social innovations across European SITs? | WP4 |
| New governing and political objectives suited to SITs and their future development | • Who are the key decision-makers and their role in promoting and supporting innovative social & institutional solutions?<br>• What should be the key agenda and central narratives that promote 'alternative' development of SMTs in Europe?<br>• Are there any good practices on implementation of new developmental agendas (instruments, resources, …)? | WP5 |
| Concrete guide and policy recommendations for stakeholders | • What are concrete and locally specific recommendations for future development of case study areas?<br>• What kinds of policy approaches should we develop within particular national and regional context?<br>• Are there unanswered questions and issues that we should deal with in the future? | WP5 |

LEGEND:

| | |
|---|---|
| strategic research | comparative case study research |
| applied research | |
| innovation and/or implementation | |

### Expected results

We plan four central results. The first result from WP 2 will be a conceptual model of industrial towns, based on shared spatial, social, structural and cultural denominators. This result will ensure that we and other researchers deal with these cities in a pragmatic, restricted and application orientated way.

The second result will be a combined qualitative and quantitative comparative analysis of industrial towns in different developmental stages ("national prototypes") from WP 3, where we will offer insights into the visible and invisible specificities of industrial towns, and which will help us identify successful transition pathways.

The third is an applied result from WP4, a set of social and organisational innovations generated out of transdisciplinary research and aimed at supporting positive practices and traditions in industrial towns. Social and organisational innovations could be: a) included in development strategies of industrial towns and b) transferable to various other industrial towns, particularly those in transition.

The fourth result from WP 5 is a policy recommendation to urban governance institutions and/or practitioners of industrial towns on how to implement and support innovative institutional solutions in urban development. We will give general (EU-wide) policy recommendations and stakeholder specific recommendations based on identified social and organisational innovations from result 3.

## 2.4 Key methodological orientations

We will use a mix of quantitative and qualitative methods to balance the advantages and constrains of both method types. In WP 2 we plan quantitative structural analysis to define and characterize and to demonstrate the role of industrial sector in regional/national/EU context. In WP 3 will also use certain statistical data to show historical and present development trajectories of case study towns. We will use qualitative methods (mainly interviews, participant observation) in WP 3 to deepen the understanding and interplay of sociocultural factors in case study SITs and to bring together relevant data as the starting point for participatory process. The main method for trans-disciplinary research in WP4 will be 'social sustainability framework' (Woodcraft 2012) developed by Social Life through a range of participatory methods, mainly workshops with the aim to capture local knowledge to develop, learn, and negotiate institutional and social practices that serve future sustainable development. We will use this as the starting point for a participatory innovation process that will run across all case studies. In WP 5 we will sum up the results by inductive reasoning, combining all the knowledge gained and proposing targeted policy recommendations. WP leaders will develop the abovementioned methods in detail further on in the project. In the BRIGHT FUTURE project we need to emphasise two important orientations to research: the comparative and transdisciplinary approach.

### Comparative approach

The most important parts of our research are based on comparing case study towns. Research and its success depends on the qualitative analysis of people, their opinions and relations. If certain local narratives and sociocultural specificities will be repeated throughout different case study towns, we could come to results, which could be transferred to other given cases and new theoretical knowledge could emerge. This comparative approach is also known as an exploratory multiple case study research, where we explore by a lack of detailed preliminary research, especially formulated hypotheses that can be tested, and/or by a specific research environment that limits the choice of methodology (Yin, 2009).

As our research is essentially a multiple case study, we pay special attention to the selection of case study towns. We want to show the ideal types of SIT's in national context, so we will follow certain selection principles:

1. Case study town should reflect the most 'common' type of (post-/neo-) industrial towns within a national context, reflecting country specific social, economic, spatial historical trajectories.
2. Ideally, in every national context the most 'common type' of SIT contains both positive and negative denominators (example of a negative: unemployment/poverty due to de-industrialisation; example of a positive element: social policies tackling unemployment …).
3. Positive denominators should serve as a direction towards finding replicable social innovations; negative denominators should serve as a motivation towards generating new social innovations.
4. Geographical scale of a studied SIT is on a town level. Higher (regional level) or lower scales (neighbourhood level) can of-course be examined if addressing research questions, but for comparison purposes all case studies should be defined on a town level (e.g.: case study is not the Limburg region, but the town Heerlen or Kerkrade or similar).
5. The term 'town' is used in order to emphasise that our main object of research are non-central, fringe urban areas (not just spatially but also politically, socially …). This entails that 'characteristics' of the small industrial town differentiate across countries and that case study town could also be a small-or medium- sized city if it reflects the most 'common' national SIT type.
6. Present-day economic development of case study town is based upon historic industrial production: it can manifest in a present-day productive sector (neo-industrial) or in a transformed way (post-industrial sector).
7. History of industrialisation in the case study town should manifest through specific collective social and cultural relations in the community (e.g. strong workers unions …).

We will make a selection of case study towns in two steps:

Step 1: Some principles such as defining the features of the most 'common' type of national SIT (principle 1 or 2) will be done in WP2 when we construct narratives as experts regarding SITs in their respective national societal context, history of industrialisation, etc.

Step 2: Certain case study selection principles can be 'quantified' to a certain extent (principle 4, 5 and 6) for instance:

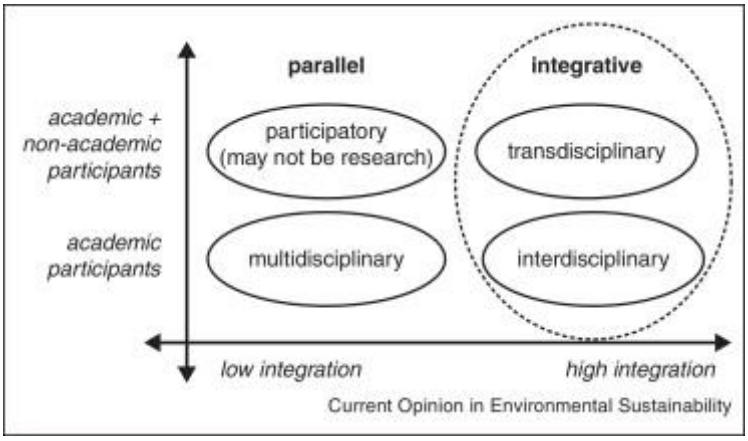
- case study town is not considered 'alpha' or 'beta' city within its national urban context but is considered to be third-tier or lower according to its centrality and positioning.
- Share of industrial activity (employment rate or other indicator) or other activities that developed from it (tourism based on industrial heritage, cultural industries etc.) is above average in national context.
- Presence of industrial heritage sites, cultural institutions, associations …. directly connected to industrial tradition is above-average to national context.

### Transdisciplinarity approach and co-creation

Scientific disciplines are good at providing essential knowledge, methods and tools but on the other hand, disciplinary approaches tend not to have the capability to handle complex societal challenges that demand cross-disciplinary collaboration. As a result, researchers within their scientific disciplines usually cannot adequately approach these grand research challenges despite their importance to the society in which they live (Mauser et al., 2013). BRIGHT FUTURE will try to bridge this gap with

interdisciplinary research in WP 2 and 3 by integrating varies research concepts from geography, sociology and other disciplines. Transdisciplinarity, in comparison to interdisciplinarity, is characterized by the involvement of non-academic actors in the research process. In WP 4 we will use this concept since transdisciplinarity aims at the solution or transition of societal problems by differentiating and integrating knowledge from various scientific and non-scientific bodies of knowledge (Tress, Tress, & Fry, 2005).

Figure 2: Degrees of integration and stakeholder involvement in research (Tress et al., 2005).




WP 4 in an essence is solution-orientated research and which the JPI call specifies as 'urban living lab'. Non-academic participants will not be merely 'invited to participate' but will co-produce research from the beginning. We intend to abandon traditional role of researchers as 'wise outsiders' and assume the role of 'enabling facilitators' to identify social innovations and policy recommendations. Implementation of the urban living labs will be done by organising local workshops, with the methodology provided by PP5 (SL) and PP6 (YF). We will bridge the gap between science and policy, which is necessary to understand more or less successful (post)industrial development narratives. For the project to support subsequent implementation, we believe it is necessary to co-create new knowledge and work "with" rather than "on" non-academic stakeholders. This also means that results will have to be shared with the local community and that timely and frequent communication with them will be needed.

Non-academia in transdisciplinary research takes responsibility for decisions jointly made in the process and provides scientists with unbiased insight into the complexity of real-world problems. Scientists take responsibility for the academic quality of products and provide assurance that scientific knowledge can be used in an unbiased manner. For this purpose, non-academia and scientists join in a transdisciplinary taskforce and together define the knowledge gaps that have to be investigated. Knowledge and values from all relevant actors are collected in a transparent and method-driven manner and integrated analytically (Stauffacher et al. 2008, in: Bunders et al. 2010). Care is taken that knowledge of those who have relevant expertise is integrated, be they from academia or not (Bunders et al. 2010).

# 3. Project management structure

The Principal Project Investigator (PPI) and Technical manager manage the project as a whole, are in charge of communication with the Programme authorities and are appointed by the Lead partner (ZRC SAZU). Technical manager is in charge of preparing reports for the Programme management authorities and possible joint financial and administrative tasks.

Partners from each country nominate one Principal investigator (PI) that manages the project nationally, is responsible for communication with WP leaders, communicates and prepares reports with/for national funding agencies.

Main decision body of the project is the Steering board (SB), which is responsible for:

- methodological, theoretical and other scientific decisions;
- for ethical and regulatory considerations;
- for management of intellectual property;
- other possible tasks and decisions in the project.

SC consists of five members: one PPI and four country PI's.

Decisions are taken by common consent; in case the consent is not reached, each PI has one vote within the Steering board and the decisions are taken by the majority vote (3). The Steering board is run by the PPI.

The Steering board meeting is held twice per year at regular partner meetings (Kick-off meeting + five partner meetings: in Slovenia (M2), the Netherlands (M9), Finland (M15), the UK (M21), Romania (M27) and Slovenia (M35). If needed, web-meetings will be organised. If the PI is not present at the SB meeting, she/he can authorise another person from the institution to replace her/him. This change should be reported to the PPI beforehand.

Externally, the project is represented by the PPI, whereas all the partners will care for positive image of the project and for proper dissemination of project results.

Because of the multi-faceted nature of the project and to ensure quality control and evaluation of the research Advisory board (AB) will be established. The five members will be external independent evaluators, each nominated and supported by the country partner. Each supporting country partner is responsible to negotiate a honorarium or other possible incentives for their AB member. The Advisory board will prepare two reports: the intermediate report (M12) and the final evaluation report (M24). Advisory board members will communicate their opinion to the Steering board either via emails or personally at regular partner meetings. Partners will nominate AB members until 1st of May 2017.

WP leaders designated in the application form are responsible for the WP contents and the quality of outputs. WP leaders should prepare a detailed work plan for their corresponding WP, considering projects research questions and working hypothesis. They should provide a common methodology and assist other partners in case of any problems. Individual WP work plans and their contents are presented and discussed at SB meetings.

The nature of the project is that all partners are involved in all WP's. The role of partners is to participate at WP discussion and provide research according to the WP methodological guidelines, project quality standards and in-line with programme expectations.

## 3.1 Steering board and other project nominations

Table 3: SB members.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| PPI (Slovenia) | Research Centre of the Slovenian Academy of Sciences and Arts | David Bole |
| PI 2 (Finland) | University of Eastern Finland – Department of Geographical and Historical Studies | Simo Häyrynen |
| PI 3 (Romania) | University of Bucharest – Interdisciplinary Center for Advanced Research on Territorial Dynamics | Andreea-Loreta Cercleux |
| PI 4 (the Netherlands) | University of Amsterdam – Amsterdam Institute for Social Science Research (AISSR) | Marco Bontje |
| PI 5 (the UK) | Social Life Limited;<br>The Young Foundation | Nicola Bacon |

Technical manager: Jernej Tiran

Advisory board members: (to be decided until May 2017).

## 3.2 Publishing strategy and ethical considerations

We will inform research & academia of the project intermediate and final results via research articles in international and national peer-reviewed journals. At least two joint international research articles are foreseen to communicate new theoretical and methodological advances of post-/neo-industrial development of small towns in Europe. Additionally, each partner will publish an article with more nationally or regionally relevant topic in national peer reviewed journal. It is very important to stress the 'open access principle' that project partners will respect for all scientific publishing (see the management of knowledge part of this text). At the Final international workshop we will present and discuss the results and invite top researchers from the field to reflect on the findings. Project partners will present intermediate results from content related WP's at established national and international conferences (e.g. Regional Studies Association, European Urban Research Arena …) as presentations and at least one time as session organisers.

As we already stated open access principle is very important to the project team – as the funds and research are publically funded, we believe that project results should be widely available and free of charge for fellow researchers. For the two international research articles we will reserve the funds to purchase open accesses by publishers so they will be available at no extra costs. In addition, all project outputs will be freely available at the web site and we plan to share edited quantitative datasets with other providers of urban data (such as ESPON database portal or similar).

Intellectual property issues will be managed by the Steering board. The consortium will adopt a policy ensuring the intellectual property of each author, but flexible enough to promote the use of data by all project partners. Each partner will have full property rights on the data they have collected and which refer to their case study. The use of national data by participants from another country is dependent upon the latter's agreement. Comparative papers on the data of several or all countries will need the consent of the Steering board and the respective national project team. After the publication of the project main findings, the entire dataset will be made available to the whole consortium.

# 4. Project workplan

Table 4: Deliverables plan

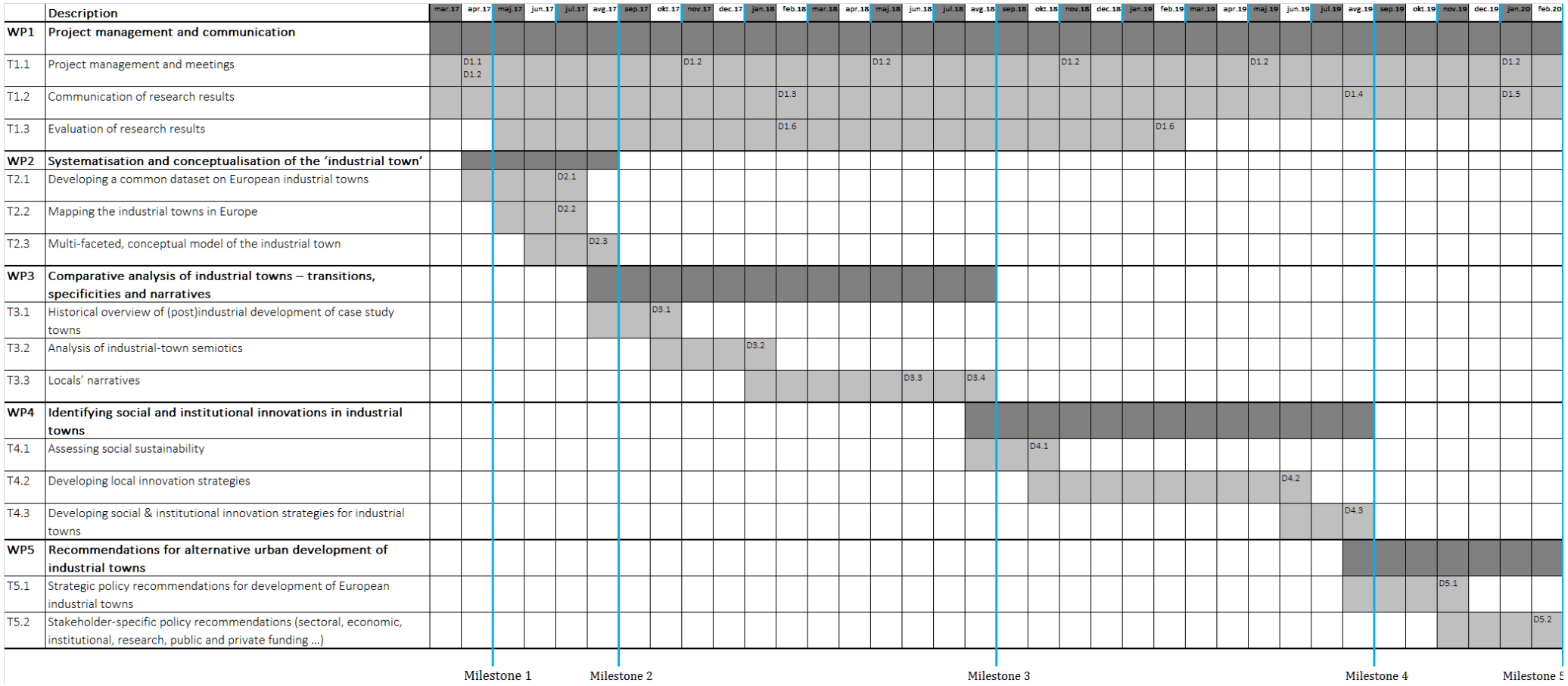
| Del. no. | Deliverable name | WP no. | Delivery date |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1.1 | Project management plan | 1 | M2 |
| 1.2 | Project meeting minutes | 1 | M2, M9, M15, M21, M27, M35 |
| 1.3 | Tailor-made promotional material (blogs, articles …) | 1 | M12 |
| 1.4 | Presentations at workshops at scientific conferences | 1 | M30 |
| 1.5 | International workshop report | 1 | M35 |
| 1.6 | Evaluation reports | 1 | M12, M24 |
| 2.1 | Common dataset | 2 | M5 |
| 2.2 | Geoatlas | 2 | M5 |
| 2.3 | Synthesis report | 2 | M6 |
| 3.1 | Comparative report on societal history of post-industrial development of selected case studies | 3 | M8 |
| 3.2 | Comparative report of industrial town semiotics of selected case studies | 3 | M11 |
| 3.3 | Comparative report of industrial town locals' narratives of selected case studies | 3 | M16 |
| 3.4 | Joint report on alternative views of (post)industrial development and stakeholder analysis | 3 | M18 |
| 4.1 | Methodological guidelines on social sustainability assessments and participatory innovation process | 4 | M20 |
| 4.2 | Reports of history of social & organisational innovation and current and future innovations in each town | 4 | M28 |
| 4.3 | Synthesis report on social innovation applicable to industrial towns across Europe | 4 | M30 |
| 5.1 | Strategic guide for developing urban development policies | 5 | M33 |
| 5.2 | Stakeholder-specific practical guide | 5 | M36 |

Table 5: Plan of milestones.

| Milestone number | Milestone name | Work package(s) involved | Expected date |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Project management plan | 1 | M2 |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 2 | Synthesis report | 2 | M6 |
| 3 | Joint report on alternative views of (post)industrial development and stakeholder analysis | 3 | M18 |
| 4 | Synthesis report on social innovation applicable to industrial towns across Europe | 4 | M30 |
| 5 | Stakeholder-specific practical guide | 5 | M36 |

Table 6: BRIGHT FUTURE Gantt chart.



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