

**CROSS-BORDER COOPERATION AND INSTITUTIONAL
CAPACITY PROBLEMS OF LOCAL AUTHORITIES:
THE AEGEAN CASE**

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PREFACE

Border regions are the areas where the political, socio-economic and cultural spirits of a society are symbolized, reflected and ended. Therefore, it was worthy of note to make a research at such an interesting border area while trying to point out the reasons behind the inefficiency to exploit the local resources and to build firm connections across the borders.

There are many people -public officials and local administrators- contributed to the improvement of this study. I owe special thanks to local administrators who spared their time and knowledge to contribute to the field survey that is conducted at the case region.

I am grateful to my supervisor Prof.Dr. Gül den Er kut, and her efforts to encourage me for the completion of this work. Special thanks to Noell Alting for his helps in the statistical evaluation process and Öz ge Atalay for her critical perspective during preparation of the questionnaire; but more than these thanks for believing in me and enhancing this work with their critiques and knowledge.

On a personal level, I owe exceptional thanks to my sister and my parents for sharing my enthusiasm for my academic works and supporting me for the realization of my objectives.

1. INTRODUCTION

In the decade following the post-socialist period and establishment of European Union, many countries started to put intensive efforts to structure more democratic administration systems and to create efficiently functioning institutions. On the other hand, the countries with more decentralised local governance system took the advantages of new global conditions that are mainly defined in reference to networked society and complexity of socio-economic relations. In both cases the countries restructured their local administration systems by decentralising powers or instituting new tiers of governments and promoting territorial networking between them to meet the requirements of the global environment.

This study focuses on the impact of European Union upon establishment and promotion of cross-border cooperation and the capabilities of local authorities to make use of the networking opportunities created by the EU. The main concern is what type of institutional conditions do local authorities need to establish sustainable cross-border cooperation, and secondly, at current situation, how sufficient are the core capacities of local authorities for sustainable cross-border cooperation? The institutional capacities and institutional restructuring of local governments is widely considered in order to answer the main research questions.

The border regions between Greece and Turkey is selected as a case study area –*main focus is on the territorial and maritime borders of Turkey side*–; to analyse the needs-capacities gap of the local authorities and to bring up the inadequacies of the system. In contrary to the recent historical debates it is very notable to examine that the most problematic issues on the spatial context such as border crossings, islands, and spatial integration now became the major collaboration subjects in the reconciliation period. In due course, the study argues these transformations and discusses the deficiencies of the administrative system of Turkey that is on the edge of European Union membership. It is argued that the administrative constraints obstruct the enhancing of institutional capacities of local authorities and setting up sustainable cross-border cooperation. The study questions the sustainability of cross-border cooperation due to the top-down approaches of the central governments versus lack of institutional

capabilities of the local authorities. In this study local authority concept refers to competent local legal entities that are entitled to fulfil public procurement and are local branches of the central government.

Secondly, Turkey is passing through a dynamic process in terms of legal and local administration issues concerning the EU membership requirements and adjustments. *Strategic planning* concept is recently introduced by new municipality law¹ which aims more transparent, participatory and democratic urban management. However the capacity problems engender serious obstacles for municipalities to comprehend and prepare strategic plans. This attempt can be regarded as a promising strategy that fails due to the insufficient capacities. In this respect, the insertion of strategic planning approach and the dynamics behind this process are analysed while taking capacity shortages into account. This study questions the current institutional capacities of local authorities and vision of local leaders for territorial networking across the borders.

In the last two decades the administrative systems and implementation practices of many countries passed through substantial transformations through decentralisation. Globalisation is regarded as one of the main drives in explaining these transformations and the altered interaction between global and local (Gren, 1999).

Globalisation has set unexpected linkages among cultures, between locations and individuals. While fast growing information technologies accelerated this process, significant potentials have been created for development. In addition to people's individual efforts international networks make possible to articulate people's needs and demands to agencies and governments. On the other hand, decentralisation has been encouraged by promoting participation of people in policy making so that its execution functions as a means of introducing people-centred development approaches to local governance. Thus, the promotion of free-market policies, the rising demands for free movement of flows and concentration of economic activities pressures redefinition of borders in the global context. In territorial context border regions can be considered as one of the most affected areas from these changes. Nevertheless, local expertise and capacities are very crucial in adapting to changing

¹ Law no 5272, 07.12. 2004

conditions, managing to benefit from the opportunities and internalisation of technology (Nair and Menon, 2002).

The conceptual change in the meaning of 'border' is very notable due to the contrasting break away from historical perceptions. In the current situation, redefinition of borders is more a product of functional motives rather than political views. The striking transformation in the role of borders from barriers to networking points attributed new assignments to the border regions in the spatial context. Thus, the cities located at the borders of the countries became the connection points for the territorial continuity of the economic activity and human mobility. In this respect cross-border cooperation is an important local development instrument that is mainly set by local aspirations aiming to utilize the local resources for economic gains.

In the Turkish case, the attempts for democratisation of local administrative system, fiscal decentralisation, regulation of public administration and municipality laws and insertion of strategic planning approaches is parallel to the national government's rising interest in European integration. The sustainability of these attempts and realisation of the practices in a democratic way is very important to meet the actual needs of the society and fill the gaps in the administration system.

In this study, cross-border cooperation, a policy instrument for local development, is analysed in the light of global democratisation trends, devolution of powers from central to local authorities and the sufficiency of institutional capacities of local governments in making use of local resources.

1.1. Context and the Aim of the Study

The aim of this study is to examine the role of cross-border cooperation in overcoming the regional inequalities, mobilising local economic development and its contribution to institutional capacity building in local authorities. The cross-border cooperation between Greece-Turkey is selected as a case study to conduct a field research for examining the current level of awareness of local authorities on European Union integration, their current partnership experiences within/across the national borders and the adequacy of local institutional capacities to involve in these networks.

Moreover, considering the spatial features and built environment assets of the region –Turkish provinces bordering the Aegean-, reaching to a *region specific methodology* to improve institutional capacities of local authorities to take more initiatives in their competency areas is intended to produce better implementation schemes for sustainable cross-border cooperation and balanced urban development.

The focal point of the field study that is conducted at the provinces located along the Aegean coast questions the inadequacy of institutional capacities of local authorities to set up cross-border cooperation. The study will be held at European Union context while statistical data will be used in NUTS II and III levels for the statistical analysis and field study.

1.2. Methodology

The study is composed of two parts. In the first part, a field study takes place including interviews and questionnaires with 61 mayors, 61 public relations managers of the municipalities and 6 governors from 6 provinces at the Turkish provinces along the Aegean coast. Secondly, the outcomes of the field study are evaluated with statistical methods to determine the relations between different factors that affect the success of cross-border cooperation in local economic development. In addition, other statistical indicators such as income level, population growth, birth rate and employment are used to produce comparable data to measure which economic and social factors are more influential on successful cooperation at the Aegean coast. These statistical analyses are done in NUTS (Nomenclature of Statistical Territorial Units) III level and some are in sub-province (county) level.

Moreover, in view of reconciliation period between Greece and Turkey and the transitions in the neighbouring countries at South-eastern Europe the research period will be considered from the beginning of the 1990s in order to observe the influences on Turkey. In this respect, the restructuring of central and local governance strategies, cross-border, twinning and partnership agreements, non-governmental organisations' activities at the region will be examined according to their potential impacts on the decision-making and implementation processes.

1.3. Expected Results

It should be noted that European Union is not the main architect but one of the main promoter of the establishment of cross-border cooperation. The governments in the EU accession period produced *trendy* local development and capacity building strategies where those sometimes did not achieve the targets and meet the actual needs of the countries mostly related to the imported characteristic of those policies.

This study focuses to point out country specific features and needs considering the *institutional capacity-cross-border cooperation* relationship in local economic development. The statistical data and information that is gathered from field survey represents the socio-economic situation of the region and vision of the local authorities to involve in cross-border cooperation and European Union integration. The field survey helps us to analyse the capacity-expectation gaps from an institutional point of view. Socio-economic background information and prospects of the authorities could be used to promote the improvement of particular institutional capacities. Therefore it will bring new approaches in overcoming institutional deficiencies of the local authorities at the country basis and open new opportunities for further researches and projects.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW ON ‘BORDER’ CONCEPT

In the recent literature there are plenty of studies questioning the traditional meaning of the border concept. From political scientists to geographers there are many researchers from various disciplines trying to clarify the confusion on border concept and its role. In this chapter, different border definitions and its transformation from being a control door to a linking point are analyzed with references to the recent global socio-economic trends. The influences of those are discussed in terms of conceptual framework of borders and their functions in daily practices. The borders in global economic and political spheres and their limitation affect on different territories are mentioned considering the social processes.

2.1. A Definition for Border Concept

Borders have been carrying out a task to transform the natural divisions of space into political or economic areas. Space can be both continuous and discrete where borders are the main tools to separate (Gorzalak, 2002). This process is very much related to the internal organisation of the societies (Anderson, 2002). The characteristics of societies are reflected from their political division. For instance, in pluralist societies, most of the time, political borders are in consistent with the territorial distribution of cultural groups. In any case borders act as symbols of political power of nation-states.

Williams et al, 2001, argues that borders can be regarded as limits to effective economic organization between different regions holding potential complementarities. They are very significant in exercising the power relations. However, depending on national policies they can be both gateways and barriers to the different forms of mobility. The permeability of borders is in consistent with the political values and view of the central governments.

Anderson, 2002, mentions that borders are political processes where different political jurisdictions meet. They constitute a space where individuals can exercise their rights of citizenship and state has the monopoly of the legitimate use of power on its territory.

McNeil, 2004, defines borders as physical fortress where the unwanted are not welcomed and are passed through a plenty of control procedures such as passport, visas and customs. However, he mentions that borders hold deeper meanings that are mostly outcome of global trends in terms of being linking chains of the network. Considering these different definitions for border concept, in this study the explanation below is used to refer to the classical features and role of border in the global context:

“Border is a political institution that separates two or more different political jurisdictions where geographical and cultural heterogeneities are demarcated in a certain territory. That is to say border is a real or understood/created limit separating one country from another.”

Being real or understood/created is actually in the sense of its formation. Borders can be shaped naturally or they can be produced by political aspirations based on myths and images. Natural borders are identified with their physical characteristics. They are the natural barriers such as mountain ranges, rivers, lakes separating the territories and give the area its features in terms of climate and topography. On the other hand, political borders are the sovereign limits between countries. They limit the space where are there reflections of political myths and beliefs belonging to a certain society. These constructed symbols and aspirations of a particular society end at the edge of controlled areas which are under the rule of another political jurisdiction. Guo, 1996, spots three functions of political borders; they are *legal powers* limiting the juridical standards, *control function* of the state in various ways and perception of customs right for *fiscal regulations*. Moreover, border phenomenon holds a strong significance of controlling power in their functioning which a political border has an absolute control over the territory it demarcates (Anderson, 1997) and functioning of socio-economic facilities, cultural practices, administrative functions, technological developments, security arrangements and human/commodity mobility. These controls can sometimes be marked with physical landscape means such as Berlin Wall, The Great Wall of China or with non-visible geometric instruments such as 49th parallel of the north latitude- *U.S.-Canada border* (Guo, 1996).

Furthermore, because the political borders are basically created with nationalist aspirations, in many cases they act as a barrier between homogenous cultural groups sharing common historical, linguistic and ethnic features. For instance, in the European case since 1989 alone around 8000 miles of new state borders (See Map 2.1.) have been instituted in Central and Eastern Europe, while these transformations, most of the time, have not been a result of democratic process but rather an outcome of wars and coercion (O'Dowd, 2002).



Map 2.1: The Proliferation of New State Borders in Europe after 1989²

The basic paradox between these categories of borders is that the natural and cultural limits do not always overlap with political margins. In these cases there emerges problems in environmental protection and interrelation of homogenous groups in practice as well as conflicts occur between politically constructed understandings within a nation. The nationalistic waves have more been the concern of peripheries (Gren, 1999). This identity formation in a particular nation is now being questioned with global trends that pressure to transform many ideological concepts because globalisation has strong propensity to uniform the cultural patterns in different countries. Şaylan, 1996, argues that *globalisation* is a process where the capital became mobile in world wide in order to expand the market area when capitalism started to face with crisis. In this respect the multi-nationalisation of economic and social practices created a room for spatial restructuring and necessitated the creation of appropriate conditions not only for flow of capital but also for flow of persons, information and goods.

What caused to these changes and what the outcome of these processes are the central questions. Although globalisation is not the only dynamic behind the incidents it has significant impact upon the alteration of power relations between the different levels governments and their spatial reorganisation. For instance, many regional administrative structures –Milan, London, Hamburg etc- generated more successful

² Red lines on the map point out the new borders established after 1989

growth schemes than their nation-states in responding to the changing conditions.³ Therefore, Gren, 1999, classifies the reasons behind the emergence of regionalist movements into four;

1. Integrated economic realities that are response to the global economic environment- *Economic internationalisation, increased entrepreneurship*
2. A bottom-up approach through democratisation and multi-level governance- *Erosion of the national authority, establishment of new regions as lobbying powers*
3. Emergence of supra-national bodies- *mounting regional consciousness, mobilisation of identity*
4. Trans-national partnerships- *Cross-border networks*

The complexity of national administration structures, functionality problems due to the fast changing global environment and necessities for democratisation led local authorities to involve more actively in governance. Thus, decentralisation has accelerated by the mounting bottom-up pressure for more decentralised administrative structures to foster democratisation and to improve public service delivery (Steinich, 2000). Regions started to act as economic actors more than ever and try to exploit local resources to generate local economic development in a competitive global world. The gained value of indigenous growth doctrines⁴ are regarded as a regional level's reaction to globalisation. All together the institutionalisation of regional administrations have key role in attracting more attention to the regional development and increasing their lobbying power in the international scale as in European Union case.

The re-conceptualisation of border phenomenon is very much related to these developments. The transformations that emerged as a response to the mobility of capital have its further practices in increased permeability of border crossings for these movements. The importance of national borders decreased and central governments slimed down due to the universal availability of products and services. In due course the national economies and the states' monopoly of power over certain

³ For an example of local regional development in a competitive environment see Jensen-Butler, C., 1991, "Rural Industrialisation in Denmark and the Role of Public Policy", Urban Studies Vol. 29, No:6, 881-904, University of Glasgow

⁴ See Paul Romer and Robert Lucas

territories have lost its meaning (Ohmae, 1999). As a result of these developments apart from its traditional character borders and border regions became the connection points between different spatial heterogeneities as well as different cultural points where all these movements flow through it.

2.2. Reformation of Regions and Impact of European Union

Region concept, territorially politically and economically, can vary in different forms and refers to a range of spatial levels. It is a system where various actors from local to supra-national level intervene in a manner depending on their *political* natures. *Functionally*, it is a territory where different types of agencies (Keating, 1997) and economic actors interact. *Spatially*, it is a delimitation of a space on the basis of one or more criteria. The borders of the regions are established according to physical and cultural characteristics; the former is divided into two -landscape and climate- and the latter is divided into three -language, ethnic origin and culture- (European Commission, 2002).

Loughlin, 1999, defines regionalism as: “*A political idea or ideology and a set of political movements the origins of which are found in the nineteenth century*”. There always been the supporters of the regionalist movements opposing to the modern nation-state idea. However, since 1960s there emerged a more broad-minded and functional form of regionalism due to the influences of global trends through establishment of supra-national bodies in different territories.⁵ With the greater integration of European states regionalism became a main part of regional policy under the *principle of partnership*.⁶ A goal targeting enhanced cohesion and creation of democratic administrative system between the European Communities has put the regionalist policies at the centre of the policy-making while redefining the state and society, public and private relations. The implementation of these to practice generated the establishment of new regional structures to which the member states delegated powers partially as in Belgium, France and Spain cases (Keating and Loughlin and Peters, 1997).

⁵ For instance, in European territory the impetus for regionalism comes from establishment of European Union whereas in North America-Canada the main drive behind it can be regarded as NAFTA.

⁶ For more information See Regional policy in 3rd Report on Economic and Social Cohesion, February 2004, Official publication of the European Communities

The pressure for regionalism came from three main incidents: Firstly, as a reaction to the assimilationist theories of 1950s seeking for uniform state historic nationalities came with separation demand in order to pursue their cultural characteristics. Secondly, there was a substantial pressure for democratisation from bottom-up with efficiency concerns and participation requests in the central decision-making level. Finally, a series of crisis in 1970s in the traditional sectors such as agriculture and industry mobilised the local producer to fight with national modernist policies or European competition. Added to these globalisation is also regarded as the most significant element in the changing concept of relation that encourage regionalist movements (Keating, 1997).

Below, in the light of the aforementioned influences the region concept is categorised into four sections in order to go deeper into the practices in the EU context.

- a. *Administrative regions:*** Administrative regions refer to the sub-divisions of a territory in one state where the policy-makers can exercise their political power and implement their policies such as defence, taxation and justice (European Commission, 2002). However, administrative regions cannot enjoy any political functions such as operating a regional assembly or executive boards (Keating and Loughlin, 1997). The sub-divisions of the territory are officially delimited. Concerning the administrative regions every country has their own territorial division that there is hardly evenness between different countries. Administrative boundaries are mainly constructed to ease the collection of statistical data at national level and to clarify administrative districts. However, the statistical data in one state is most of the time not comparable to another state due to the different size of the administrative regions.
- b. *Cultural regions:*** This type of regions refers to an agglomeration on a territory where there is substantial cultural homogeneity of the people and the spatial reflections of their daily functions. As mentioned in part 2 the size of the territories can highly vary so that in one case a cultural region can refer to a sub-division within a nation whereas in another a cultural homogeneity can broadly cover an area belonging to more than one country. For instance Gorzelak and Lalowiecki, 2002, in his macro division of European territory

mention that “Europe is a continent with varying geometry and dissimilar temporal and spatial systems”. He distinguishes the historical and spatial division of Central and Eastern Europe (CEE) as, firstly, the area lying west of Romanesque style boundary that was influenced by Western culture, secondly, the area located at the east border dividing Christianity and Orthodox influences, and lastly, the area which is regarded as a transition space between those historical borders -Eastern and Western Europe- and is influenced from both sides.⁷ Whether these historical boundaries continued to be used to define the administrative or regional divisions of a state depend on retaining them during the new formation of the national boundaries. The regional boundaries in Spain reflect the scattered territories of Kings of Aragon and Navarre whereas in France the administrative boundaries are completely re-established (European Commission, 2002). Hence, administrative boundaries can both be the intersection point of different cultures and on the other hand can be barriers to the enhancement of cultural and spatial characteristics of particular societies that predominantly have their unique features blended within the society on a certain region. In due course regarding the cultural regions their cultural features are the main identifier between these regions.



Map 2.2: The Cultural Borders in Central and Eastern Europe

- c. **Economic Regions:** Economic regions that go beyond the national borders are defined with economic interactions of the territories in terms of integrated

⁷ See Map 2

spatial planning, economic activities and economic complementarities. Mostly, borders of economic regions do not overlap with administrative borders that these regions are exempted from institutional arrangements of the state (Keating and Loughlin, 1997). Economic regions are mainly in search for production and implementation of joint economic and spatial policies so that their borders are marked out by the intensity of economic relations of the actors. These relations can determine urban, rural, industrialised characteristics or the cooperation can be based on sectoral complementarities as well as sectoral specialisation. This type of cooperation involves actions such as creation of polycentric urban networks, development of multi-model transportation systems, joint planning and technical assistance (ESDP, 1999).⁸ With the effect of globalisation there emerged many economic regions seeking for mutual benefits of its partners. In the European context these regions are classified according to the frequency and quality of their relation by consulting to the respective bodies and supported by the Community initiative called Interreg C programme.



Map 2.3: Interreg IIC Programmes in European Union (www.europa.un.int)

⁸ For more information about topics of cooperation under Interreg IIC Programme see <http://www.interreg3c.net/sixcms/detail.php?id=307>

Another regional economic division for Europe is indicated by Gorzelak and Jalowiecki, 2002, using the GDP values of the countries. According to the GDP values there are striking disparities between eastern and western Europe. The border that is defined as a limit between eastern and western Europe points out the border at the north-south direction starting from Finland, Germany and Austria. In addition they make a differentiation between Central and Eastern Europe due to the different development levels and differences between social and economic structures. In this case economic regions are based on some static indicators instead of their interlinked relations.

d. *Statistical Regions:* Many international organisations⁹ dealing with economic development and regional inequalities issues gather socio-economic statistical data in order to produce their policies. However, the methodology how the data is collected differs from one country to another. Added to these, as explained in the economic regions section, economic interdependencies between the countries are mainly identified by the functional relations of the economic actors at regional scale. Moreover, the affect of globalisation on the regions in terms of creating opportunities for them to involve in international trade created the production of detailed data. In doing so there emerged a need to produce comparable data at the regional level rather than national level. Nevertheless, until the last couple of years, there was not any unified way of collecting data by using the same methodologies. This situation hinders comparisons between different sub-national areas which are sometimes regarded as the main drives of the growth or traditional peripheries of countries. Thus, statistical regions are principally created to collect comparable data at regional scale with a motive to measure the regional endogenous development and regional inequalities (Balme, 1997). These regions are not assigned to any political, administrative or intergovernmental processes. Especially, with the rising integration trends a need for collection of data by using the same statistical methods came about. The Statistical Department of the European Community, Eurostat, is the professional organisation that is collecting all sorts of data at regional level under Nomenclature of Territorial Statistical Units (NUTS) classification to cope

⁹ Such as World Bank, OECD, CoE, ILO etc.

with aforementioned problems and assess the regional inequalities. The production of effective policies is highly related to the production of most relevant and trustable data.

In this respect the changing conditions in the global context yield the emergence of different regions and alter the role of borders as separators or connectors between various territorial units.

2.3. Regional Inequalities-Border Regions and European Union's Enlargement

In the last decades regional inequalities have become a serious problem for most of the countries in the world. Regional disparities between fast growing economic cores and backward peripheries turned into a chronic problematic situation in many countries. In this part first of all the regional disparities are defined by referring to commonly used measures. Secondly, the determinants explaining the peripherality concept is discussed from various points of views. Finally, the problems that yield to regional inequalities are analysed and backward regions are classified according to the obstacles that deprive them from development at the European context.

There are several determinants that constitute potentials for growth of an area. For instance, a *mix of economic sectors* creating regional specialisation contributes to the growth potential of the area. Furthermore, the *geographical location* of the area which is rather closer to the main economic centres will favour the economic development. The *size and the population density of the region* affect the growth process. The intensification of economic activities and *agglomeration* mobilise the use of resources. The *density of R&D investments* and presence of *knowledge based society* in the region attracts the investments and gives an opportunity to local producers in taking the advantages of know-how. Added to these the behaviour of *financial institutions* in the market under the national policies which regulates the investment programmes in favour of peripheral areas is very serviceable for even distribution of financial resources (Armstrong and Taylor, 2001). The regions having those resources catch the advantages in development process. However, due to the expanding regional inequalities in the world many peripheral areas are lagging behind their national averages.

Considering the widening gap of income distribution¹⁰ in the world, there are many studies trying to explain what the concept of periphery is.¹¹ Despite its vagueness, most categorize it as areas with weak agglomerative economies, poor R&D sector, and dependence on primary industries, less accessibility. Conventional centre-periphery concepts and models are driven almost exclusively by distance costs which denote traditional policy focuses on improving transport and communication infrastructure in order to create agglomeration economies. However, this situation is affected by economic polarization which inevitably leads to geographical polarization that is shaped by the investment booms in certain places (Copus, 2001). Hence, in many countries, there emerged an economic dualism which manifests itself in spatial terms as ***centre-periphery contrast***. Peripherality has become an important concern in the agendas of governments in both economic and spatial terms.

The analogy with the law of gravity¹² is explicit in that the influence of each centre on the “***economic potential***” of a location is assumed to be directly proportional to the volume (or “mass”) of economic activity at the former, and inversely proportional to the distance separating them (Copus, 1999).

By examining the current literature on centre-periphery concepts Copus, 1999, grouped peripherality indicators in two broad types:

- a. *Gravity model based*: Economic or market potential/volume of economic activity

In this group peripherality is defined as the remote or isolated regions that are having *poor transport infrastructure* -so poor accessibility to the economic centers-, and having less market potential or incapable of enlarging the economic activity compared to the center.

- b. *Transportation based*: Travel time/cost and Daily accessibility (implies more significant results)

¹⁰ According to the World Bank statistics in the 1978s the average GDP per capita difference between developed and developing countries was about 4 times; whereas this value reached to 9,2 in the 1990s (Şaylan, 1996)

¹¹ See Keeble et al. (1988), Copus (1999;2001), Schürmann and Talaat (2001), Spiekermann and Neubauer (2002)

¹² See Keeble et al., 1988

This group of accessibility models explain the relation between travel time/cost and daily accessibility considering the indicators such as demand for daily roundtrips, cost of accessing, speed, importance of service quality and the impacts of transport networks e.g. TENs, TINA network, channel tunnel etc.

On the other hand, at the EU level centre is defined as a high concentration of economic activity and population areas (European Commission, 2004a). Conversely, broader peripherality definition refers to the lack of sufficient accessibility, economic difficulties and geographical constraints to certain territories (ESDP, 1999).

- *The border regions* (economic difficulties, low accessibility)
- *The rural regions* (economic difficulties, efficiency problems, sparsely populated)
- *The mountainous areas* (geographical barriers, high unemployment rate)
- *The islands* (accessibility problems, low economic concentration)

The last three also have another sub-classification under the *areas with geographical handicaps* (European Commission, 2004a).¹³ The regional disparities in European Union point out serious income gap which is widened after the enlargement. For instance, in the GDP per capita (in PPS)¹⁴ index, GDP per capita in the central regions is 28.1 points above the EU average whereas this value in peripheral regions is 33 points below the average (European Commission, 2001). The territorial size of peripheral regions expanded with the enlargement of the EU covering thirteen new member states.¹⁵ Especially the border regions of Central and Eastern Europe require special attention in the cohesion process, because the border regions of these countries are in serious economic underdevelopment even compared to the countries' national averages. For instance, per capita GDP and productivity is lower in their eastern borders while the western borders are generally the winners of transformation. The borders neighbouring to Belarus, Russia and Ukraine are poorer than peripheral regions of EU15 due to the infrastructure endowment (Weise et. al, 2001)

¹³ Third Report on Economic and Social Cohesion, 2004,, p. 33

¹⁴ Purchasing Power Parity (PPS): Purchasing power parity represents the relationship between the amounts of national currency needed to purchase a comparable and representative basket of goods in the countries concerned

¹⁵ For the territorial division of Centre-Periphery in the European Union after the enlargement See Annex I, Map11

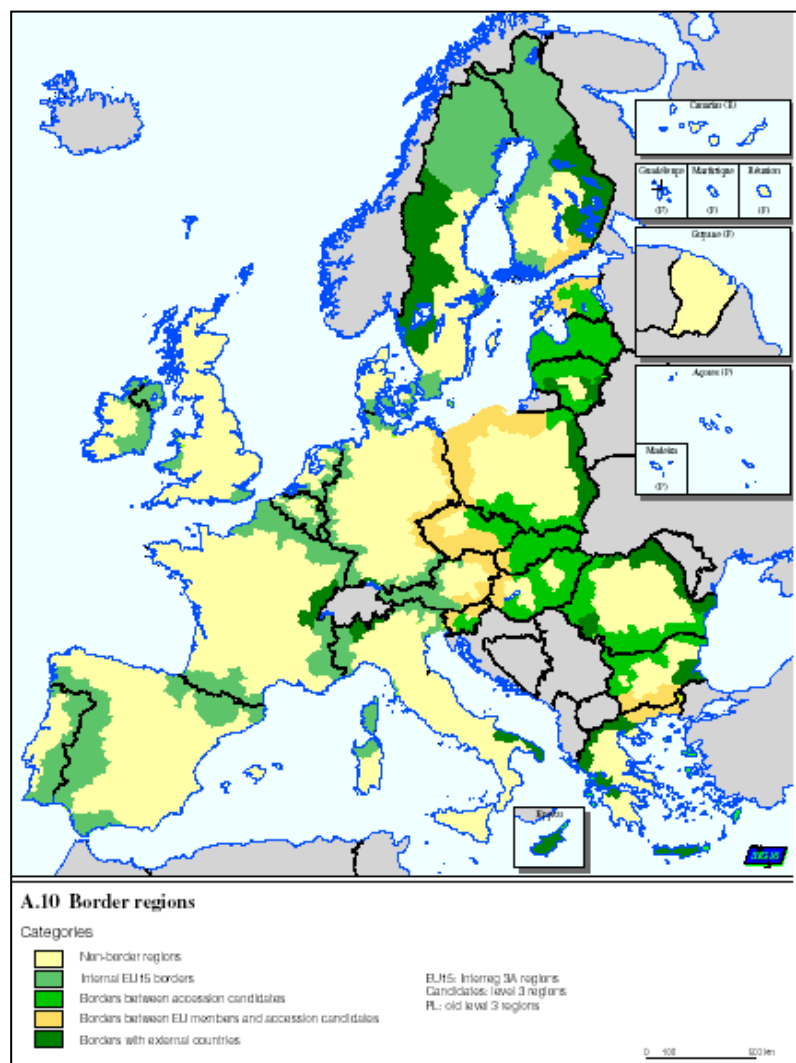
Considering the regional inequalities and spatial characteristics at European territory special attention will be given to the border regions that have been regarded as the traditional peripheries of the countries (Özgen, 2005). The area of border regions in the EU corresponds to the 40% of EU15 territory with 25% of the total population. On the other hand, the importance of border regions in the new member states is even more notable due to the area and population living at the borders. In the thirteen new member states 66% of the area corresponds to the border regions whereas 58% of the population lives at the border areas. Compared to the EU averages these areas are mostly characterized by low population density, higher unemployment in young population, low employment in services and high employment in agriculture, and low R&D investments (European Commission, 2001b). Lack of sufficient accessibility impedes the formation of economic concentration as well as reaching to the main economic centres. In this respect border regions, due to their backwardness, act as barriers to balanced economic development and continuous infrastructure in terms of pipelines, transportation links, and electricity lines in the European territory. These regions, territorially, are defined as land and maritime borders in the NUTS III level that are situated along internal or external borders of the EU (See Map 2.4). Parissaki and Jepson, 1997, provided a categorisation for the specific problems or features of border regions by referring to some European cases:

- Peripheral locations and poor communications (eg Hungarian/Ukrainian border)
- Undeveloped economies (eg Spain /Portugal)
- Minority populations (eg Hungary / Romania)
- Histories of instability and conflict (eg Ireland / Northern Ireland / Germany / Poland.
- Strong cultural and historical traditions (Denmark / Germany)

Thus, functioning of Single Market requires increased economic integration through the EU where border regions that are ‘scars of history’¹⁶ needed to be catered concerning their common problems and the limitations stemmed from their disadvantaged situation (European Commission, 2004b).

¹⁶ See Parissaki and Jepson, 1997

Despite all these socio-economic limitations of border regions, they hold substantial role in the realisation of European integration policies. After 1970s increased demands for trans-border mobility of capital and persons and the attempts for the removal of these difficulties generated extensive opportunities for border regions. Although there were important attempts based upon regional/local initiatives – BENELUX countries (1958), Scandinavian Øresund Council (1964), the Euregios Rhein-Waal, Maas-Rhein, Rhein Maas-Nord and Ems-Dollart were formally set up in the 1970's- by signing interstate agreements to cooperate for common problems, the weakness of the situation was more a question of continuous financial and institutional support for the development of these regions (Pellicciari and Leonelli, 1997).



Map 2.4: Border Regions in the European Union (2nd Report on Economic and Social Cohesion, 2001)

2.4. Territorial Networking and European Union Initiatives for Cross-border Cooperation

Economic backwardness of border regions and regions with geographical handicaps constituted the foci of the regional policies of European Union. In 1975 the creation of European Regional Development Fund (ERDF) by the European Commission targeted to cope with the problems in the poorest regions, to assist the socio-economic development and for the modernisation of infrastructures. Therefore, Structural Funds which covers ERDF and other financial support instruments¹⁷ constitute a high amount of the Community's budget. The beneficiaries of Structural Funds are classified into five; *less-favoured regions, areas with specific handicaps, vulnerable groups in society, local and regional authorities and applicant countries*. Border regions are categorised under the less-favoured regions. In addition to ERDF there are also Community Initiatives such as Interreg, Urban, Leader+ and Equal that are seeking for common solutions to specific problems of territorial cooperation and correspond to the 5.35% of the Structural Funds (European Commission, 2004c).

In this respect, using the existing international networks or establishing new territorial and institutional networks became very convenient for the EU to channel the financial resources and to create an environment that yields to share of knowledge and resources. Since *networks* as analytical tools are more horizontal structure rather vertical, generally in informal character and often linked with ideas of innovation. They are a system of externalities or economies in terms of specialisation, complementarity, cooperation and synergy. Besides, networks constitute a capacity for institutional learning and dissemination of good practice. Therefore, number of twinning agreements, trans-national networks, cross-border collaborations and participation in the advisory councils of European institutions accelerated and become to have a meaning, especially, for the local economies. For instance, Euroregions¹⁸ played an important role as a low level organisation in the state hierarchy and as joint forces of sub-national bodies despite their unclear legal status (Ercole et al., 1997). Common solutions to common problems and sharing of capacities in terms of human

¹⁷ Such as the European Social Fund, the Financial Instrument for Fisheries and Guidance and the Guidance Section of the European Agricultural Guidance and Guarantee Fund

¹⁸ Euroregions are regarded as institutionalised structures that are establish to manage cross-border cooperation

resources and technical equipment to stimulate local development lead to the formation of cross-border networks.

The formal realisation of the importance of border regions and cross-border attempts was at 1980s by the conclusion of Madrid Convention¹⁹ in order to provide a legal base to support cross-border activities and introduction of Interreg Community initiative for funding the cross-border projects and enterprises (Parissaki and Jepson, 1997). In focus, Interreg initiative encourages cross-border (Strand A), interregional cooperation (Strand B) and trans-national (Strand C) by promoting the establishment of partnerships between the involved parties. Among all Interreg A is the most relevant initiative in combating regional inequalities of border regions (European Commission, 2001a) and aims to contribute to the 'integrated regional development between bordering regions'.²⁰

In the second half of 1950s there emerged many attempts to launch cross-border relations in the Western European countries.²¹ The establishment of cross-border bodies and signing of cross-border agreements yield a cooperation environment by exploiting local resources. These bottom-up initiatives aspired to overcome historical inequalities and investments that are misguided and needed to be jointly coordinated (Parissaki and Jepson, 1997). In this respect, *cross-border cooperation* is not an invention of European Commission but a bottom-up initiative of local authorities. However, European Union has played a substantial role in improving the situation at border regions by mobilising financial and technical support. The adoption of Interreg at 1990 aimed to improve cooperation across the borders and give an impetus to further cross-border interactions. Interreg IIA created for 1994-1999 period, specifically supported cross-border cooperation, had a wider perspective targeting to constitute initial stimulus to enhance the quality and number of cross-border cooperation through encouraging networking between countries, sharing technical experiences and dissemination of information. Dissemination of information and knowledge activities targets to spread good practices within the EU territory.

¹⁹ Madrid Convention is prepared by leading of Council of Europe in 1980

²⁰ See http://europa.eu.int/comm/regional_policy/sources/docoffic/official/guidelines/index_en.htm

²¹ Cross-border cooperation were mainly initiated at Scandinavian, Dutch/German and French/German/Swiss borders (Parissaki and Jepson, 1997)

However, cross-border cooperation practices in Western-Europe are slightly different than those in Eastern Europe (the new member states). The former is based on local inspirations that seek better fulfilment of public procurement and joint coordination of investments, whereas in latter case the formation of cross-border cooperation is very much related to the rising additional takings from the EU. Thus, in CEEC establishment of cross-border cooperation is mostly a product of EU integration that is directed by central governments through top-down mechanisms. After the enlargement of the EU the obstacles to cross-border cooperation, especially in legal spheres, increased due to the different administration tiers of governments in the new member states (Özgen, 2005).

Although Community initiatives provide substantial assistance to remove the legal and administrative barriers emanating from legal traditions and lack of legal instruments in different countries, these barriers deprive actors from establishing prosperous cross-border relations (European Commission, 2004a). For the 2000-2006 periods Interreg IIIA initiative is adopted to sustain the financial and technical assistance to cross-border cooperation. In the communication of the European Commission the purpose of launching Interreg IIIA was explained as such:

*“Cross-border cooperation between neighbouring authorities is intended to develop cross-border economic and social centres through joint strategies for sustainable territorial development”.*²²

Added to these, institution of international programmes to provide Europe-wide information and assistance to old and new cross-border cooperation was the second needed step for dissemination of lessons and solutions to common problems - appeared during the implementation of Interreg I and II- to improve the effectiveness of implementation of Interreg IIIA and inform national, regional and local actors and the public in general.

The programme INTERACT (INTERreg - Animation, Coordination, Transfer) and The European Spatial Planning Observatory Network (ESPON) are the programmes

²² For the Communication explaining the introduction of Interreg III see Communication From The Commission to the Member States of 2 September 2004, (2004/C 226/02)

carrying the aforementioned tasks through contacting to the cross-border bodies, institutions and local authorities.²³ The former works as information centre that collects and disseminates cross-border activities all over Europe. One of the main reasons behind setting up of INTERACT was to guide and provide technical assistance to CEEC in establishing and improving cross-border cooperation.

The latter, ESPON, is composed of national planning institutes of the EU member states focusing on the observation and analysis of territorial and regional development trends in Europe, financing research studies in the field of spatial planning, producing databases, indicators, methodologies for territorial impact analysis and systematic spatial analyses, cartographic picture of the major territorial disparities and of their respective intensity. In this respect ESPON contact points are entitled to prepare methods and processes while defining the obstacles of ESPON 2006 programme.²⁴

In this respect, these two programmes, INTERACT and ESPON, are in cooperation to create a synergy by producing projects and reviewing projects in progress on the subjects of transportation and communication, environmental protection, spatial development and visions, cross-border cooperation and urban-rural relations. The expected contribution is to produce future scenarios to enhance the territorial integration and sustainable spatial development in the European territory.

Moreover, Interreg is not only a financial resource but also a stimulus for institutionalisation of cross-border cooperation. Besides providing the initial financial support, it contributes to multi-level governance, concluding of cross-border agreements and creates sub-national bodies to design strategies to exploit resources at local level (Council of Europe, 1995). These bodies can also become a lobbying power both at national and supra-national level and represent their region. For instance, in the Irish case, EU funding upgraded the capacity and confidence of the cross-border cooperation networks by supporting establishment of permanent administrative and secretarial bureau. These efforts both contributed to the decentralisation of central government and configuration of new institutional structures by political arrangements (Laffan and Payne, 2003).

²³ See http://www.europa.eu.int/comm/regional_policy/interreg3/abc/abc_en.htm

²⁴ See <http://www.espon.lu/online/documentation/objective/index.html>

However, in many of the countries institutional capacities of local governments constituted a serious obstacle to make use of the EU funding. Institutional inadequacies and institutional structures with limited human and technical resources are the main bottlenecks to cross-border cooperation in the institutional sphere. In addition lack of cross-border cooperation-oriented administrative departments obstructs harmonised and flexible functioning. Unfortunately the Interreg Community initiative is still to be endorsed by the national governments that it is a subject of bargaining between central governments and local authorities (Council of Europe, 1995).

2.5. Conclusion of Chapter II

The border concept and their symbolic and functional role has considerably transformed in the last couple of decades. The traditional blockage affect of borders has altered through being linking points. The more nation-states ideologies and myths are questioned according to the changing global mobility of capital and goods the more the barrier affect of borders are diminished. These transformations created extensive opportunities for border regions that are mostly accustomed being peripheries of countries. The peripherality of border regions has constituted an obstacle in taking advantages of these opportunities.

Secondly, the underdevelopment, centralistic attitudes of governments and insufficient coordination of investments in the locality mobilised the local private and public initiatives in the Western Europe. The need for efficient management of financial resources and planning for the investment for local development launched cross-border cooperation between different administrative units.

Thirdly, the establishment of cross-border cooperation did not follow the same pathway in every country; CEEC had different experiences due to the EU's enlargement effects and membership requirements. In the European context the border areas covers a significant amount of land and maritime regions. However, their development level differs to a large extend. In due course, the EU's financial and institutional support plays a substantial contribution in advancing the economic

situation at border regions and in improving institutional capacities. The EU initiatives have provided sustainable funding that yield to launch and complete many cross-border projects and establishment of cross-border bodies which contributed to the formation of cooperative working culture and reduction historical conflicts. What is more important is EU supported the decentralisation of central governments and pressured channelling of participatory accountable and democratic policies in local governance, although the success and effectiveness of their implementation is open to discussion.

3. THE ROLE OF LOCAL GOVERNMENTS IN CROSS-BORDER COOPERATION AND INSTITUTIONAL CAPACITY PROBLEMS

Chapter III discusses the obstacles that local authorities face with during setting up or enhancing cross-border cooperation from an administrative point of view. The obstacles to cooperation determine some similarities in different countries although the difficulties in cross-border cooperation are unique to specific cases. The main obstacles are grouped in reference to the international organisations' reports²⁵ and mostly mentioned problems from practices *-political will, legal competences, collaboration between the levels of government, level of technology internalising, language barriers, and institutional capacity problems-*. Those are usually administrative, economic, social and infrastructural problems (CoE, 1995). Among others, institutional capacity is largely considered in relation to the problems in the case area *-Aegean coast-*, and as being a main obstacle to cooperation between the two countries.

3.1. Administrative Obstacles to Cross-border Cooperation

In the literature and in practice there are plenty of sources discussing the obstacles to cross-border cooperation. The reasons hindering the establishment and promotion of cross-border cooperation vary according to different administrative structures and administrative traditions of the countries. Although, broadly speaking, in most of the cases there are similar obstacles, the solutions to these problems are country-specific -

²⁵ The main problematic areas are grouped in reference to obstacles that are frequently mentioned by international organizations –such as CoE, CoR, AEBR and some others- dealing with cross-border cooperation issues.

from political willingness of the authorities to institutional capacity problems-. For instance the needs and practices in decentralised countries are partly different than those in centralised examples. The centralised countries mostly deal with absences of devolution of legal powers to local authorities and financial powers to foster cross-border cooperation whereas in decentralised countries the problems may emanate from lack of efficient implementation schemes. In this respect the obstacles that are discussed below originate from the problems of case area selected from Aegean coast. In this respect this study focuses on the administrative obstacles to cross-border cooperation.

According to the literature *political will* of the central governments are key to launch cooperation across the borders. The support of central government provides legal and financial resources for local governments to participate in cross-border cooperation. However, the examples²⁶ points out that in centralist countries the governments are not very willing to support local authorities for this type of cooperation. The foci of their reluctance are interrelated to the prejudices towards local authorities and fears of separatist movements. Especially, in the countries with powerful central governments local authorities are very much dependent on the centre in financial and administrative matters. The supervision over local authorities not only creates a tension between different levels of governments but also decreases the possibilities of improving local capacities. Secondly, the historical experiences of countries with their neighbours are very important in carrying interests to cooperate for *local* economic development. The countries that suffered from conflicts and ethnic clashes are more distant to develop joint strategies for common benefits with neighbouring countries. In this case the central government is not in support of enhancing cross-border cooperation. Consequently, the overlaps of national and local interests create an enabling environment for the governments to achieve their objectives.

The *legal competences* of local authorities are very relevant in taking initiatives to participate in cross-border cooperation. The legal background of cross-border cooperation is based on public or private law that varies from one country to another. In due course legal asymmetry emerges as a problem between the local authorities of different countries (Council of Europe, 1995). The decentralised countries where

²⁶ Turkey, Greece, Hungary

more legal powers are delegated to local authorities are more eager to involve in cooperation across the borders. On the other way around heavy bureaucracy and laborious paper work are main constraints for local authorities. In the latter case, even if the standing point of the government is in favour of promoting cross-border cooperation, without making regulations to foster cooperation and lessening bureaucracy there is not much space for local authorities to benefit from the cooperation.

Collaboration between the levels of governments is one of the most important features in legal sphere. Both at central and local level participatory decision-making ease the acceptance of the ideas and yield better execution of the decisions. Strong feedback from bottom-up not only creates an understanding between centre and local but also builds administrative coordination. In this respect it is very important whether the central government allows local authorities to exercise their powers for territorial cooperation across the borders as well as involves them in decision-making on the subjects that are under their competences. Thus, decentralisation provides a freedom to take initiatives to solve common problems in coordination with the other local authorities having the same difficulties. The level of collaboration between local authorities both international and national scales is highly corresponded to the level of decentralisation within the state.

Another obstacle that the local authorities face with is the level of *technology internalising* within the institutions in terms of computerisation. The more spread the technology usage is the more knowledgeable the local authorities are. Technology internalising contributes to increase the awareness and ease to reach recent financial opportunities on cross-border networks, local governance and institutional innovation schemes. Common usage of computer-based system is an important tool to lessen the time-consuming paper work between local and central governments. Besides, it substantially increases the responsiveness of local authorities.

Although *language barriers* cannot be regarded as main obstacle presence of bilingual people contribute to increase the economic interaction and societal communication between bordering societies. The removal of historical prejudices and eagerness to come together for common benefits in social and economic life amplify

by the presence of people who can speak both or more languages. Since the differences in languages do not stand for as a frontier between the societies; frontiers are more the products of cultural distances and collective imaginary. The linguistic distances engender a serious barrier for social contacts and slow down the economic interaction while creating extra paper work for cooperation.

Institutional capacity problems are the most striking impediments for cross-border cooperation. The main problem is the divergences between the breakdowns of tasks of local authorities on different sides of the border. The imbalances and asymmetry of the legal competences of the local authorities lead to divergent capacities and responsiveness. Thus the familiarity on cross-border cooperation and cross-border experiences of the local authorities generate different enabling or disabling settings. For instance, lack of flexibility and administrative departments specialised on cross-border cooperation create pointless frustrations and conflicts (Council of Europe, 1995). The specialised departments with sufficient human capital and physical resources are more inventive in building relationships with their counterparts, following the recent developments on cross-border cooperation and searching for international/national financial opportunities for their projects. Sustainable cross-border cooperation requires both efficient use of existing capacities and improving the institutional capacities through acquiring new knowledge, increasing awareness, formulating strategies, and monitoring performance.

In the next part institutional capacity definition and its relevance to cross-border cooperation is widely discussed. This study specifically focuses on institutional capacity problem of the local authorities due to the observations resting on the existing cross-border experiences at the case region.

3.2. Institutional Capacity Problems in Cross-border Cooperation

In this part institutional capacity and institutional capacity building concepts are examined in reference to the extensive literature and experiences of international organisations that are focusing on assessing and developing institutional capacities. Secondly, the levels and components of institutional capacity are explained concerning global influences and formation of network systems. Finally, deficient

institutional capacities are discussed as challenging obstacles to territorial networking at the local sphere.

The term capacity refers to laws and regulations, policies, management (who manages the system) and accountability, resources (human, financial, information) and processes (interrelations, dependencies, interaction). Capacity concept is centre to people's vision, institutions and their practices (UNDP, 2002). There are various definitions for capacity produced by international organisations. In the United Nations Development Programme capacity is defined as 'a process by which individuals, organisations, and societies develop abilities to perform functions, solve problems, and set and achieve goals premised on ownership, choice, and self-esteem' (World Bank, 2005). A similar definition made by CIDA states that capacity is 'abilities, skills, understandings, attitudes, values, relationships, behaviours, motivations, resources and conditions that enable individuals, organizations, networks/sectors and broader social systems to carry out functions and achieve their development objectives over time' (Bolger, 2000). 'Capacity is learning and responsiveness across systems, structures and processes' (Ryan and Rudland, 2002). Thus, capacity is defined not only an individual capability to achieve to goals but also an asset of the institutions and systems to engage and respond to change. In this respect *capacity concept* includes actors and organisations from different levels of society, their practices targeting to achieve certain goals and a system in which these actors are interactively functioning.

Capacity and capacity building became a central topic of governments and other actors dealing with development issues after 1950s. Since 1950s the focus of the studies about capacity development changed exclusively from technical capacities to more dynamic perspectives of capacity due to need to respond to the global changes. Recent features of capacity employ more attention to enabling environment, core competencies, specialisation, cross-border networking capabilities and capabilities to faster response to change (Cheema, 2003). Intensity of these features in a system has crucial importance to work in coordination and reaching to the goals.

Capacities are altered in each level. Individual capabilities are chief important to institutional capacities whereas institutions might need support from central

governments and international organisations. At the individual level development of leader's capacity is regarded as strengths of the institutions. For instance in local governance, the *leader* has to comprise right values such as pro-poor orientation in practising his policies, be open to civic dialogue, conflict management and negotiation, improved technical skills (revenue generation and financial management), hold participatory approaches in local planning, decision-making and service delivery. Since a strong political will, leadership and proactive role of single individuals or group are crucial to meet the needs and to work in collaboration. Since a common understanding and respect among the actors are part of cooperation and realisation of the actual needs (UNDP, 2002).

On the other hand, more overlaps of national and institutional priorities the more improved capacities and sustainable implementations are in practice. The shared priorities and interaction among the actors by making arrangements to encourage participation enhances the formation of an enabling environment and creates an ownership. Since capacity development requires strong networking, participation and consultation between these different levels as shown in figure 3.1.

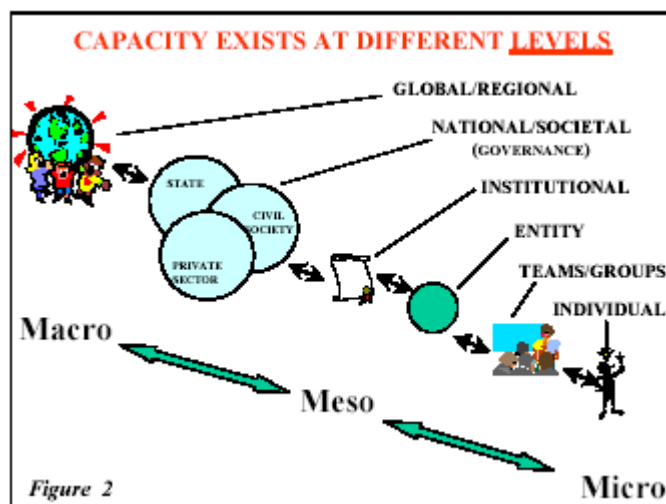


Figure 3.1: Capacity at Different Levels (Cheema, 2003)

Knowledge networks, for example 'association of local officials' or 'sister city arrangements and municipality unions', have crucial importance to share experiences and common issues and to keep the actors up to date with the state of the art concepts and practices (UNDP, 2002). Therefore, interactions of stakeholders within a network

create a mutual understanding and reciprocity, respect for roles and responsibilities and providing the required mechanisms for carrying out the responsibilities.

Capacity development is basically a governance issue related to openness, experimentation, involvement of beneficiaries and necessitates bureaucratic transparency and accountability (United Nations, 1996). It is integral to national development and a part of continual dynamic learning process (Cheema, 2003). Improvement of capacities requires strengthening the knowledge-base, competence, resources, networks, infrastructure and other forms of support. In addition these abilities have to be enhanced in an ongoing sustainable fashion (Ryan and Rudland, 2002). Therefore, capacity development is an indigenous process of change (Morgan, 1998)

Capacity development embraces three aspects; human resources, organisations and institutions. The society's capacity is an important potential in the development process. These potentials are grouped into two (See Table 3.1); there are tangible resources that refer to the physical assets of society and there are intangibles that are mainly related to the skills, traditions and cultural characteristics (Lavergne and Saxby, 2001). Thus, capacity development is a product of efficient management of intangible and physical resources.

Table 3.1: Components of Society's Capacity

Physical (Tangible) Resources	Intangible Resources
Infrastructure	Skills
Machinery	Experience and values
Plants	Social cohesion and social capital
Education of the population	Values and motivations
Healthiness of the population	Traditions
	Institutional culture

Source: Lavergne and Saxby, 2001

Furthermore, the organisational approach in capacity building sees organisations key to development so that their systems, skills, leadership are main drives in reaching to their objectives. Organisational capacity is more linked to the development of organisational skills such as organisational participation, imagination and proactive thinking throughout the organisation and coherence of management planning to increase institutionalised awareness, creativity and communication (Ryan and Rudland, 2002). However, local governance cannot be realised simply depending on

organisational capacity but the society's values, laws and regulations have to be considered in the development process. In this respect, institutional capacity is a combination and interaction of these dynamic processes that has crucial importance in adapting and responding to changes (Lusthaus, C. et al., 1999). In this study institutional capacity concept refers to the intensity of networking, effectiveness of liaison, scope of inclusiveness (Ryan and Rudland, 2002) and participation, sustainability of institutional networks for mutual benefits.

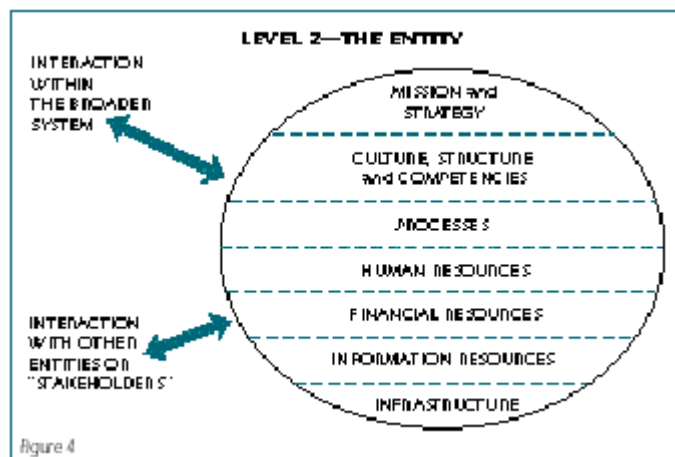


Figure 3.2: The Components of Capacity in an Entity or Organisation (ECDPM, 2002)

Lack of sufficient institutional capacities became serious bottlenecks for practitioners since the emphasis from planning to policy implementations of sustainable development has increased. The practitioners confronted with similar institutional constraints such as “highly compartmentalized organizations in the public sector, difficulties in promoting more decentralization, the continuation of sectoral thinking and acting, lack of sufficient accountability and responsiveness, a shortage of financial and skilled human resources, poor salary and working conditions, and a lack of a performance culture in many development organizations” (United Nations, 1996). The efficiency and implementation problems that emanate from institutional shortages necessitated more emphasis to correct designation of institutional capacity building policies and implementation of them. Institutional networking for mutual benefits and need for efficient use of resources compel local authorities to work in coordination and cooperation. Cross-border cooperation requires efficient use of organisational skills and collective values beyond the borders. However, administrative borders are serious blockages to exchange technical equipment and to mobility of qualified

human resources. Institutional capacities are the most important prerequisite of permanent cross-border cooperation. The governments with enhanced capacities can favourably benefit from territorial networking across the borders in local development process.

Although there are several capabilities that the institutions have to hold, fundamental capacities are case-specific. In this part the answers to; what interest or competence qualifies an organization for particular roles and strategies, and what is the enabling or constraining effects of organizational culture, of administrative procedures for cross-border cooperation are discussed from an administrative point of view. The constraints and obstacles to long-term cross-border cooperation are explained.

Next chapter discusses the impact of various institutional dynamics at the case area. In order to reflect the current socio-economic situation of the border regions of the country some analyses are done and visualised at NUTS III level. Finally, the results of the field survey conducted at the Aegean coastline provinces are presented.

4. REGIONAL INEQUALITIES AND CROSS-BORDER COOPERATION: THE AEGEAN COAST

Countries have different experiences in the EU integration process. Turkey as a candidate country, facing with serious regional inequalities, is passing through a strenuous transformation process. In this chapter, the regional inequalities and socio-economic situation of the border regions of Turkey are analysed by employing GDP level, population growth and birth rate data. The influences of EU integration in redefinition of territorial divisions and establishment of regional/local bodies entitled to provide technical assistance to the final beneficiaries of the EU funding in Turkey is explained. In addition, different spatial corridors defined through economic relations at NUTS II and III levels are visualised and is overlapped with the index produced by State Planning Organisation indicating development level of provinces.

Secondly, the institutional restructuring through establishment of regional development agencies, specialised departments under local governments and SPO is launched as a result of EU integration endeavours. These are widely mentioned to

point out the limited efforts of central government in delegating some of its responsibilities to local authorities.

Third, the EU integration motive behind the rapprochement between Greece and Turkey is discussed concerning the various agreements concluded between the governments and Interreg IIIA programme which promotes cross-border cooperation. In the end, cross-border cooperation is discussed whether it could be used as an instrument for local development in Turkey considering the institutional capacities of local governments.

4.1. Regional Inequalities and Territorial *Re-Divisions* in Turkey

Regional inequalities that are inherited from Ottoman times to Turkey have been one of the major problems of the country for balanced development. Until 1995s, the significant income gap and increasing disparities due to the fast growth point out an instable economic development (Kongar, 1998).

Although central government have put extensive efforts to remove the backwardness of particular regions through increasing public investments, promoting private sector investments and giving more priorities to those in regional development programmes,²⁷ the execution of those have not been as expected. The main characteristics of development plans in Turkey were to guide and direct private sector investments. However, private sector investments have been concentrated at certain locations while public sector investments were realised at highest level at backward regions (SPO, 2003a).

A spatial overlook to Turkey points out 5 different development structures due to the economic potentials of the regions and relationships among them. Firstly, there are traditional growth poles such as Istanbul, Adana, Ankara where industrial development spread to the neighbouring cities and that are mainly specialised on service sector. Secondly, the cities, such as Tekirdağ, Kocaeli, Manisa, neighbouring major development centres and specialised at industry constitute the second category. Third category comprises the cities facing industrial decline and economic regression

²⁷ KÖY, GAP, DAP, DOKAP (See Abbreviations)

as we witness at Zonguldak and Kırıkkale. In contrast the regions at the fourth category, Gaziantep, Çorum, Denizli, are the newly emerging industry centres that are specialised in particular economic sectors and generating production by exploiting their local resources. Finally, the cities located at the Mediterranean and Aegean coast are mentioned as areas specialised on tourism sector.

The general development model of the country is based on growth poles and their trickling down effects. Consequently, it is possible to observe spatial subdivisions that are formed by areas determining similar characteristics and having interrelationships among them. However, in the last couple of years new trends that are chiefly characterised by the relocation of national industry from big cities to some local centres as well as the search of private sector for new places to invest in Anatolia changed the territorial development schema (SPO, 2003a).

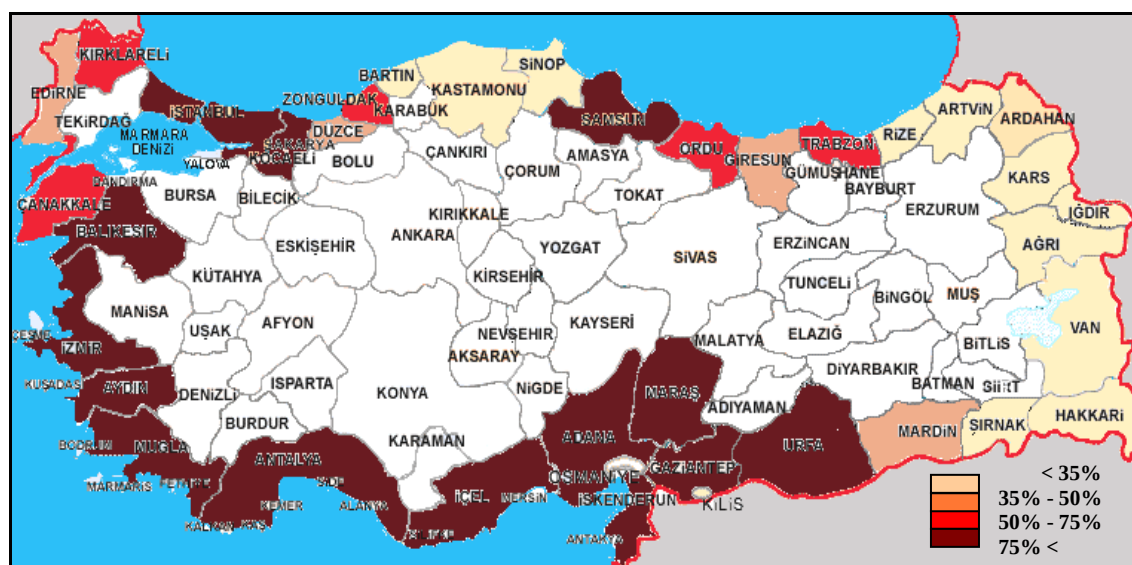
Among these categories border regions represent homogeneities among them. Although the western border regions of the country are far more developed than those at east and north-east both in economic and social terms, they show special characteristics such as being traditional tourism and trade areas or traditional peripheries of the country. In economic terms the eastern, north-eastern and south-eastern borders of Turkey are characterised by their dependency to primary sector and agricultural production whereas western regions are specialised in tourism and industrial production, especially making use of *local resources*.

In the maps below some statistical data is used in order to determine the development levels of the border regions of the country at NUTS III level.²⁸ Bearing in mind that *development* is a very wide and open concept depending on the indicators operated in a survey; what employed in this study is *some of* the basic determinants of Human Development Index²⁹ in order to have a general idea on the situation of the border regions. Map 4.1. determines the distribution of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) at the border regions of Turkey. The average GDP value of Turkey is equalised to 100 in order to produce comparable values for border regions. The index values of GDP levels are grouped into four categories. The regions generating GDP values below

²⁸ For more information about NUTS divisions see part 4.1.

²⁹ For more information about Human Development Index see www.un.org

35% of country average are regarded as poor regions, whereas regions having GDP values over 75% of country average are regarded as rich regions.



Map 4.1: The Distribution of GDP at Border Provinces of Turkey, 2001³⁰ (SPO, 2001)

Table 4.1: The Distribution of GDP at Border Provinces of Turkey, 2001

Turkey Average=100	Number of Regions	Name of the Border Provinces
< 35%	13	Ağrı, Artvin, Kars, Kastamonu, Rize, Sinop, Van, Şırnak, Bartın, Kilis, Hakkari, Iğdır, Ardahan
35% below up to 50%	4	Edirne, Giresun, Mardin, Düzce
50% below up to 75%	5	Çanakkale, Kırklareli, Ordu, Trabzon, Zonguldak
75% <	14	Adana, Antalya, Aydın, Balıkesir, Gaziantep, Hatay, İzmir, Mersin, Kocaeli, Muğla, Sakarya, Samsun, Şanlıurfa, İstanbul

Source: SPO, 2001

It is crucial to mention Istanbul separately due to its significant GDP level that is 17.4 times higher than the average of the country. Although it is grouped under the same category with other 13 regions, the city has substantial weight in generating of the national GDP. As shown on the map, there are considerable disparities between maritime and eastern land border regions of the country. In addition, the strong asymmetry between poor east and rich west is very notable. The eastern borders determine a continuous backwardness and homogeneity at the north-south axis. On the other hand, along the Mediterranean and Aegean coast it is possible to view the trickling down effects of the main economic centres such as İzmir, Antalya, Adana.

³⁰ The graph determines the index GDP values of the provinces of Turkey at 1987 prices. In this index Turkey's average is equalized to 100 and the GDP value of provinces are calculated in proportion to it.

Along the coast the GDP level of the provinces are above 75% of the country average. However, GDP disparities are also notable *within* the western border regions. At Aegean coast maritime borders generate more GDP than the land borders at Thrace region. What is very striking to observe is that there are considerably rich and poor regions whereas medium level cities almost do not exist along the borders of the country. In addition, the regions that are generating relatively poor GDP values, 0% to 50% percent of country average, are also under the Development Priority Regions Programme³¹ that is initiated by SPO. The aim of this programme is to encourage inward investments to underdeveloped regions by providing subsidies and technical expertise to the entrepreneurs who are concerned to invest to these regions.

Secondly, *birth rate* is used to analyse the population growth and to picture the current situation at the border regions. The values of western coast and Thrace are under Turkey's average whereas Black Sea coast, eastern Turkey and south-eastern regions are over the country's averages. Van, Hakkari, and Şırnak constitute the highest birth rate among all the border regions of Turkey. It is interesting to observe that although the GDP level is the lowest in these provinces, natural growth of population is very high.



Map 4.2: Birth Rate at Border Provinces of Turkey, 2000 (SPO, 2000)

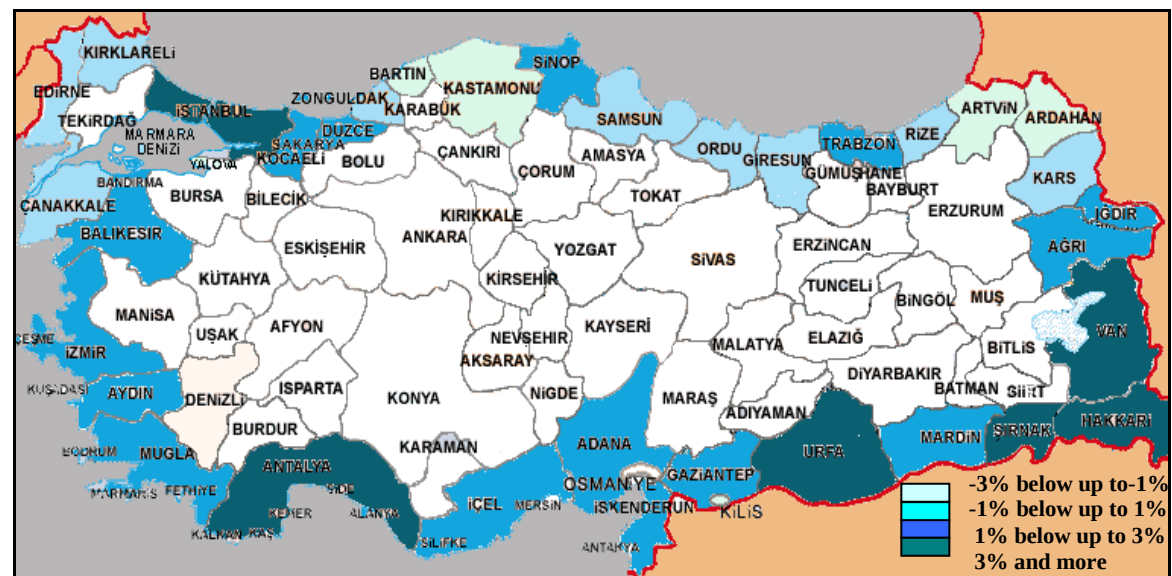
³¹ These regions cover more than 50% percent of Turkey's land and the population living here corresponds more than 30% of the population of the country. In addition, GDP per capita in Development Priority Regions is 56% percent of country average whereas it is equal to 17% of that of the EU (Delegation of European Commission to Turkey, 2002). For more information about Development Priority Regions see www.dpt.gov.tr

Table 4.2: The Distribution of Birth Rate at Border Provinces of Turkey, 2000

Turkey's Average=2.53	Number of Regions	Name of the Border Provinces
0 below up to 2	9	Antalya, Balıkesir, Çanakkale, Edirne, İstanbul, İzmir, Kırklareli, Muğla, Zonguldak
2 below up to 4	21	Mersin, Adana, Hatay, Aydın, Sakarya, Kocaeli, Bartın, Kastamonu, Sinop, Samsun, Ordu, Giresun, Trabzon, Rize, Artvin, Ardahan, Kars, Gaziantep
4 below up to 6	4	Agri, Iğdır, Şanlıurfa, Mardin
6 and more	3	Hakkari, Van, Şırnak

At the regions with higher GDP levels, birth rate is under the country average. These regions are also more developed in economic terms and determine homogeneity among them. Black Sea coast and eastern Mediterranean verifies a consistency with the country average.

In the Map 4.3 the annual growth rate of population at the border regions of Turkey is presented. Although population growth noticeably decreased in years, the country average which corresponds to 1.8 is still considerably higher than European Union member states.



Map 4.3: Annual Growth Rate of Population at Border Provinces of Turkey, 2000
(SPO, 2000)

Table 4.3: Annual Growth Rate of Population at Border Provinces of Turkey, 2000

Turkey's Average=1.8	Number of Regions	Name of the Provinces
-3% below up to -1%	5	Artvin, Kastamonu, Bartın, Kilis, Ardahan
-1% below up to 1%	9	Çanakkale, Edirne, Giresun, Kars, Kırklareli, Ordu, Rize, Samsun, Zonguldak
1% below up to 3%	16	Adana, Ağrı, Aydın, Balıkesir, Düzce, Gaziantep, Hatay, Mersin, İzmir, Kocaeli, Mardin, Muğla, Sakarya, Sinop, Iğdır, Trabzon
3% and more	6	Antalya, İstanbul, Şanlıurfa, Van, Şırnak, Hakkari

Source: SPO, 2000

According to the comparison of birth rate with annual growth of population some regions at the western Turkey emerges to attract inward population movements. For instance Istanbul and Antalya are most eye-catching ones. Added to these, some provinces at Black Sea coast and south-eastern Turkey such as Sinop, Trabzon, Adana and Şanlıurfa carry the same function. Consequently, the provinces generating highest population growth are developed and least developed regions of the country. At the eastern border there are a couple of regions where the birth rate is above the country's average and determining negative growth rate.

In this respect it is important to emphasize the continuing migration at the east-west direction within the country. However, the continuation of the population movements is a serious obstacle to balanced development and a sign of not utilising local resources and lack of adequate investments. The presence of various regional development plans and existing regional inequalities within the country compel us to question the realisation of these plans.

On the other hand, the deepening regional inequalities are the main bottlenecks in the EU integration process of the country. Moreover, border regions have crucial importance for the territorial cohesion with the member states. Especially, in lengthening the transportation infrastructure, enhancing the interaction between communities and creating new employment opportunities for the local people border regions and cross-border contacts have critical roles.

4.2. The Impact of the EU Integration on Institutional Restructuring of Turkey

Although the first membership application of Turkey to European Union was at 1960s, it has not been the major interest of political elite. However, international political environment and circumstances of macro regional conditions of Turkey in terms of seeking a trustable partner in the global context yield rising political interests for EU integration and opening of a new door for full membership negotiation. Since European Union accepted Turkey's application by giving a formal status –accession country- to Turkey at Helsinki Summit, 1999, substantial transformations started to take place while extensive opportunities came out.

In this respect, after 2002, Turkey experienced a shift from being included in the *MEDA*³² programme to benefiting from pre-accession financial assistance. Launching of many financial programmes to realise the projects in numerous fields required various regulations and preparations which are mainly focused on enhancing capacities in institutional and administrative spheres. One third of the EU assistance is mobilised for the projects on the areas *-cross-border cooperation, regional development, SMEs-* that contribute to the socio-economic cohesion and decrease the regional disparities between Turkey and the EU. Since 2004 the number of projects that were funded by the EU, under MEDA and Pre-accession financial assistance programmes, reached to 117 and corresponds 1.21 billion €. ³³

Since then, a series of regulations to redesign the administrative system of governmental institutions have taken place in order to manage EU funds and to adopt a legal framework. For instance, establishment of NUTS regions³⁴ is an important step in redefinition of the regional territorial divisions and establishment of regional administrative structures of Turkey. Therefore, 3 different levels of regions are defined. Covering from larger to smaller areas 12 NUTS I and 26 NUTS II level

³² MEDA is a European Union financial instrument of which targets to help the partnerships between the Mediterranean countries and the EU member states.

³³ For more information on pre-accession financial assistance see Secretariat General for the EU Affairs information note :
<http://www.abgs.gov.tr/uploads/files/AB%20Mali%20Yardimlari%20Hakkinda%20Bilgilendirme%20Notu.pdf>

³⁴ By the Decision of the Council of Ministers No.2002/4720 at Official Gazette No. 24884 on 22 September 2002

regions are established. Due to the practical reasons in collection of statistics the borders of NUTS III level regions are overlapped with the borders of 81 provinces of the country.³⁵ On the other hand, in the *national plan* (EUSG, 2003) under the subject of Regional Policy³⁶ the main priority is given to “Establishment of a *legislative and administrative framework* and *necessary mechanisms* for the programming, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of regional programmes consistent with Community Standards”. According to their urgency these priorities are divided into. Short term priorities are composed of: a) Preparation of a national development policy aiming to reduce the regional disparities and establishment of regional plans at NUTS II level, b) Adoption of a legislative framework that would facilitate the implementation of the *acquis*, c) Establishment of a pluri-annual budgeting procedures to set out the principles for public investment in the regions, d) Strengthening the capacities of the administrative structures for managing regional development. Secondly, medium-term priority was to set up regional branches at NUTS II level to implement regional development plans (EUSG, 2003).

In this respect, *service unions* that are responsible of the implementation of the regional development plans and coordination between centre-local institutions were established. The Yesilirmak Basin Provincial Special Administration Service Union was established by the governorships in Samsun NUTS II region.³⁷ Secondly, the Central Black Sea Development Union³⁸ was established. Furthermore, establishment of a similar Union in 2003 in Erzurum NUTS II region is envisaged. Within the context of the Eastern Anatolian Development Programme (Van, Muş, Bitlis, Hakkari) a Project Coordination Unit and a Regional Development Institute will be established in Van (EUSG, 2003).

Moreover, there are some attempts for the establishment of regional development agencies that are going to be located in the central city of every NUTS II level regions with the participation of public and private actors. According to the *draft bill concerning the establishment of the regional development agencies* the major concerns are reducing the regional inequalities and balanced development among the

³⁵ See Annex I

³⁶ Regional policy is one of the 32 activity areas of the EU, Subject no 21

³⁷ Decision of the Council of Ministers No. 97/9991 on 23 September 1997

³⁸ Decision of the Council of Ministers No.2003/5318 on 24 February 2003

regions of the country. In the context of the draft bill it is strongly mentioned that the targets of the 8. Five Year Development Plan and the expectations from regional development agencies are highly consistent. Although there are plenty of financial and administrative deficiencies in the legal framework of the draft bill, it can be regarded as a positive attempt to fulfil the need for regional administrative structures.

Moreover, in 2004-2006 periods Interreg IIIA³⁹ initiative of the EU is mobilised to promote the establishment of cross-border cooperation between Greece and Turkey. Regarding the existing deficiencies of the technological and transportation infrastructure, regional inequalities and historical social conflicts a strategic programme and priority actions have been prepared to guide the cross-border projects and investments.

Enhanced economic and social cohesion and creation of a long-lasting peaceful atmosphere between these two societies has been the main goal of the programme. Regarding the existing situation of the border regions and the information gathered from swot analysis the programme is structured under 4 main titles (European Commission, 2004d):

Priority 1. Cross-Border Infrastructures

- 1.1 Infrastructures of transports and cross-border networks
- 1.2 Safe movement of persons and goods + illegal migration

Priority 2 – Economic Growth and Employment

- 2.1 Strengthening of cross-border entrepreneurship
- 2.2 Cooperation of institutions for the promotion of cross-border cooperation
- 2.3 Development of various forms of tourism
- 2.4 Human resources and promotion of employment

Priority 3 – Quality Of Life / Environment / Culture

- 3.1 Protection of health
- 3.2 Protection, promotion and management of natural environment
- 3.3 Promotion of cultural and tourist activities
- 3.4 Cooperation of educational institutions for the promotion of cross-border cooperation

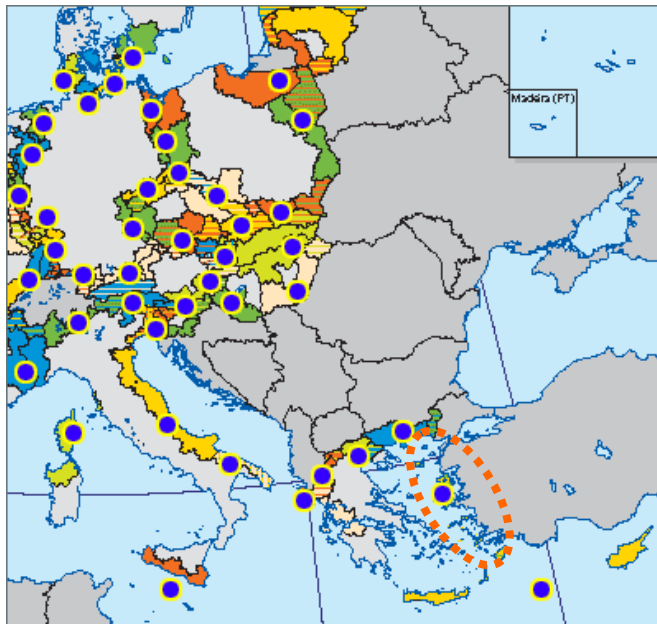
³⁹ See Map 8

Priority 4 – Technical Assistance

4.1 Management of Programme

4.2 Technical support

Added to the regulations at central level, there had been a couple of institutional arrangements at the regional and local spheres. For instance, local and regional secretariats are established under the supervision of central government to inform local actors and regularly disseminate updated information about cross-border cooperation while providing coordination between the levels of government. Local secretariats are set up under the governorships of the 6 provinces⁴⁰ located along the Aegean and bordering Bulgaria-Greece at Thrace.



Map 4.4: Interreg IIIA (Cross-border Cooperation) Southeast Zone⁴¹

In this respect, every functional action is supposed to be taken by local secretariats, and State Planning Organization (SPO) is the supervising institution before the EU Secretariat-General for the EU Affairs.

The *regional* secretariat of the Turkey side is EGEV (Aegean Economic Development Foundation) while *local* secretariats are established under governorship and composed

⁴⁰ Aydın, Balıkesir, Çanakkale, Edirne, İzmir, Muğla

⁴¹ See www.europe.eu.int

of 2 people within the governorship personnel (See Figure 3). The aim of the local secretariat is:

1. to provide the communication between local and central governments
2. to support the final beneficiaries for the project preparation.

They are the main executor of the Interreg programme. There is not any legal status for the local secretariats, but an official document has been sent from SPO for the establishment of the Interreg departments within the governorships. The municipalities, NGOs, Chamber of commerce and related institutions are the final beneficiaries. They are asked to spot the existing potentials of the region in order to identify the priority actions.

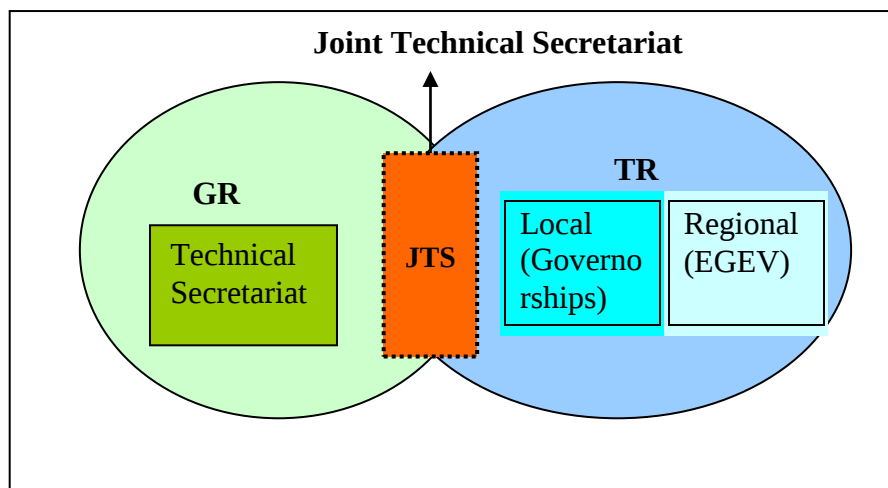


Figure 4.1: Interreg IIIA Administrative Organisation Schema of GR-TR (European Commission, 2004d)⁴²

However, there are serious critiques towards the legislation and execution processes of regionalisation. These efforts point out the orientation of gathering funds from European Union considering the internal organisation of the regional development agencies and their financial statement. In fact, like Turkish government, due to the fast integration endeavours many of the CEE countries were exposed to this critique. The countries with insufficient local capacities and ineffective implementation mechanisms have suffered from providing the continuity of well-functioning regional structures. In Turkey case, according to the 2004 Regular Report on Turkey's progress towards accession there has not been done much on the regional policy area. On the territorial organisation no development has been reported. After creation of the

⁴² See http://www.europa.eu.int/comm/regional_policy/interreg3/abc/voleta_east_en.htm

NUTS regions legal framework has not been established so far. Establishment of *service unions* by SPO is the only notable development while the legal framework and operational efforts for the establishment of regional development agencies took place limitedly.

In overall evaluation, there is an *extensive need* for the improvement of central and local administrative capacities in order to execute the regional development plans and generate a sustainable balanced territorial development. What is more, the responsible institutions have to be donated with adequate financial and human resources in order to increase the self-sufficiency at local level.

5. THE FIELD STUDY - THE INSTITUTIONAL CAPACITY OF THE LOCAL AUTHORITIES

European Union membership interest of the central government yielded a series of changes in both institutional and administrative spheres. It was worth to observe the central government's adjustments of country-specific conditions to the EU requirements and bottom-up reactions to these new developments. Especially, in the spatial context, EU driven programme and funding opportunities for territorial integration both came out to be a challenge for local governments that are more inward oriented and relatively capable to set up socio-economic relationships across the borders and opened a door for local development by utilising local resources.

This study is based on certain observations on the current practices of the central and local governments of Turkey in adjusting the EU legislation and execution processes to their administration system. However, the discrepancy between the legislation and application, mainly concerning territorial cohesion, raises some questions and yields making of several assumptions.

Firstly, referring to the EU integration practices, it is argued that the role of local authorities is not effectively comprehended by the central government. Secondly, local authorities might have institutional capacity constraints obstructing reaching to their objectives. Third, central and local governments might not be aware of the importance of cross-border cooperation as a beneficial tool for local development. Fourth, the existing cross-border networks might not be seeking for long term

economic benefits where this approach does not coincide with the spirit of cross-border cooperation. Fifth, local authorities might not have adequate legal instruments to function and improve this type of cooperation. Since the Interreg IIIA programme is launched between Greece and Turkey, selection of a case area at the Aegean coast in order to test the observations might be useful to reach operational findings and to analyse the level of territorial networking at local sphere.

As a result of face to face interviews and examining the existing legal framework for setting up cross-border cooperation, the *problem* is defined as such; ‘In Turkey, EU integration process is not driven by local inspirations but more related to the interest of central government. In this respect, establishment of the regional administrative structures and internalisation of the EU policies for territorial integration are realised through a top-down approach. However, local authorities in Turkey do not have sufficient administrative competences and institutional capacities to employ cross-border cooperation as a policy for local development. Thus, the lack of these local capacities is the main obstacle for sustainable cross-border cooperation.’

In the first and second chapters of this study the information related to the cross-border cooperation experiences of different countries, mainly from European Union members, the procedural changes, formation of new systems/administrative structures and structural factors affecting the local development processes are analysed. Moreover, processing the statistics is divided into two parts. Firstly, the data is used to picture the general situation and development trends of the border regions of the country. Secondly, a field study is conducted at the Turkish side of the Aegean coast and Thrace border in order to examine the current administrative practices and level of awareness of the local authorities on cross-border cooperation which is highly promoted by European Commission to encourage the use of local resources and capacities.

5.1. The Conceptual Model of the Research Process

This study questions the relation between institutional capacities of local authorities and sustainability of cross-border cooperation. The research model defines *four different categories* related to the institutional capacities of the local authorities to

analyse the conditions required for long term cooperation. These are: a) Leader's Vision/Expectations, b) Information Channels/Awareness, c) Institutional Resources, d) Local Resources - Potentials & Constraints. Other than those, long lasting cooperation is also a product of strong democratic interaction between central and local governments. In due course, the relationship between different tiers of governments is specified as moderating variable in order to observe the effect of central government in enhancing local capacities and observe common vision of the local leaders on this relationship.

As mentioned before, four categories for sustainable cooperation are marked out at Box II. Box I presents the sub-titles of these categories where those are covered and analysed in the questionnaire by directly asking questions to the *local administrators*.

In the first category, Leader's vision and expectation refers to the political willingness of local-central governments to cooperate and questions whether they have adequate legal instruments to involve in networks. In the questionnaire, some questions are asked in order to figure out the *Vision/Expectations* of the leader, his *Awareness/Perceptions* concerning cross-border cooperation and his *Propensity* to involve in cross-border networks.

In the second category, *Information channels* of the institutions implies the regular transmission of information through information channels, whether the leader/officers are adequately informed and there is a transmission of information within the institution and from centre towards local. Finally, the frequency of attending to and relevance of the title of the vocational training is questioned.

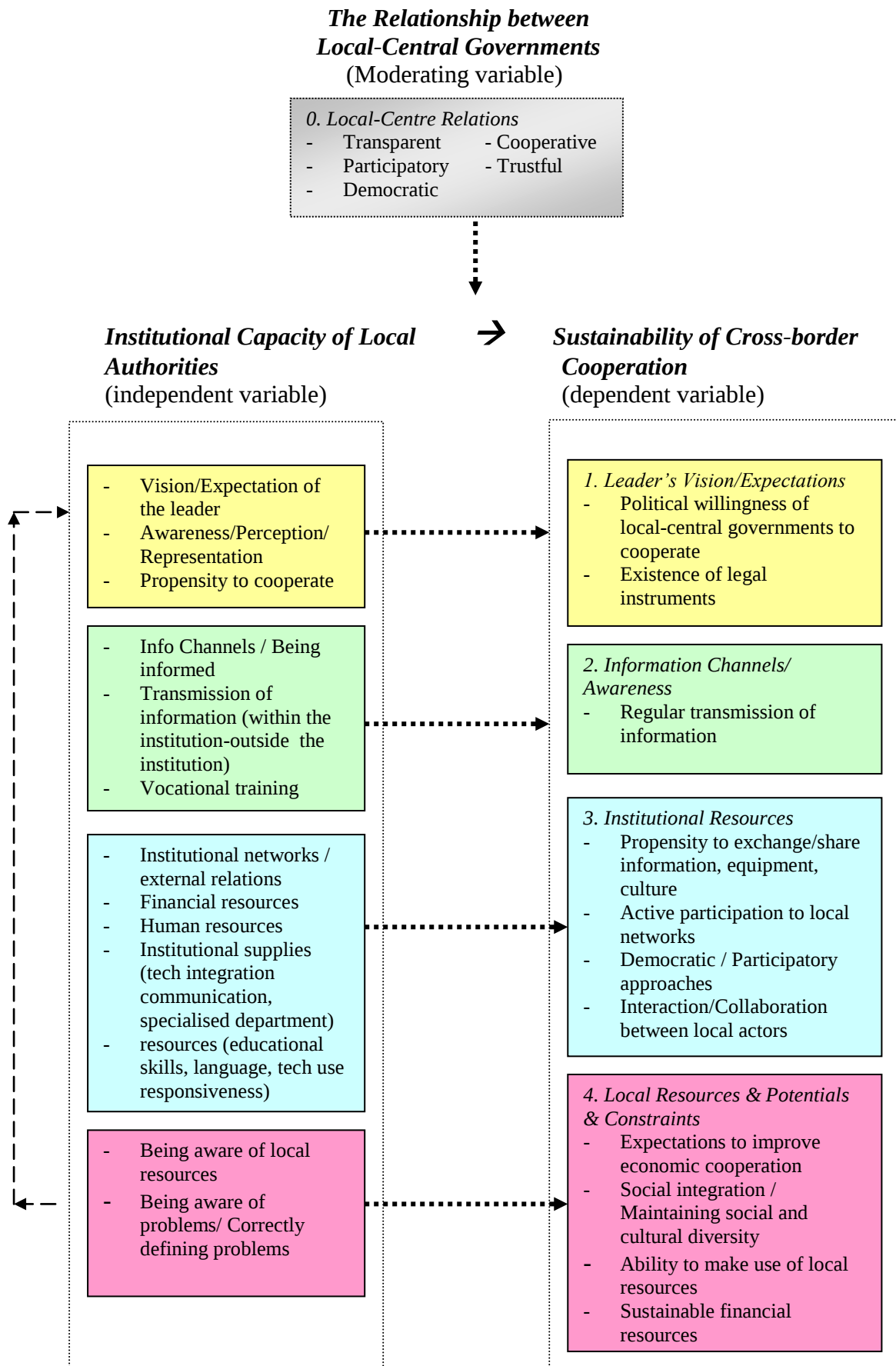


Figure 5.1: The Conceptual Model of the Research

The third category that is focused on *Institutional Resources* of the local authorities seeks to gather information on propensity of the institution to exchange/share information, equipment, culture; their active participation to local networks, whether the practices within the institution is democratic and participatory, and whether there is an interaction/collaboration between local actors and stakeholders. In doing so, the institutional resources are questioned in four main sub-categories in the field survey. Their involvement in institutional networks and density of external relations constituted one of the sub-categories which indicate their bonds and cooperativeness. Secondly institutional supplies (technology integration, instruments for internal communication, presence of specialised departments), their financial resources, and human resources (education skills, spoken languages, technology use, and responsiveness) are asked to the respondents to examine their institutional potentials for active participation in local networks.

In the last category proposed to identify *Potentials and Constraints* that are depending on the presence of local resources. In this respect, expectations to improve economic cooperation, level of social integration within the society and willingness to maintain social and cultural diversity, ability to make use of local resources by increased awareness and correctly defining the problems, presence of sustainable financial resources are considered.

5.2. The Sample

The research area consists of land and maritime provinces neighbouring Greece and Bulgaria. The population of the whole region is 6 982 925 and the number of municipalities supplying public services to the area is 295. The distribution of population in the region is very polarised and concentrated at some certain areas, mainly along the coastline and in the big cities.

The sample ratio of the survey corresponds to **22%** of the local authorities; matches to municipalities (61/295) and **100%** of the governorships (6/6) in the region. The population living in the **sample area is 91.4%** of the total population of the region. The total population is 500 328 at the 29 municipalities with population below 30 000, whereas the total population corresponds to 5 884 980 in 32 municipalities with

population above 30 000. In this respect it is possible to notice how densely the population is concentrated at certain areas.

The survey is conducted at 6 provinces⁴³ and 61 counties that are located at the Turkish side of the Aegean coast and Thrace border.⁴⁴ Although six of the provinces neighbours Greece, Edirne shares a common border with both Greece and Bulgaria. The municipalities with population **below 14 000** are excluded in the sample due to the population size and efficiency matters. However, there are some municipalities of which population size is under 14 000 but having very advantageous geographic location received questionnaires.⁴⁵

Table 5.1: Distribution of Population in the Border Provinces, 2000

Distribution of Population in the Region:		
2 000 - 20 000	21 Settlements	
20 001 - 50 000	22 Settlements	
50 001 - 100 000	8 Settlements	
100 001- 300 000	5 Settlements	
300 000+	5 Settlements	
Total	61 Settlements	

In the field study a questionnaire titled ‘A Research on Cross-border Cooperation and Institutional Capacities of the Local Governments’ has been mailed to the local administrators –mayors and governors. These questionnaires are composed of 44 question divided into four categories as mentioned in the model. After mailing the questionnaires two times in 15 days periods phone calls have been made to monitor if the questionnaires were received by the respondents (although they were sent to the attention of mayors and governorships), and secondly if they mailed it back to the researchers. The main difficulty have been faced in this process was in the first phase. In some municipalities it took 20 days to transfer the questionnaire from editorial department to presidency (local administrators). What is striking was the attention of municipalities in İzmir, from the beginning to the end, through informing researcher when they received and mailed the forms back to the researchers.

⁴³ Aydın, Balıkesir, Çanakkale, Edirne, İzmir, Muğla

⁴⁴ See Annex I, Map 9 to see the places where survey is conducted

⁴⁵ These are Bozcaada, Enez, Eceabat, İpsala, Dikili, Ezine

Eventually, the response rate to questionnaires from local authorities corresponds to 32%. Notably, Çanakkale and Aydın were two provinces almost 70% of the respondents returned their questionnaires whereas this ratio in İzmir and Muğla was around 50%. However, it is crucial to mention that, there is only one return from Balıkesir that has very short maritime border on the Aegean coast. Surprisingly, there is also only one respond back from Edirne, practically having intensive relationships across the border.

5.3. Main Findings

The findings are evaluated and at 4 categories. In the first place, the relationship between the tiers of the governments presented in order to reflect the complementarities between them and obstacles in the functioning of the bureaucratic system within the country. Secondly, the political willingness of all levels of government for European Union membership and their expectations to involve in these processes are analysed. Moreover, local authorities' knowledge on European Union and their awareness about the ongoing processes are examined related to the mainly used information channels and the problems in gathering/dissemination of information. Third, their proneness to cooperate within/across the borders and their expectations from joint actions are measured while the presence of basic level of institutional capacities required for sustaining cross-border cooperation are widely questioned. In this respect main obstacles to cross-border cooperation are also discussed. Finally, the expectations of local authorities to improve economic cooperation across the borders, the level of awareness in correctly defining the problems and their capability to make use of local resources are presented.

After presenting the general view about the relationships between local-central governments the findings are introduced; in the general context the relationship between local-central governments is partly regarded as a democratic relationship. 50% of the local authorities stated that this relationship is not transparent and participatory. One third is indifferent whether there is trust between the tiers of governments. In addition, more than 50% of the local administrators pronounced that local authorities are not sufficiently represented at central level concerning local governance issues. In this respect, it is distinguished that they do not have a very cooperative relationship.

However, the responses received from municipalities are noticeably different from those of governorships. The table 6 below shows the mean values of values of one sample T-test for the relationship between central and local governments. In contrast to the mayors, the governors state that the relation between centre-local governments is partly democratic, transparent, and participatory. In addition they mention that there is a mutual trust between the tiers of the governments. Therefore it is interesting to observe that the general perception of the governors, as a head of the provincial branch of the central government, upon the relation between centre-local is partly differing from those of mayors'. Although both of them are local governance institutions, the ideas and perception towards the central government is significantly different. Besides, the governors display more attachment to the central state.

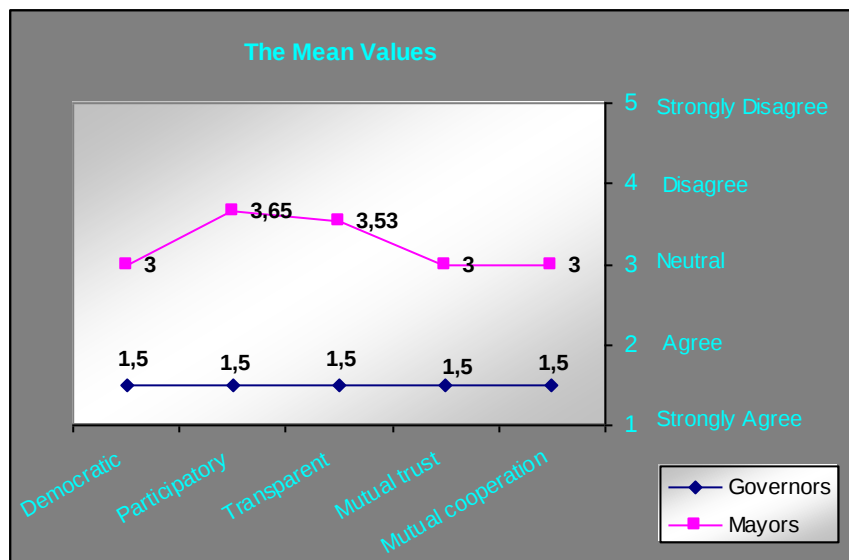


Figure 5.2 : The Mean Values of One Sample T-Test for the Relationship between Central-Local Governments

Table 5.2: One-Sample T-Test for the Relation between the Tiers of Governments

	Test Value = 0		
	t	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean
Democratic	8,216	,000	3,00
Participatory	12,637	,000	3,63
Transparent	10,634	,000	3,50
Mutual trust	10,392	,000	3,00
Mutual cooperation	12,421	,000	3,00

Furthermore, many respondents did not reply the question which asks them to define the relation between the tiers of the government. Especially, 29% of the responses are marked with *neutral/no comment* choice when it is asked whether this relation is participatory, cooperative and reliable. It is thought that the mayors are indifferent regarding these concepts or very reluctant to answer such question. However, they are a part of governance and it is quite difficult to be unaware of those. In any case due to the width of the interval between the mean values of mayors and governors it is possible to say that, at the local sphere, they have different approaches towards the central government.

The representation problem of the local authorities at the central level concerning European Union related issues strengthens the questioning of democracy within the country. 35% of the local authorities partly disagree and 18% of them absolutely disagree with the idea of being represented at the central level. A T-test is run in order to measure the level of representation at the central level. According to their responses the results are very significant in terms of bringing out a representation problem concerning the issues related to local governments in the EU integration process (See table 8). As displayed by the mean value substantial amount of them critique the current level of their representation.

Table 5.3: One-Sample T-Test for the Representation Problem of Local Authorities

	Test Value = 0		
	t	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean
Representation	12,724	,000	3,47

Almost 60% of the local administrators support the EU membership of the country and find it beneficial for local development and local governance practices whereas 6% absolutely do not agree upon its benefits for local governance practices. In addition, more than 75% of the mayors are aware of the agreements that were signed with neighbouring countries in the last couple of years, and 41% of them find those important for the improvement of the economic and cultural relations across the borders. In this respect, the leaders are carrying a positive cooperative perspective for international cooperation and prone to involve in the process of the EU integration. In

addition political willingness for the EU membership overlaps between the different tiers of governments.

64% of the local authorities mention that dissemination of information, from centre to local, on the EU integration and local governance has to be intensified by preparing seminars and publishing brochures. In other words they are expressing the need for published resources. Furthermore the mayors criticise themselves through mentioning the inadequacies of distribution of information within their institutions. Internet is the main source to gather *information about European Union*, there was not any specified website which they regularly visit though. It is also possible to observe some local officers obtaining information via NGOs-local government cooperation. Nevertheless, information channels and endeavours to transmit the knowledge are not adequate; 41% of the leaders are partly knowledgeable about European Union while 18% of them declared that they are completely unaware of it. This situation represents a contradiction because they mostly support the EU membership of Turkey although they are uninformed of the phenomenon.

Furthermore, their awareness on the EU calls for proposes on local governance is questioned. As they stated 58% of them are informed of the EU calls. However, after analysing their information channels it is seen that the way of getting information is not *systematic*. 60% of the leaders stated that they are informed of these calls firstly via public institutions, universities, media, and internet. Surprisingly, only around 5% of them apply to the EU information bureau, NGOs working on the issue, and Delegation of the European Commission to Turkey to obtain information for calls. Thus, it is not possible to observe any kind of membership to the key institutions that relate to the EU integration of Turkey or to their websites to increase their awareness; but the way they get information is more *coincidental*. In this respect, it is difficult to consider them *aware* and *update* of the EU calls and the role it assign to local authorities.

Local authorities at the case area are not very active to participate in the EU projects. Although most of them state that due to the geographical location of their city they are the gateway to the EU, most of them do not how to exploit this advantage. Only 23% of them actively took part in the EU funded projects so far. 23% is a very modest

value when the extensive funding opportunities and the local potentials of the region are considered. Besides, an experience gained by participating in the EU projects can open new doors for improving international partnerships and networks.

On the basis of modest involvement in the EU projects their frequency of attending to vocational training and their knowledge on cross-border cooperation is questioned. Strikingly and expectedly 70% of the leaders did not attend to any seminars or were not trained about cross-border cooperation. It is obviously seen that the local administrators do not have adequate knowledge on cross-border cooperation according to the responses given to the question asking the *definition* of the cross-border cooperation. 83.3% percent of the leaders stated that cross-border cooperation is a general name for all kinds of cooperation across the borders, whereas only 5.5% of them gave the correct answer. It is possible to detect the same misinformation with several other questions. For instance it is not very clear if they could differentiate sister's municipality and cross-border cooperation concepts. Local authorities could not make a clear distinction between the essence of sisters' municipalities and cross-border cooperation. Cross-border cooperation is perceived as a general name for all sort of international cooperation.

On the other hand, there is a strong tendency to cooperate across the borders. At the current situation 65% of the local authorities are participating in international cooperation while only 35% of them are involved in domestic cooperation. In addition, among all 42% of them prefer to be a partner in sister's municipality networks with foreign counterparts, whereas only 3% cooperate within the country in the same manner. In this respect, the leaders value international cooperation more than cooperation within the country. Municipality unions within the country are the secondly preferred networking type among the local authorities. They are member of several municipality unions according to their cities' special geographical and economic characteristics.⁴⁶

The expectations from sister's municipalities within and outside the nation present similarities. More than political and financial support the expectations mainly concentrate on the fulfilment of public services, environmental protection and joint

⁴⁶ See Annex I

use of technical equipment. In the national context this character is more dominant whereas in cooperation with foreign municipalities cultural interaction and increasing the life quality expectations weigh more. The leaders do not expect political support on account of cooperating with other local authorities across the borders while this expectation is twice as more from the internal cooperation. In addition leaders do not strongly state that sister's municipalities can create economic development for their region. In contrast, they choose to stay in soft cooperation areas such as cultural and social interaction, and social integration of disadvantaged groups to the society. Environmental protection is the major concern and the subject of which local authorities willing to cooperate for.

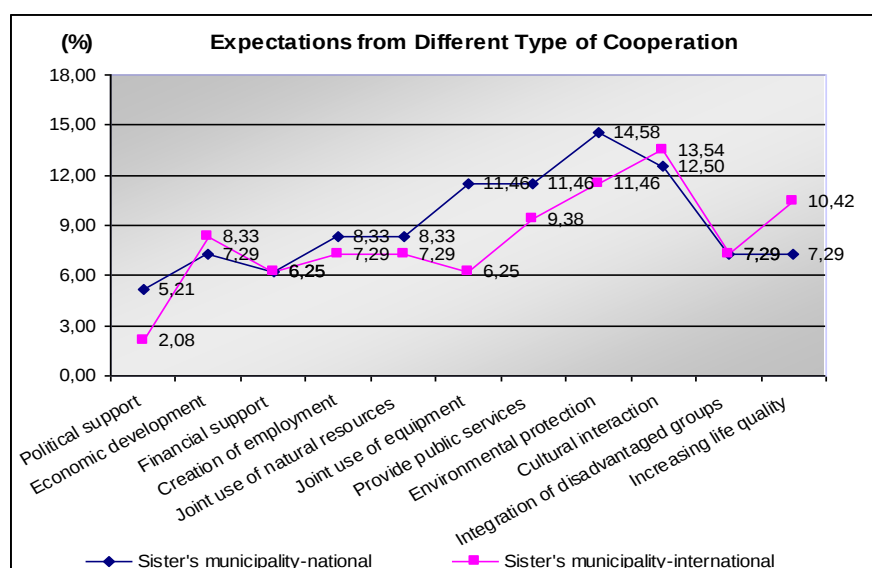


Figure 5.3: The Percentages Determining Expectations from Different Type of Cooperation

The various type of cooperation is questioned in order to understand whether leaders can indicate the differences between them and have the vision to employ them for the local development of their region. In this respect, their expectations from cross-border cooperation, a recently introduced local development tool, are asked in order to view the overlaps with the expectations from sister's municipalities which local authorities are more familiar and experienced.

In line with the sister's municipality, political support is not expected from cross-border cooperation by local administrators. It is interesting to observe that local authorities do not consider formation of a local political pressure by using these

networks. Instead they have different priority areas and seek for specific benefits from this cooperation. In addition, as in the sister's municipality case, cultural interaction and environmental protection are the major subjects of the probable cooperation. In contrast to other networking types, economic development and financial support are highly valued cooperation areas. Local administrators do expect to benefit from cross-border cooperation in economic terms and perceive it as a financial assistance.

Table 5.4: One-Sample T-Test for Expectations from Cross-border Cooperation

	Test Value = 0		
	t	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean
Political support	13,038	,000	3,33
Economic development	8,589	,000	1,78
Financial support	9,897	,000	1,83
Creation of employment	8,200	,000	2,28
Joint use of natural resources	9,297	,000	2,11
Joint use of equipment	9,127	,000	2,33
Provide public services	8,735	,000	2,06
Environmental protection	8,420	,000	1,56
Cultural interaction	9,522	,000	1,33
Integration of disadvantaged groups	9,350	,000	2,00
Increasing the life quality	7,456	,000	1,83

On the other hand, expectations from cross-border networks draw a picture that is slightly different from the actual practices. They are willing to cooperate for economic benefits, however, the existing cooperation is not intensive and strong, and mainly based on cultural interaction.

The respondents are asked to value the obstacles to cross-border cooperation with a multiple choice question. According to their responses the results can be presented into there categories. At the first place, leaders state that the most important obstacles are the lack of technology infrastructure in local governance, language problems and lack of communication between the tiers of government. In other words they mentioned lack of organisational capacity to foster cooperation across the borders. Secondly, lack of legal instruments, insufficient financial resources, and lack of qualified human resources constitute a difficulty for improvement of cross-border cooperation. Third, the leaders upraise the need for political support and complementarities between the economic sectors to maintain the continuity of the

input-output relations across the borders. One of the most important result is the leaders are indifferent about the existence of historical prejudices between the societies and do not regard this as a problematic blockading the cooperation.

Table 5.5: One-Sample T-Test for the Obstacles to Cross-border Cooperation

	Test Value = 0		
	t	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean
Lack of political support	8,481	,000	2,39
Lack of legal instruments	8,086	,000	2,22
Trust problem between tiers of government	10,000	,000	2,22
Communication problem between tiers of government	8,304	,000	2,11
Lack of financial support	7,757	,000	2,22
Lack of sectoral complementarities between the countries	13,496	,000	2,50
Existence of prejudices	12,202	,000	2,83
Language problems	7,274	,000	2,11
Lack of qualified human resources	10,000	,000	2,22
Lack of technology infrastructure in local governance	9,301	,000	2,06

Up until now the level of knowledge of the local authorities on the EU related issues, approaches to international territorial and social networking, their awareness on the dynamic transformations that the country face with and their main information channels are presented. From now on, the existing organisational capacity of the local governments and their abilities to make use of local resources are discussed.

The leaders are asked if the personnel are knowledgeable concerning the historical progress and the legal instruments used to improve cross border cooperation. Besides, their knowledge on project application preparation and on the European Commission's funding opportunities is analysed. In due course, the results are not very promising. Among all only 23%percent of the personnel are familiar on the historical development of cross-border cooperation whereas 11% of them are informed about the legal instruments. On the other hand, 33% of the personnel are competent to prepare project application while 28% of them are aware of the EU funding opportunities.

When their institutional potentials are questioned it is seen that almost none of the local authorities have qualified human resources, a specialised department dealing with European Union issues and documentation centre or an archive. On the other hand, more than 50% of them would like to establish a specialised department on the EU issues and funding opportunities.

The leaders also asked whether they have financial resources to participate in cross-border cooperation. Due to their responses the deficiencies of the system can clearly be detected. Around 70% of them mentioned that they do not have adequate capital to set and improve their relationships within the networks.

English is the most commonly spoken language in the region. Not surprisingly, Bulgarian is the second language that is quite common within the local authorities. German speakers are also not less compared to the ones who speak Greek. In the region there is almost nobody speaking Greek within the municipalities or governorships. Added to these, leaders' second language is most of the time English but not any of the languages of bordering countries.

The people working within the institutions mostly have high school degrees whereas there is very limited number of people having master's degree. The number of university graduates is also not much. However, almost all of the leaders are graduated from the universities.

It is very difficult to express that there is adequate number of computers within the institutions. The computer per personnel in the local authorities displays the lack of technology integration and computer based functioning. However, nowadays technology integration is not only an obligation for improving international networks but also an important mechanism to provide efficient public services.

The main communication instrument within the institutions is telephones, 44%, and secondly face to face contacts, 31%. In relation to lack of being computerised and to other reasons intra-institution emailing is still out of concern. Although, face to face relations is preferable within the institutions to create and maintain social interaction; in this way of distribution of information may cause misinforming or loose of

information while transfers. In addition, this way of communication is not efficient in crowded working places.

Finally, around 80% of the local governments do not have English version of their institutions' website. In addition, most of them do not even have a website in Turkish. This is a serious problem for those who are seeking to open new doors in terms of setting international networks and have an expectation to increase the participation in the local governance.

According to the information gathered from the questionnaires the institutional resources of the local authorities are considerably limited for sustainable cooperation across the borders. The lack of technology integration, limited financial resources, lack of qualified personnel and language problems do demonstrate a blockage to cross-border cooperation with neighbouring countries. Although, they are definitely aware of the importance of the location of their city and notice the presence of various opportunities in the area, they are not competent to mobilise their resources and take advantage of local potentials.

6. CONCLUSION

There are divergences between local authorities in perceiving central government's practices. They pronounce that there is a representation problem of local governments at the central level on the EU related issues. They strongly declare that most of them support the EU membership of Turkey and find this process beneficial in local economic development. On the other hand, leaders state the problems in getting information and also accuse both central government and themselves about the weakness of the dissemination mechanisms.

They express their awareness of the EU calls for projects but the way they get informed is not systematic but more coincidental because they did not mention memberships to the major institutions specialised on the activities of European Union. In this respect, it is difficult to regard them update and well-informed of the EU's concerns about local governance.

This situation generates internal contradictions because they support something that they are not well-informed about and they are aware of the project calls but limitedly participating in these activities and taking advantage of these opportunities.

Local authorities demonstrate strong propensity to cooperate both at national and international context however state a differentiation on the cooperation areas. At the domestic sphere they are willing to cooperate for better realisation of public procurement and exchange of equipment, whereas cooperation at international sphere is more a matter of cultural practices; joint organisations and cultural interaction between different communities. In both cases, environment protection area is the highest concern for cooperation in every level.

They pronounce that the level of networking is on finding common solutions to common problems while international networks are at a level of exchange of information between local authorities. In this respect, quality of domestic cooperation is more developed than across the borders.

Local authorities at the Aegean coast do participate in some domestic and international networks with bordering countries but the number of partners from the neighbouring countries is considerably less than those with other European and surrounding countries. Bearing in mind that the leaders' strong expression to establish cross-border cooperation and the information, that is in line with this hope, gathered from the interviews from the field, central government has to demonstrate required political support in order to enhance the quality of cooperation.

Local authorities are very prone to cooperate for local economic development without expressing historical prejudices. Nevertheless, what have been so far do not indicate strong links and regular economic contacts. They prefer to stay in soft cooperation area due to the pronounced capacity constraints. Capacity problems obstruct threaten the maintenance of long-lasting relations.

The leaders strongly declare that the main obstacles to cross-border cooperation are lack of human resources and technical expertise. They mention that, also in the open questions, the limited number of people speaking foreign languages, financial shortages, lack of communication and interaction between local-central governments are very distinctive in the networking practices of local authorities. They are aware of the legal instruments to establish the cooperation while mentioning the lack of political support to involve in cross-border networks.

In conclusion, the findings are sufficient to test the research questions and support the hypotheses. Local authorities are not well-informed in the EU integration process and are limitedly aware of the opportunities in terms of technical expertise and financial support provided by the EU. Besides they have serious institutional capacity problems mainly emanating from lack of sufficient information for action, lack of qualified human resources, language problems and technology integration within the institutions.

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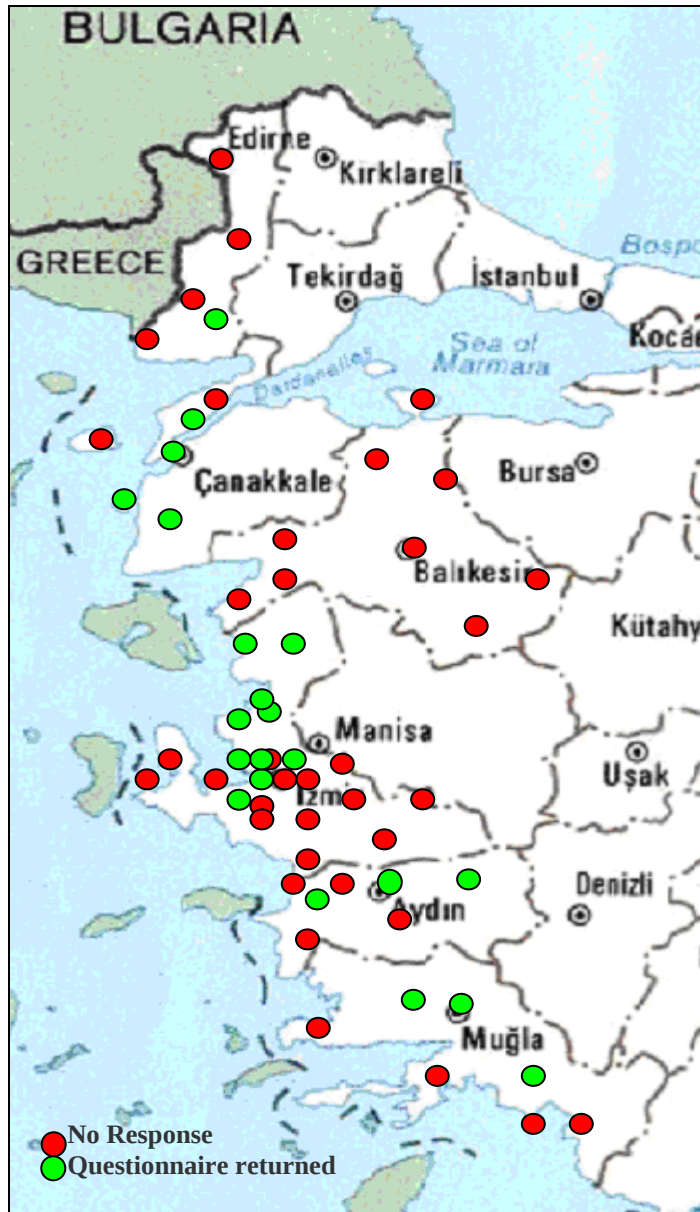
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ANNEX I



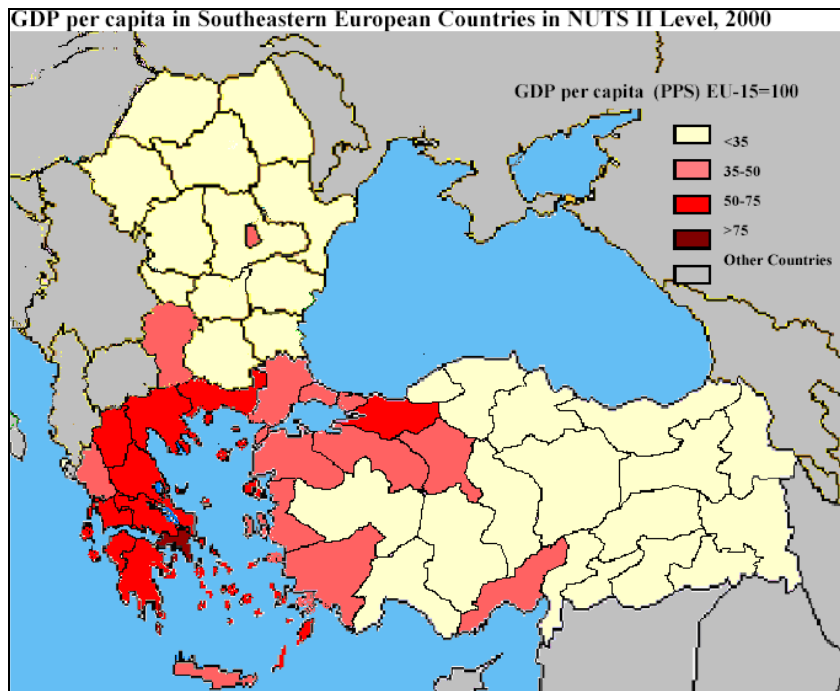
Edirne	Edirne, Uzunköprü, Enez, Keşan, İpsala
Balıkesir	Ayvalık, Bigadiç, Burhaniye, Dursunbey, Edremit, Erdek, Gönen, Balıkesir, Susurluk
Çanakkale	Bozcaada, Çan, Eceabat, Ezine, Gelibolu, Çanakkale
İzmir	Aliğa, Balçova, Bayındır, Bergama, Bornova, Buca, Çeşme, Çiğli, Dikili, Foça, Gaziemir, Sarnıç, Güzelbahçe, Karşıyaka, Kemalpaşa, Konak, Menderes, Asarlık, Menemen, İzmir Büy.Şeh., Narlıdere, Ödemiş, Seferihisar, Selçuk, Tire, Torbalı, Urla
Aydın	Çine, Didim, İncirliova, Kuşadası, Aydın, Nazilli, Söke
Muğla	Bodrum, Dalaman, Fethiye, Marmaris, Mıgla, Ortaca, Yatağan

Map 5.1: Field Study Area - Questionnaire Receiving Counties

Table 5.6: The Municipality Unions in the Case Region⁴⁷

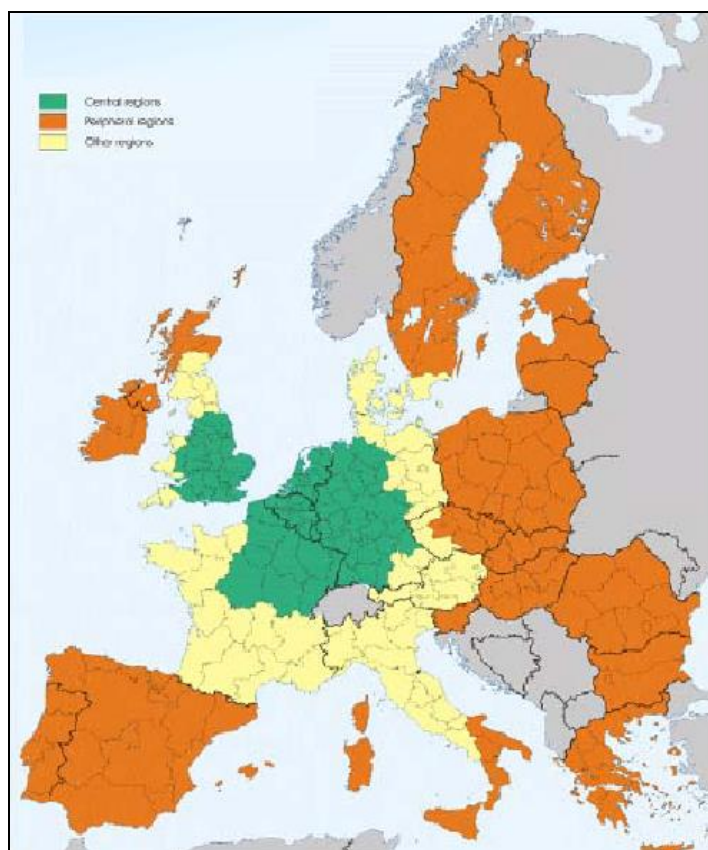
MUNICIPALITY UNIONS (BELEDİYE BİRLİĞİ)

AYDIN	Kuşadası	Kıyı Ege Belediyeler Birliği	12.2.1998/10675
BALIKESİR	Gömeç	Körfez Belediyeler Birliği.	20.12.1991/2556
BALIKESİR	Burhaniye	Körfez Belediyeler Birliği.	20.12.1991/2550
BALIKESİR	Marmara Adası	P.C.Ada Belediyeleri Birliği.	26.05.1995/6916
BALIKESİR	Edremit	Edremit Belediyeler Birliği.	30.3.1995/6716
İZMİR	Aliağa	Çandarlı Körfezi Bellediyeleri Bir.	27.12.2002/5116
İZMİR	Kınık	Bakırçay Belediyeler Birliği.	30.3.1995/6716
MUĞLA	Bodrum	Bodrum Belediyeler Birliği	27.10.1997/10183
MUĞLA	Merkez	Muğla Belediyeler Birliği	06.09.2000/1225
TEKİRDAĞ	Merkez	Doğu-Batı Trakya Beldiye. Bir.(TRAKYAKENT)	13.10.2000/1461

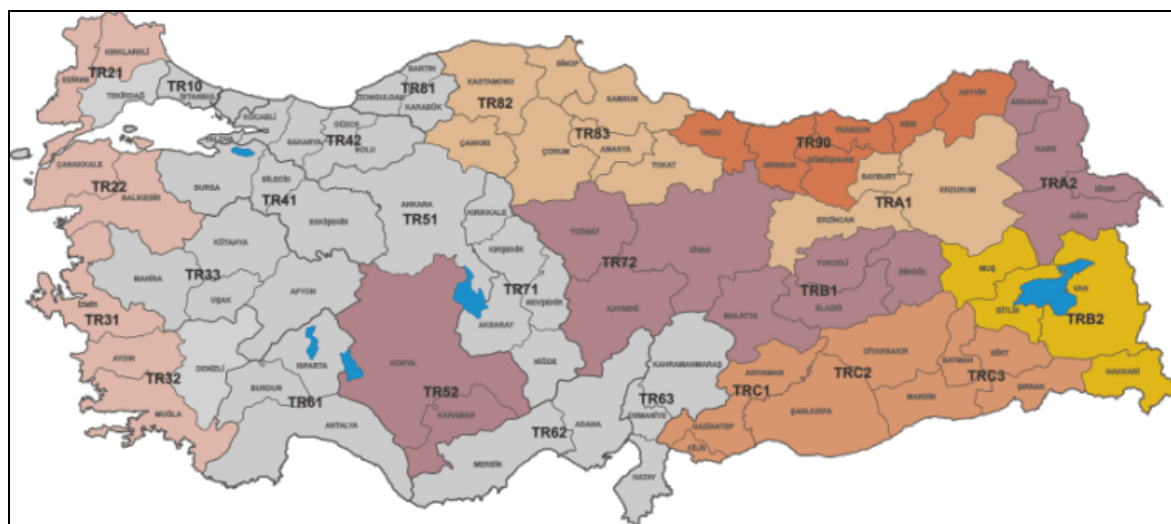


Map 4.5: GDP per capita Southeastern European Countries in NUTS II Level (Erkut and Özgen, 2003)

⁴⁷ For more information see www.mahalli-idareler.gov.tr



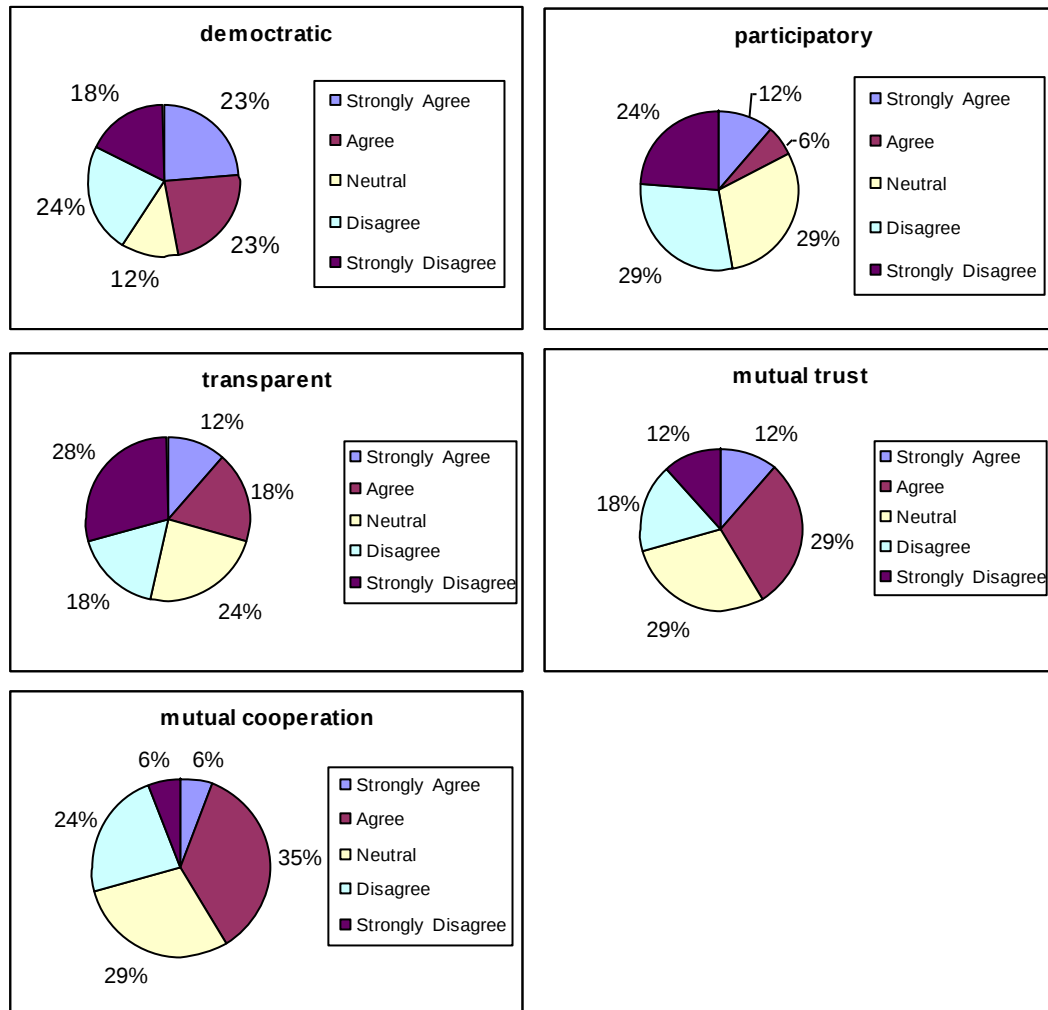
Map 2.5: Central and Peripheral Regions of Europe (Enlargement and Cohesion, Background Study for the 2nd Cohesion Report, 2001)



Map 4.5: The NUTS Levels in Turkey (SPO, www.dpt.gov.tr)

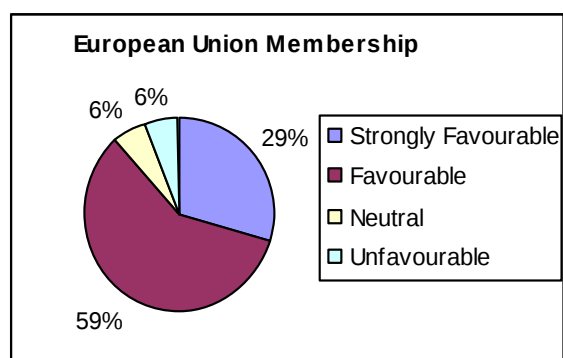
ANNEX II (GRAPHS OF THE QUESTIONNAIRES)

Question 1: How do you rate the relationship between local and central governments in Turkey?



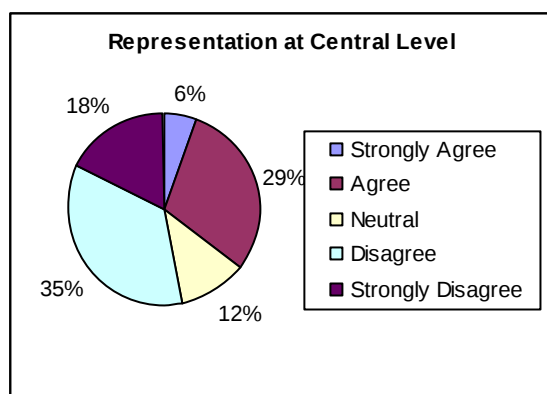
	Democratic		Participatory		Transparent		Cooperative		Mutual trust	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Strongly Agree	4	24	2	12	2	12	2	12	1	6
Agree	4	24	1	6	3	18	5	29	6	35
Neutral	2	12	5	29	4	24	5	29	5	29
Disagree	4	24	5	29	3	18	3	18	4	24
Strongly Disagree	3	18	4	24	5	29	2	12	1	6
Total	17	100	17	100	17	100	17	100	17	100

Question 3: In general do you think European Union membership of Turkey is favourable for local governments?



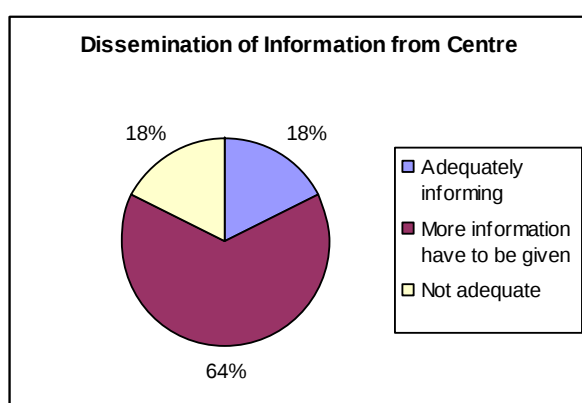
	f	%
Strongly Favourable	5	29
Favourable	10	59
Neutral	1	6
Unfavorable	1	6
Total	17	100

Question 4: Do you think local governments are adequately represented at central level concerning local governance issues?



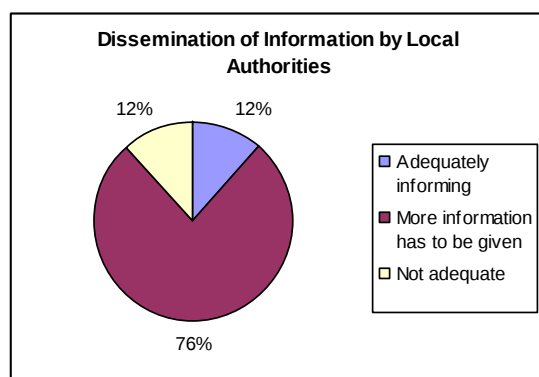
	f	%
Strongly Agree	1	6
Agree	5	29
Neutral	2	12
Disagree	6	35
Strongly Disagree	3	18
Total	17	100

Question 6: In the European Union membership process, is central government adequately informing the local authorities on the European Union local governance policies?



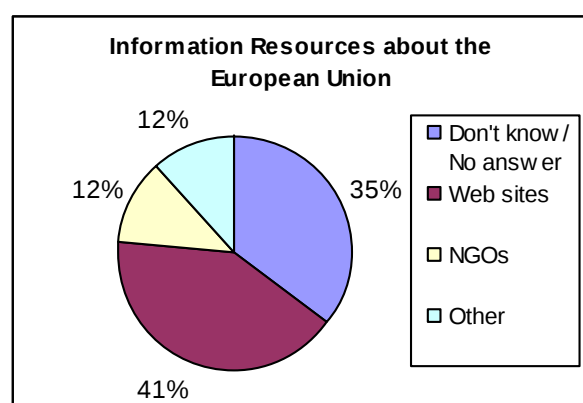
	f	%
Adequately informing	3	18
More information have to be given	11	65
Not adequate	3	18
Total	17	100

Question 7: In the European Union membership process, are local authorities adequately informing their personnel concerning European Union local governance policies?



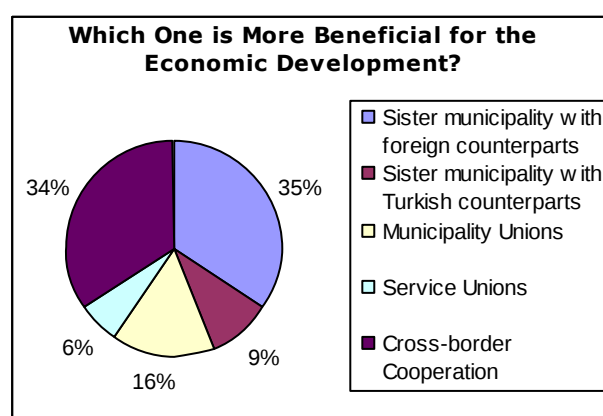
	f	%
Adequately informing	2	12
More information has to be given	13	76
Not adequate	2	12
Total	17	100

Question 8: Are you a member of an institution that publishes or distributes information about European Union and local governments?



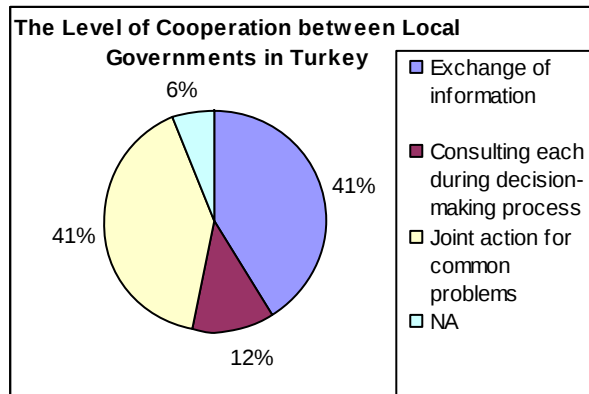
	f	%
Don't know/ No answer	6	35
Web sites	7	41
NGOs	2	12
Other	2	12
Total	17	100

Question 16: Which of the following is more favorable for economic development of your city?



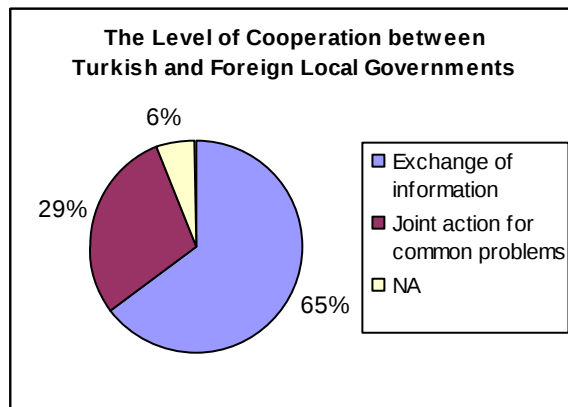
	f	%
Sister municipality with foreign counterparts	11	34
Sister municipality with Turkish counterparts	3	9
Municipality Unions	5	16
Service Unions	2	6
Cross-border Cooperation	11	34
Total	32	100

Question 17: Which of the following does strongly determine the level of cooperation between local governments in Turkey?



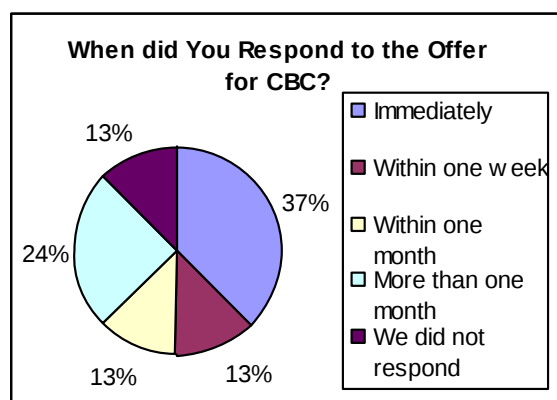
	f	%
Exchange of information	7	41
Consulting each during decision-making process	2	12
Joint action for common problems	7	41
NA	1	6
Total	17	100

Question 18: Which of the following does strongly determine the level of cooperation between local governments in Turkey and those abroad?



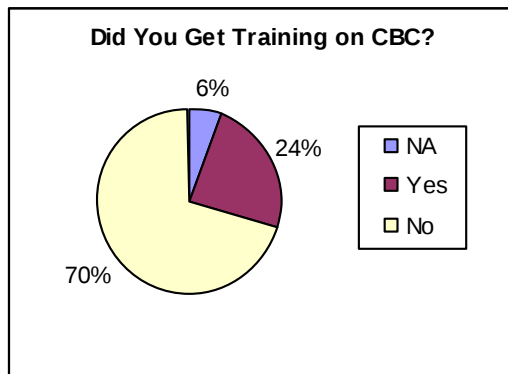
	f	%
Exchange of information	11	65
Joint action for common problems	5	29
NA	1	6
Total	17	100

Question 20: When did you respond to this invitation?



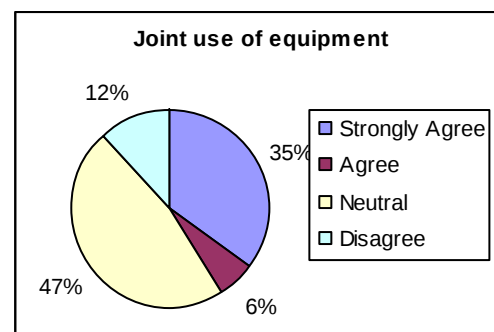
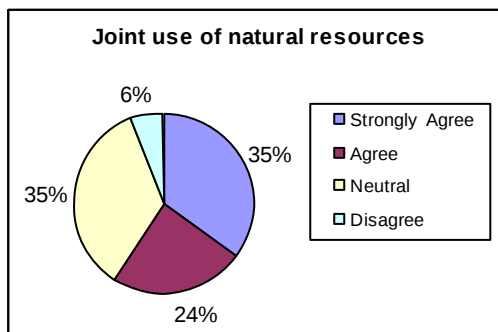
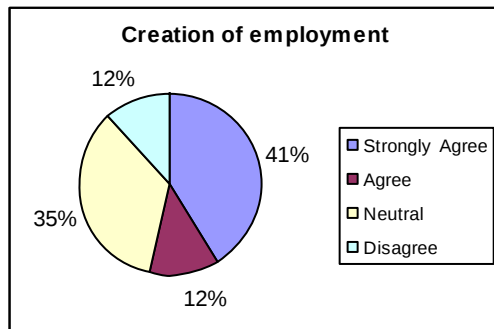
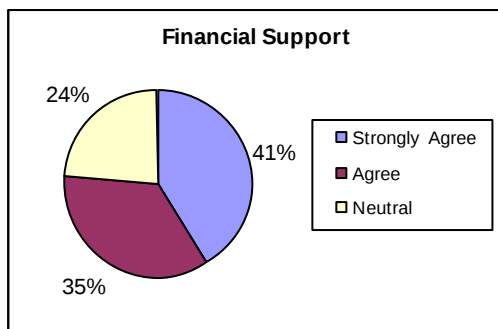
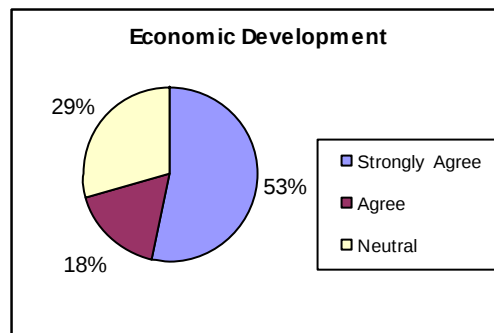
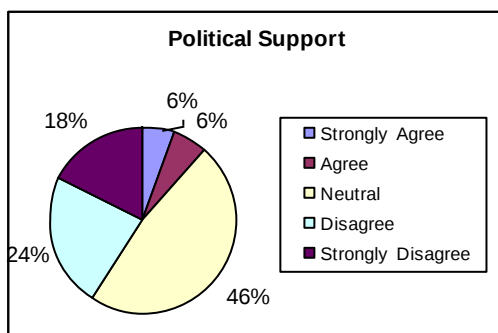
	f	%
Immediately	3	38
Within one week	1	13
Within one month	1	13
More than one month	2	25
We did not respond	1	13
Total	8	100

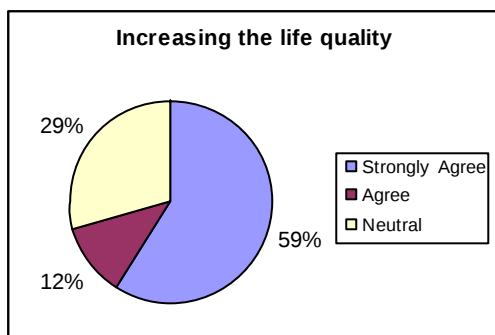
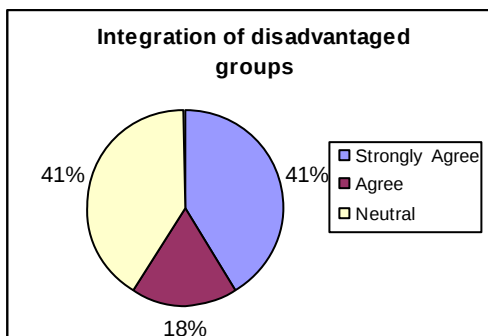
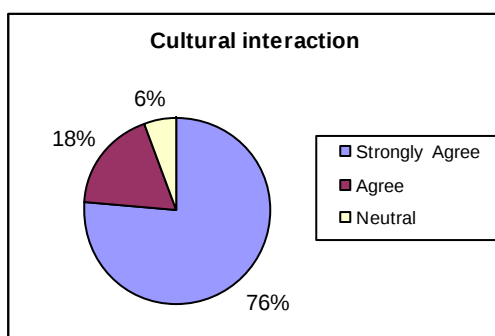
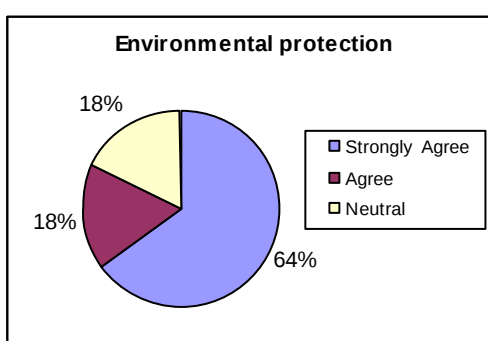
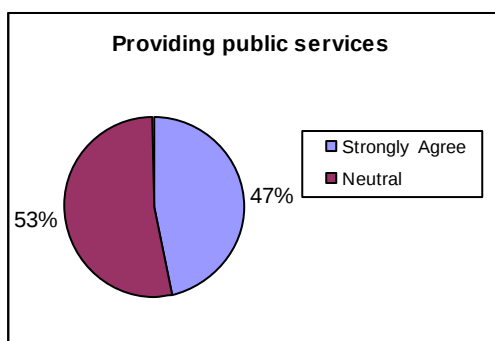
Question 26: Did you get any training concerning ***cross-border cooperation***?



	f	%
NA	1	6
Yes	4	24
No	12	71
Total	17	100

Question 28: What are your expectations of cross-border cooperation?

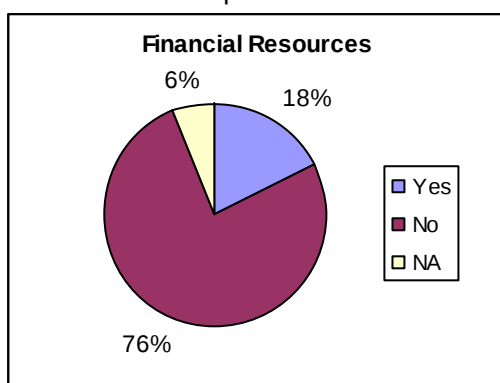




Question 31: Which of the followings do exist in your institution?

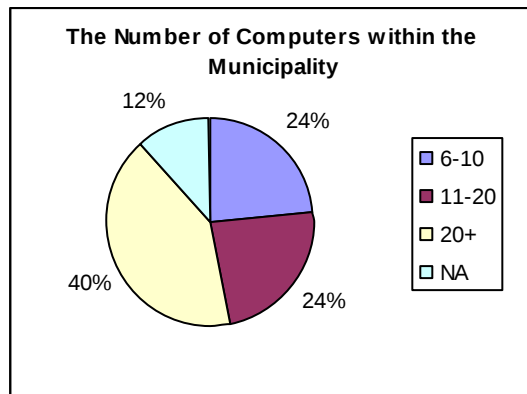
	Documentation Centre / EU Archive		EU Department		Qualified staff	
	f	%	f	%	f	%
Yes	1	6	1	6	4	24
No	14	82	14	82	11	65
NA	2	12	2	12	2	12
Total	17	100	17	100	17	100

Question 33: Do you have adequate financial resources in order to participate in cross-border cooperation?



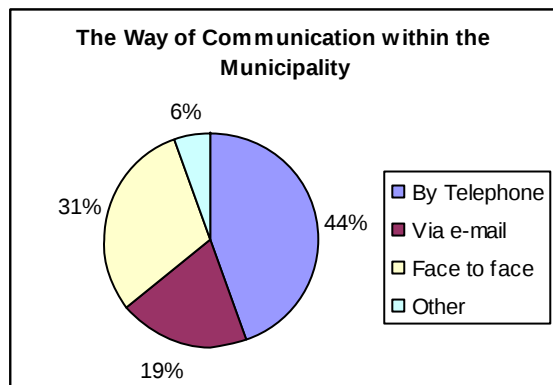
	f	%
Yes	3	18
No	13	76
NA	1	6
Total	17	100

Question 39: How many computers are there in your institution?



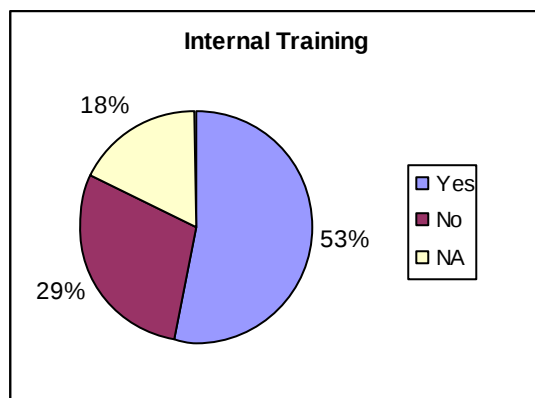
	f	%
6-10	4	24
11-20	4	24
20+	7	41
NA	2	12
	17	100

Question 40: How do you communicate within the institution?



	f	%
By Telephone	16	44
Via e-mail	7	19
Face to face	11	31
Other	2	6
Total	36	100

Question 42: Do you organize internal training facilities for dissemination of information concerning local governance issues within your institution for **your** personnel?



	f	%
Yes	9	53
No	5	29
NA	3	18
Total	17	100

ANNEX III (A QUESTIONNAIRE SAMPLE FOR MUNICIPALITIES)

CONTENTS

PREFACE	ii
CONTENTS	iii
ABBREVIATIONS	iv
LIST OF TABLES	v
LIST OF MAPS	vi
LIST OF FIGURES	vi
SUMMARY	vii
ÖZET	ix
1. INTRODUCTION	1
1.1. Context and the Aim of the Study	3
1.2. Methodology	4
1.3. Expected Results	5
2. LITERATURE REVIEW ON ‘BORDER’ CONCEPT	5
2.1. A Definition for Border Concept	6
2.2. Reformation of Regions and Impact of European Union	10
2.3. Regional Inequalities-Border Regions and European Union’s Enlargement	15
2.4. Territorial Networking and European Union Initiatives for Cross-border Cooperation	20
2.5. Conclusion of Chapter II	24
3. THE ROLE OF LOCAL GOVERNMENTS IN CROSS-BORDER COOPERATION AND INSTITUTIONAL CAPACITY PROBLEMS	25
3.1. Administrative Obstacles to Cross-border Cooperation	25
3.2. Institutional Capacity Problems in Cross-border Cooperation	28
4. REGIONAL INEQUALITIES AND CROSS-BORDER COOPERATION: THE AEGEAN COAST	33
4.1. Regional Inequalities and Territorial <i>Re-Divisions</i> in Turkey	34
4.2. The Impact of the EU Integration on Institutional Restructuring of Turkey	40
5. THE FIELD STUDY - THE INSTITUTIONAL CAPACITY OF THE LOCAL AUTHORITIES	45
5.1. The Conceptual Model of the Research Process	46
5.2. The Sample	49
5.3. Main Findings	51
6. CONCLUSION	61
BIBLIOGRAPHY	63
ANNEX I	67
ANNEX II (GRAPHS OF THE QUESTIONNAIRES)	70
ANNEX III (A QUESTIONNAIRE SAMPLE FOR MUNICIPALITIES)	77
CV of the AUTHOR	86

LIST of TABLES

	Page Numbers
Table 3.1: Components of Society's Capacity.....	31
Table 4.1: The Distribution of GDP at Border Provinces of Turkey, 2001.....	36
Table 4.2: The Distribution of Birth Rate at Border Provinces of Turkey, 2000.....	38
Table 4.3: Annual Growth Rate of Population at Border Provinces of Turkey, 2000.....	39
Table 5.1: Distribution of Population in the Border Provinces, 2000.....	50
Table 5.2: One-Sample T-Test for the Relation between the Tiers of Governments.....	52
Table 5.3: One-Sample T-Test for the Representation Problem of Local Authorities.....	53
Table 5.4: One-Sample T-Test for Expectations from Cross-border Cooperation.....	57
Table 5.5: One-Sample T-Test for the Obstacles to Cross-border Cooperation.....	58

LIST of MAPS

	Page Numbers
Map 2.1: The Proliferation of New State Borders in Europe after 1989.....	8
Map 2.2: The Cultural Borders in Central and Eastern Europe.....	12
Map 2.3: Interreg IIIC Programmes in European Union.....	13
Map 2.4: Border Regions in the European Union.....	19
Map 4.1: The Distribution of GDP at Border Provinces of Turkey, 2001.....	36
Map 4.2: Birth Rate at Border Provinces of Turkey, 2000.....	37
Map 4.3: Annual Growth Rate of Population at Border Provinces of Turkey, 2000.....	38
Map 4.4: Interreg IIIA (Cross-border Cooperation) Southeast Zone.....	43
Map 5.1: Field Study Area - Questionnaire Receiving Counties.....	67
Map 4.5: GDP per capita Southeastern European Countries in NUTS II Level.....	68
Map 2.5: Central and Peripheral Regions of Europe.....	69
Map 4.5: The NUTS Levels in Turkey.....	69

LIST of FIGURES

	Page Numbers
Figure 3.1: Capacity at Different Levels	30
Figure 3.2: The Components of Capacity in an Entity or Organisation	32
Figure 4.1: Interreg IIIA Administrative Organisation Schema of GR-TR.....	44
Figure 5.1: The Conceptual Model of the Research	48
Figure 5.2: The Mean Values of One Sample T-Test for the Relationship between Central-Local Governments.....	52
Figure 5.3: The Percentages Determining Expectations from Different Type of Cooperation.....	51

**CROSS-BORDER COOPERATION AND INSTITUTIONAL
CAPACITY PROBLEMS OF LOCAL AUTHORITIES:
THE AEGEAN CASE**

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