



Resituating the Local in Cohesion and Territorial Development

Identifying types and modes of procedural (in)justice: insights from local governance practices

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Identifying Types and Modes of Procedural (In)Justice:
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1. Introduction and aim of the report

This report is part of work package 3 (WP 3) of the RELOCAL project. The overall aim of WP 3 is to explore policy frameworks and coordination mechanisms that aim to promote territorial cohesion, spatial justice and solidarity across Europe.

This report further explores the concept of procedural (in)justice by analysing some of the main outcomes of the in-depth case studies within the RELOCAL project. In doing so, generic, but empirically-informed types of procedural (in)justice have been identified. The resulting typologies help us to revisit the following hypotheses of the project. In 'Deliverable 1.1' of the RELOCAL project, which provides the conceptual framework of the project, it is stated that '[s]patial justice is a form of justice that combines the two important forms of justice: procedural and distributive. This [perspective] would enable us to go beyond the usual dichotomy of these two forms of justice, which should not be considered to be mutually exclusive. [...] Providing access to substantive needs and the provision of opportunities are as important as the ways of achieving them. This requires attention to both the procedures of ensuring justice and the outcomes of these procedures.' (Madanipour et al., 2017, 76)

Hence, this report sheds light on the procedures for ensuring spatial justice by investigating a number of key analytical elements stemming from the literature on governance as well as collaborative planning. These bodies of literature have been discussed in an earlier working paper (Deliverable 3.1), which was entitled: 'Conceptual framework to identify governance practices in relation to spatial justice in case study research' (cf. Schmitt and Borén 2017). The essence of the discussion there has informed and has carefully been translated into the case study research (cf. Deliverable 6.1; Weck et al. 2018). Methodologically, the case studies were conducted in a comparative manner and the various key research objectives were specified and organised as dimensions, analytical categories and finally a number of guiding questions (ibid).

In order to investigate issues related to procedural (in)justice in the case studies, a local governance perspective has been applied as it offers a relevant starting point to identify the institutional and structural conditions in which actions that promote spatial justice are embedded, as well as to explore the evolving actor-networks and resulting practices (cf. Schmitt and Borén 2017). More concretely, this means that in the case studies, specific attention has been directed towards the role of actors, forms of leadership and coordination, the extent to which participation and the exertion of influence is safeguarded, and to what extent transparency as well as the intelligibility of the action under consideration exists.

This report discusses findings that stem from 22 out of 33 case studies that have been conducted within RELOCAL (cf. Ch. 3 for the reasoning behind this selection). They provide a rich variety of contextual and content-based insights into specifically local and regional governance practices and thus a broad empirically informed base to identify and interpret generic types of procedural (in)justice.

The report is structured as follows. At first the main conceptual underpinnings for the study of procedural (in)justice within the RELOCAL project are synthesised in a condensed form from a local/territorial governance perspective (see Ch. 2). After that some methodological notes are given in regard to the selection of case studies and the identification and discussion of types of procedural (in)justice in this report (see Ch. 3). This is followed by a presentation of the derived types in five categories (positioning of leading actor(s) in relation to the action under consideration, forms of leadership of identified leading actor(s), forms of coordination and collaboration, participation of non-institutional actors and their exertion of influence, and, finally, transparency and intelligibility) (see Ch. 4). After that, the main findings from this report are synthesised, followed by some conclusions (see Ch. 5).

2. Conceptual underpinnings

In this chapter, a number of process-related governance features are briefly addressed, which have played a critical role within the RELOCAL case studies. Hence this chapter provides some conceptual underpinnings and reasoning for the identification of the derived generic types of procedural (in)justice that are presented in chapter 4. It is argued that the critical study of these types in the case studies is key to analysing whether the investigated actions have led to governance failures or not, and to assessing the extent to which procedural justice has been achieved.

2.1. A local governance perspective on actions and practices targeting spatial justice

One often echoed definition of governance is the one that Gerry Stoker proposed, namely to use the term governance for capturing the work of actors and institutions and to describe how they strive to achieve “collective action in the realm of public affairs, in conditions where it is not possible to rest on recourse to the authority of the state” (Stoker 2000, 93). Similarly, Painter and Goodwin (1995) describe the related shift in policymaking from state-dominated ‘government’, coordinated through formal and hierarchical public sector agencies and bureaucratic procedures, to ‘governance’ characterised by overlapping and complex competencies and the introduction of new types of actors into the political arena. This shift is not only characterised by the increased involvement of non-state actors, but also by the formation of new interaction pathways in formerly established policy processes in order to address complex societal and spatial challenges such as climate change, regional economic development, or the provision of public services, which are no longer solvable by the state itself.

However, concepts like governance and government do not imply that they are the direct opposite and that the scope of action is clearly defined, rather they are intertwined through formal and informal institutions (such as contracts, routines, shared norms etc.) and the interplay of various actors. By establishing new interaction pathways to connect spheres of government with the rather blurred field of governance, a multitude of actors (public, private or civic) are supposed to form forums, partnerships or other forms of (hybrid) organisation in order to manage their common affairs, but also to mediate their competing interests and conflicts (Keohane and Nye 2000). As Kooiman (1993, 4) argued, “no single actor, public or private, has all the knowledge and information required to solve complex, dynamic, and diversified problems; no actor has sufficient overview to make the application of needed instruments effective; no single actor has sufficient action potential to dominate unilaterally in a particular governing model”. This underlines the role of multi-actor constellations in which information, knowledge and feedback are shared and reflected upon.

A wide field of research delves into various ‘modes’ of governance (e.g. Howlett 2009, Lange et al. 2013; Treib et al. 2007) by analysing how, in addition to governmental processes, decision-making processes within public policies are shaped and how coordination is achieved, and leadership is practiced and power (eventually) re-distributed. Stoker (1998, 18) adds that the contribution of a governance perspective to theory is not at the level of causal analysis, but rather is done to provide a framework for understanding processes of governance. It is exactly in this vein that the governance perspective has been applied in the RELOCAL project, namely to trace and understand actions intended to implement policies, projects, or programmes that are supposed to contribute to spatial justice within a specific locality (cf. Madanipour et al. 2017; Weck et al. 2019). For this, as one central hypothesis of our project suggests, we need to pay attention to both procedural and distributive justice. The former is centred around the question of whether the process of governance at the local level incorporates appropriate procedures for a better distribution of resources and opportunities, and mechanisms to ensure democratic participation and accountability. However, the latter is concerned with the question of whether the outcomes of these procedures ensure or contribute to distributive justice (Madanipour et al., 2017, 75), which will be discussed for instance in Del. 4.2.

In the following, we further discuss two research dimensions of the governance discourse that have clear linkages to the debate on the procedural aspects within the concept of spatial justice, that is the role and

coordination of actors and styles of leadership and the mobilisation and inclusion of various kinds of actors (see Schmitt and Borén 2017).

2.2. Coordination of actors and aspects of leadership

One specific factor that is related to the shift from government to governance is the coordination of policy levels and sectors that ideally should lead to policy integration. Often this is described as horizontal and vertical coordination that is handled within networks as the dominant mode of governance. For this coordination to occur, a multitude of interactions between actors, in general representing different policy sectors and areas, is required. In particular, in view of the complex or even fragmented governance settings with a mix of institutions and actors it should be noted that the resources that are at the actor's disposal, i.e. economic and social capital, access to information and knowledge, and network capacity, determine the level of their empowerment (see e.g. Christopoulos et al. 2012).

Normally, within local development approaches and actions, the corporatist mode of governance plays a key role, with the overall aim of achieving 'controlled and balanced rates of socio-economic development through the management of major organized social actors' (ibid). This sort of management is mainly handled within the state system. However, in recent years the market-oriented mode of governance has become increasingly important, specifically through the inclusion of non-state actors. However, if more network types of governance are being practised, that is, according to Howlett (2009, 77) the "co-optation of dissent and self-organisation of social actors through the promotion of inter-actor organisational activity", a number of challenges and issues may arise. For instance, earlier research has shown that power relations are seldom symmetrical, particularly in those cases that involve several policy levels, since often a mix of formal power (governmental rights and responsibilities) and informal power (communicative processes that influence the decision-making process outside statutory mandates) is at play (Schmitt and Van Well 2016).

Related to this are the forms in which coordination is practised, namely the more or less institutionalised formats (e.g. forums or platforms) of discussing and negotiating the implementation of the public policy, or simply, the action at hand. These various forms of institutionalisation in general regulate the integration of interests and viewpoints as well as the mobilisation and inclusion of stakeholders in general and the extent to which there are opportunities for the inclusion of weakly positioned actors (those with limited capacities and resources, such as citizens) in particular. In addition, these more or less formalised institutions are decisive for the extent to which consensus and synergies across sectors, stakeholders and other interest groups can be achieved in view of policy design and the implementation of concrete actions (Schmitt and Van Well 2016).

Even though network approaches and the application of forums or other platforms increasingly diffuse in order to connect various actors, processes and modes of governance to the place-based issue or challenge under consideration (Ingold et al. 2019), the role of the leading actor who is supposed to be responsible for the implementation of the action at hand and to coordinate relations to other actors, seems to be decisive. Related to this are the types of leadership practised, since reported governance failures are often related to cases in which leadership is contested or unclear (Schmitt and Van Well 2016).

Further empirically-informed observations indicate that the powerful policy sectors, i.e. mainly those with more powerful economic profiles (such as construction, transport or tourism), tend to dominate governance and decision-making processes at the expense of other policy sectors with rather softer goals, such as culture or the environment. This logic is often determined by the 'silo mentality' among actors and the structural pre-conditions (e.g. in terms of distinct sectoralised 'departments' or other 'organisations' as well as disparate professional and/or administrative cultures) they are acting in, which can cause misunderstandings and conflicts and thus hamper coordination. Overall, how various forms of power (e.g. legal, communicative, financial) are distributed, acknowledged and exercised is a central concern when assessing the extent to which ideals of procedural justice, such as fairness, subsidiarity or balanced power of co-decision, are achieved. However, power is a manifold concept and it is rather difficult to trace how it evolves. Hence, power is approached here (see Ch. 4.1) through assigning roles to actors and by analysing how coordination and collaboration are practised and leadership is applied.

2.3. Mobilisation and inclusion of different kinds of actors

The participation and inclusion of various actors (and here in particular those that represent the local civic society) are key in the literature of 'good' governance and collaborative planning and thus play a prominent role in addressing the quality of procedural justice (see Ch. 4.2). In general, one can argue that formations of network governance are expected to strengthen participative democracy through mobilising and including different kinds of actors. Critical here is to activate "their" specific (lay) knowledge and to incorporate 'their' claims and concerns in the formulation and implementation of public policies and actions. This is often considered as an approach to attenuate democratic deficits that are somewhat (pre-)defined due to the given institutional environments. This key aspect of the governance debate has also been discussed widely within the collaborative and communicative turn that has shaped planning theory since the 1980s. A key aspect of communicative planning theory includes providing concerned actors with a legitimate role in the decision-making process and, at the same time, there is a general wariness of expert or elitist manipulation of the proceedings (Sager, 1994). However, communicative planning theory has been criticised for ignoring how to deal with the fact that (also) open processes may produce unfair results and thus the theory's critical edge is questioned once it is applied in reality (Fainstein, 2000).

Healey (2003) identifies a number of key tenets to consider when analysing the inclusion of different actors in view of the procedural justice debate. Critical aspects are where the discussion is supposed to take place, how actor involvement is promoted, in what style participation processes are carried out to create a comfortable atmosphere, how the arguments are sorted, how new or alternative discourses can be created that include all parties, and how agreements can be reached and maintained while a critique is ongoing. However, she also reminds us that process and context share a mutually influential relationship, since it is impossible to separate them and they are best understood as developing in response to one another. Hillier (1998) suggests a number of further prerequisites for procedurally just practice concerning stakeholder mobilisation, inclusion and engagement. She distinguishes between components of procedural justice and components of communicative justice. These are further divided into a number of categories and characteristics, such as clarity and transparency about the policy process at hand, equality in terms of giving time to voice arguments, just access to all relevant information, the comprehensiveness of feedback, the ability to generate alternative options, recognition and valuing of differences, mutual respect, and honesty and trustfulness, just to mention a few.

Similar to the claims of Healey (2003) and Hillier (1998), Schmitt and Van Well (2016) identify a number of key governance components concerning the mobilisation of actors and the ways they may be engaged in concrete actions. Case studies show that concerning the practices of identifying and mobilising stakeholders (e.g. defining who is relevant and who should be allowed to actively participate in governance processes) are often dependent on established routines. Another key criterion is whether the action and the related governance process are transparent and understandable, since a high degree of transparency makes it easier for actors from "outside" to identify ways and opportunities when and how to become engaged (ibid). Related to this is how and to what extent interests and viewpoints are integrated into the territorial/local governance processes at hand. Previous research has shown that in practice this is dependent on the degree of formality of the institutional setting in which the action is embedded as well as on the general ambition of the leading actor(s) in terms of either 'informing' or even 'engaging' other actors (Schmitt and Van Well 2016). The latter means that actors become stakeholders in the sense that they are given the opportunity not only to articulate their concerns, but also to exert influence on decisions, at least to some extent. Earlier comparative studies have shown that there is often little consistency in how the integration of interests is dealt with and that specific groups were side-lined if their interests were thought to cause conflicts (cf. Schmitt and Van Well 2016).

The question of transparency and how the articulated viewpoints are dealt with alludes to the issue of where and when viewpoints might feed into governance processes. It has also been noted that unclear or undefined procedures for stakeholder involvement can hamper any further mobilisation since they can easily lead to frustration or even disillusionment. In this vein, Schmitt and Van Well (2016) note that some processes might be very transparent for those who actively take part (or are allowed to do so) from the beginning, but for initial outsiders joining such processes at a later stage, it may be rather difficult to gain an overview and thus become fully engaged in the issues at stake.

3. Methodological considerations

This report addresses a number of analytical categories that are addressed in the case study manual, namely “governance networks and the coordination of multi-sectoral actors and institutions” and “mobilisation of stakeholders, participation and engagement” (see Weck et al. 2018) and which have been briefly discussed in chapter 2. Thus, the action analysed in each case study is understood here as a signifier of how governance structures work in practice. The following chapter 4 synthesises information and identifies types of procedural (in)justice gathered regarding five typologies of procedural (in)justice that emerged from the case study reports:

- (A) positioning of leading actor(s)
- (B) forms of leadership of identified leading actor(s)
- (C) forms of coordination and functioning of collaboration
- (D) participation of initial non-key actors and their exertion of influence
- (E) transparency and intelligibility

However, these analytical entry points should not be understood solely in a descriptive way. Rather within the identified case studies (i.e., the actions, policies or projects that aim to achieve greater spatial justice in a specific locality, such as a fairer or more just distribution of goods, infrastructure, services and opportunities) the task was to explore critically the representation and involvement of various actors and social groups in decision-making and implementation processes. This means that in this report the quality of territorial governance processes is examined within such actions, which aim at improving spatial justice in terms of transparency, dealing with power imbalances and constraints on coordination and so on. In doing so, the case study researchers analysed to what extent these categories (and the related processes) were dealt with in a just way. In this, the analysed perception of the involved actors was decisive. These actors may be involved policy-makers and practitioners working within a specific locality, those that are targeted by the action at hand (e.g. citizens in a neighbourhood, specific social groups) as well those that have a specific interest in the action (e.g. NGOs, or organisations representing specific sectors). Hence, these actors or groups of actors (and the emerging networks) and their individual reflections were the main subjects of this part of the case study work. These investigations are of course not value-free, which means that the researchers had to objectify carefully the articulated reflections and viewpoints to avoid any sort of naive interpretation (cf. Weck et al. 2018).

For this report, an inductive approach has been applied, which means that the relevant analytical categories as discussed in Ch. 2 were filtered out from the case study reports (cf. <https://relocal.eu/all-cases/>) and analysed in terms of commonalities, repeated instances and differences. Within this inductive approach of analysis, the overall structural context such as the character of the action, the type of territory, the political systems and welfare regimes were neglected. This means that the various structural contexts of the different cases (cf. Del. 6.4, Weck et al. 2020) were not used as interpretative filters in the first place, as the focus was on what empirically-informed types of procedural (in)justice emerge from the case study reports. This is not to say that these contextual factors are not relevant, but the idea here is to discuss what types evolve from the cases without grouping them beforehand.

In order to further balance out these structural and contextual effects, two case studies per country have been analysed. This means that for those countries for which three (UK) or even four case studies (EL, ES, HU, PL and RO) were available (see <https://relocal.eu/all-cases/>), two have been chosen, because otherwise the typology might have been distorted as cases from a few particular countries would have outnumbered others. In order to match the initial criteria for those countries with two case studies (here DE, FI, FR, NL and SE), namely to have one rather urban and one rather rural case, the same principle has been applied as far as possible by selecting two cases from those countries with three or four available case study reports. In the end, 22 case studies were analysed in this report, which still present a broad and rich empirically-informed basis for identifying different types of procedural (in)justice evolving from local governance practices (see Table 1 below).

Table 1: Selection of 22 case studies: abbreviations, action names and locations

| | |
|-------|---|
| DE 1 | Smart Country Side – Ostwestfalen-Lippe |
| DE 2 | Youth Centre – Görlitz |
| EL 3 | Post-mining Regional Strategy - Western Macedonia |
| EL 4 | Alexander Innovation Centre - Thessaloniki Region |
| ES 7 | Monistrol 2020 Strategic Plan – Monistrol de Monserrat |
| ES 9 | La Mina Neighbourhood Transformation Plan – Barcelona |
| FI 11 | Liekša 2030 Development Strategy – Liekša |
| FI 12 | Community-led local development – Kotka |
| HU 14 | Urban Regeneration - György-telep, Neighbourhood of Pécs |
| HU 16 | Balaton LEADER - Balaton Uplands |
| FR 17 | EURALENS - Pas-de-Calais Mining Basin |
| FR 18 | EPA Alzette-Belval - Lorraine-Luxemburg Border Region |
| NL 19 | Induced Earthquakes - Northeast Groningen Region |
| NL 20 | Rotterdam South on Course - Neighbourhood of Rotterdam |
| PL 23 | Goth Village - Maslomecz Village |
| PL 24 | Rural Public Spaces - Villages of Domachowo, Potarzyce and Stara Krobia |
| RO 25 | Pata Cluj Project - Neighbourhood of Cluj |
| RO 28 | Plumbuita PIDU - Neighbourhood of Bucharest |
| SE 29 | Digital Västerbotten - Västerbotten Region |
| SE 30 | Stockholm Commission - Stockholm City |
| UK 32 | Homelessness Project - Lewisham, Borough of London |
| UK 33 | Strengthening Communities - Isle of Lewis |

These cases were carefully analysed by interpreting and distilling the essence regarding “five” different categories of “governance practices”, which are crucial for positioning different forms of procedural (in)justice (cf. chapter 5). This resulted in an initial selection of “five to eight different generic types” under each of the five categories. These types were assembled in simple lists that provided a description of the types and the abbreviations of the assigned case studies. After the identification of these seemingly uniform but actually different types, these lists were sent back to the case study researcher for validation.

Case study researchers were asked to take a critical look at whether the initial types, which were derived from their case study reports, are correctly assigned to the case study that they have been responsible for under each of the five categories. If not, they were asked to insert a comment on why and to explain briefly which type would be more suitable or to add another “new” type. In addition, in case of any amendments, case study researchers were asked to make references in their case study reports to explain their proposed changes.

After this round of validation, the typologies were adapted accordingly. In doing so, the various types were further generalised in order to keep the overall number limited, which resulted in three to six types under each of the five categories.

Thereafter, the various types were put into boxes in order to illustrate how they eventually relate to each other. Figures 1 to 5 thus illustrate the relative closeness or differences of types. In regard to the former, black lines illustrate that they do have commonalities. Also, the positioning of the boxes was chosen carefully, which means that those that are placed in one row are more similar than those that are placed above or underneath. Figures 2 and 5 are somewhat specific, as the four different types are all rather different and thus are placed one by one vertically. These resulting typologies were sent another time to all responsible case study researchers for validation.

In Ch. 4 some further explanations are given concerning how to construe the various figures and typologies. In addition, for each type of procedural (in)justice a further assessment was undertaken regarding each type's estimated influence on achieving procedural justice. For this, a rather straightforward categorisation was applied by differentiating between:

- 'promoting',
- 'slightly promoting',
- 'mainly neutral',
- 'slightly inhibiting',
- and 'inhibiting'.

In chapter 5 these categories are used in order to synthesise the findings for each of the five typologies and to discuss them in the light of their contribution to achieving procedural justice.

The following table displays once again the abbreviations of the 22 analysed case studies along with the authors of each of these cases. This makes it easier to find the correct references (see under section 6).

Table 2: Selection of 22 case studies: abbreviations and case study authors

| | Case study authors |
|-------|---|
| DE 1 | Matzke FL, Kamuf V and Weck S (2019) |
| DE 2 | Kamuf V, Matzke FL and Weck S (2019) |
| EL 3 | Petrakos G, Topaloglou L, Anagnostou A and Cupcea V (2019) |
| EL 4 | Topaloglou L, Petrakos G, Anagnostou A and Cupcea V (2019) |
| ES 7 | Ulled A, Biosca O, Guevara M and Noguera L (2019) |
| ES 9 | Ulled A, Biosca O, Rodrigo R and Noguera L (2019) |
| FI 11 | Fritsch M, Hämäläinen P, Kahila P and Németh S (2019) |
| FI 12 | Fritsch M, Hämäläinen P, Kahila P and Németh S (2019) |
| HU 14 | Jelinek C and Virág T (2019) |
| HU 16 | Kovács K and Nemes G (2019) |
| FR 17 | Blondel C (2019) |
| FR 18 | Evrard E (2019) |
| NL 19 | Trip JJ and Romein A (2019) |
| NL 20 | Dol K, Hoekstra J and Kleinhans R (2019) |
| PL 23 | Tobiasz-Lis P, Dmochowska-Dudek K, Wójcik M, Jeziorska-Biel P, Napierała T and Janiszewska A (2019) |
| PL 24 | Jeziorska-Biel P, Janiszewska A, Wójcik M, Dmochowska-Dudek K, Tobiasz-Lis P and Napierała T (2019) |
| RO 25 | Bădiță C and Vincze E (2019) |
| RO 28 | Vrăbiescu I (2019) |
| SE 29 | Löfving L, Norlén G and Heleniak T (2019) |
| SE 30 | Borén T (2019) |
| UK 32 | Brooks E, Madanipour A and Shucksmith M (2019) |
| UK 33 | Currie M, Pinker A and Copus A (2019) |

4. Types of procedural (in)justice

In the following, the identified and validated types of procedural (in)justice for the two dimensions ‘coordination and leadership’ (see Ch. 4.1) and ‘participation and transparency’ (see Ch. 4.2) are presented along with some explanatory notes on how to construe the various types and their relations to each other. Although some of the analysed actions are still ongoing (e.g. the implementation process is not finished yet) on which the identified types are based upon, the various types are presented here in past tense to simplify the reading and their comparisons.

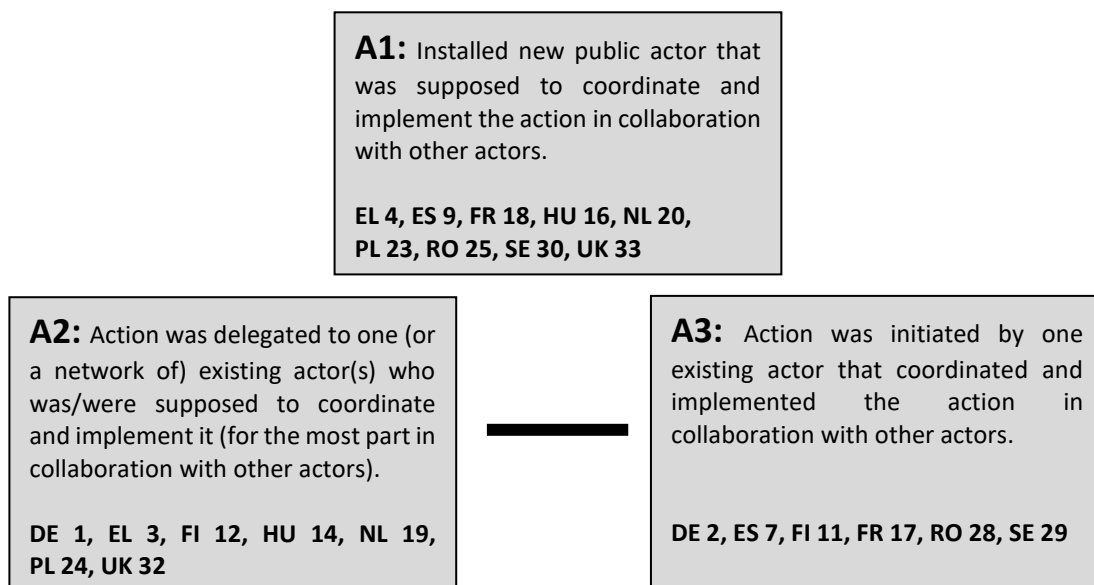
4.1. Coordination and leadership

Positioning of leading actor(s) (A)

The first category for which in total three generic types could be distilled is the ‘positioning of leading actor(s)’ within the actions under consideration. This positioning is important in order to identify responsibilities for the coordination and implementation of the action, hierarchies among various actors and, finally, to assign leadership characteristics (see below).

For nine of the 22 case studies that were analysed here, new leading actors were installed to coordinate and implement the action in collaboration with other, for the most part, already existing actors (A1). In the opposite cases, the leading actors existed already before the action was initiated, and we can differentiate between two types. In one type, the action is delegated to one (or a network of) existing actor(s) who is/are supposed to coordinate and implement in collaboration with existing actors (A2). The other type, in which an existing actor is also in a leading position, is assigned to those cases in which the action has been initiated by the existing leading actor (A3). However, as in all other types, the coordination and implementation are supposed to be realised in collaboration with other, for the most part, already existing actors. Overall, all three emerging types of positioning of the leading actor(s) can be regarded as ‘mainly neutral’ concerning their potential to contribute to procedural justice or even injustice.

Figure 1: Positioning of leading actor(s) (A)

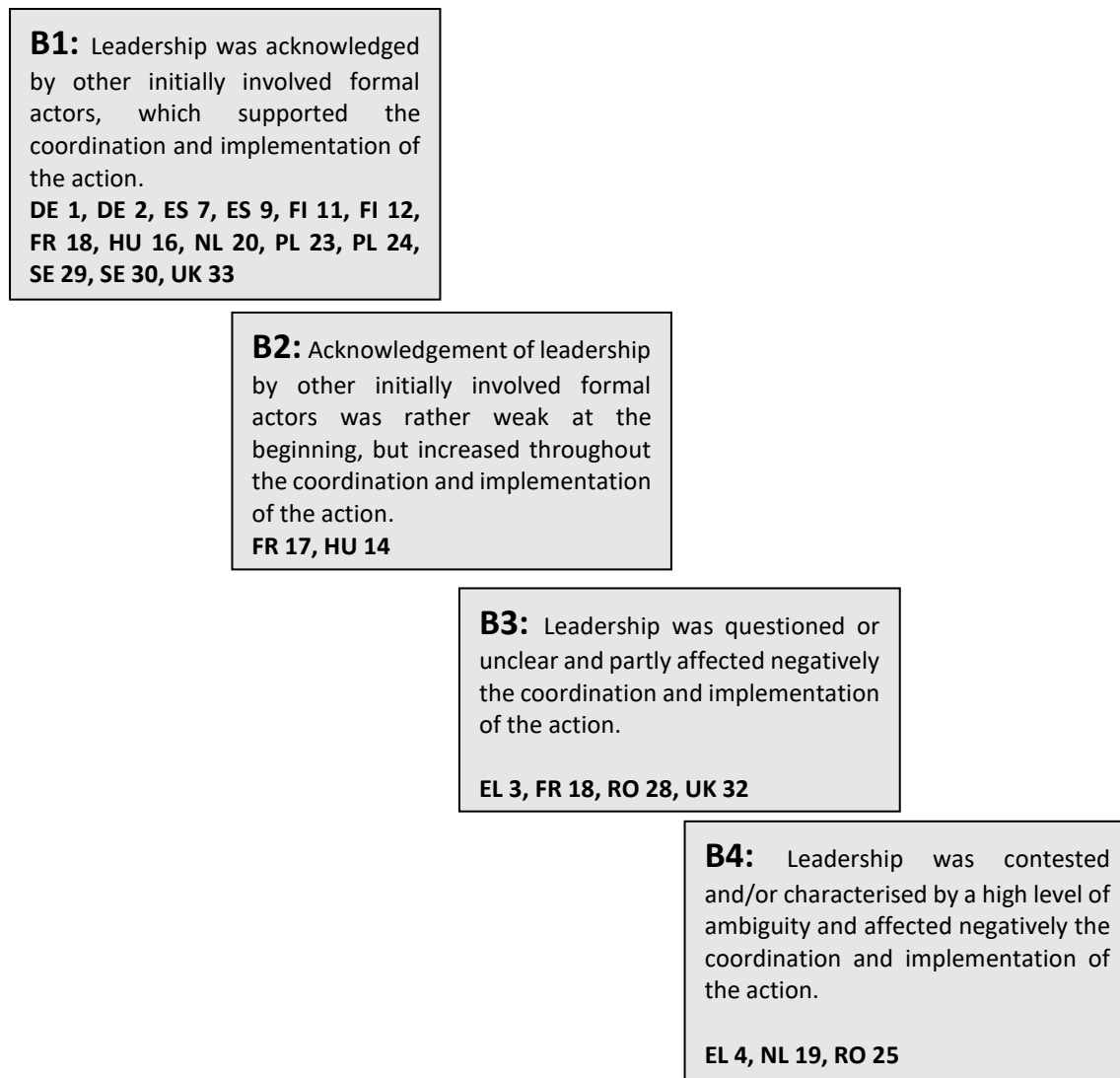


Forms of leadership of identified leading actor(s) (B)

Regarding the forms of leadership of the identified leading actor(s) we can discern four different types, which show a gradually decreasing potential for contributing to procedural justice (B1 → B4). More than half of the cases (14 out of 22) were assigned to B1, in which leadership is acknowledged by other initially involved formal actors in such a way that it supports the coordination and implementation of the action. B2 instead illustrates that the perceived quality of leadership towards other initially involved formal actors can also change during the lifetime of an action. Within this type, to which three cases could be assigned, the acknowledgement of leadership was rather weak at the beginning, but increased later on, that is during the coordination and implementation of the action. Consequently, B1 is assessed here as potentially ‘promoting’ procedural justice and B2 as ‘slightly promoting’.

B3 and B4 can be characterised as types that indicate rather weak leadership in relation to other initially involved formal actors in general, but we can differentiate in the way leadership has impacted the coordination and implementation of the action. In those cases assigned to B3, this impact was only partly negative, although the leadership of the identified leading actor(s) was questioned or was unclear for other involved actors (therefore ‘slightly inhibiting’ processes to achieve procedural justice). In those cases assigned to B4, the leadership was even contested and/or was characterised by a high level of ambiguity, which affected negatively the coordination and implementation of the action (therefore ‘inhibiting’ processes to achieve procedural justice).

Figure 2: Forms of leadership of identified leading actor(s) (B)



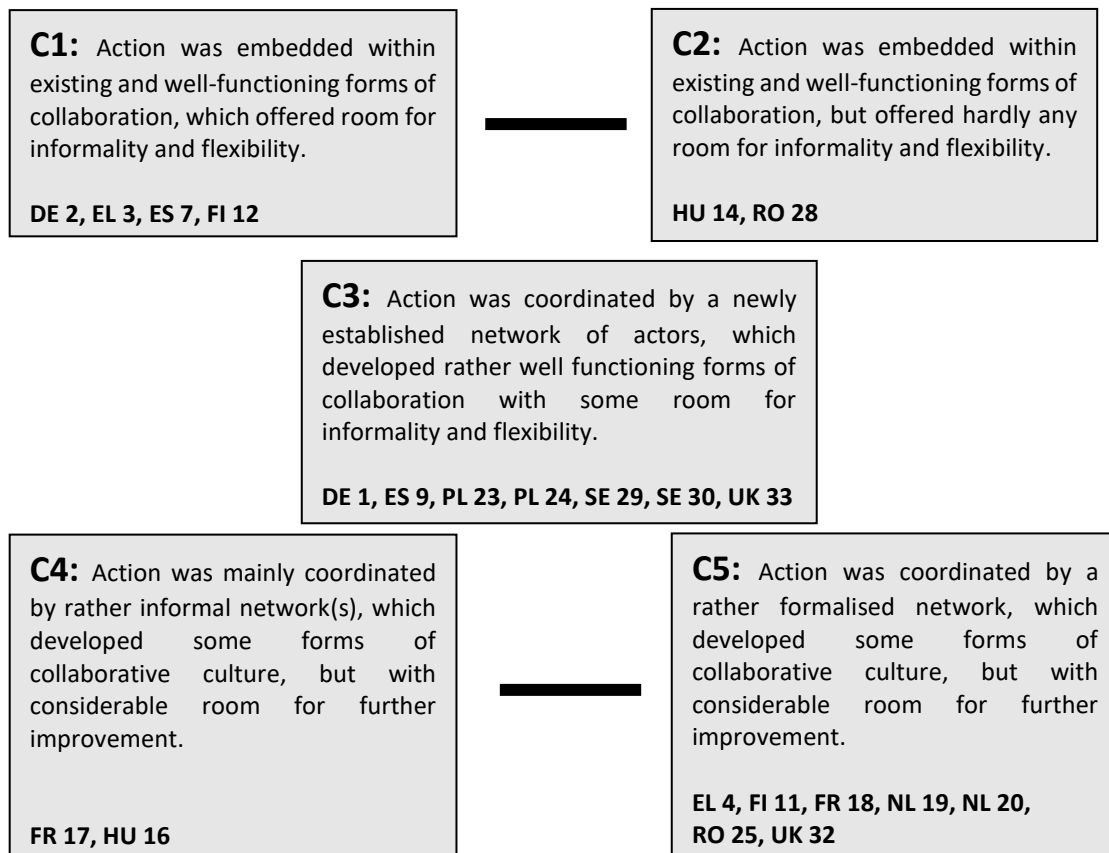
Forms of coordination and functioning of collaboration (C)

Regarding the overall forms of coordination and collaboration within the 22 case studies under consideration here, we were able to distil five generic types. Types C1 and C2 are rather similar in regard to how collaboration is institutionalised, but differ strongly concerning the extent to which room for informality and flexibility is given. It can be argued that C2 can easily lead to a sort of institutional lock-in. However, both types can draw upon a robust institutional context, which existed for a while and which seems to be well-functioning according to the assessments of the case study researchers. C1 is assessed here as potentially ‘slightly promoting’ procedural justice, whereas C2 is categorised as ‘mainly neutral’.

Type C3 differs from C1 and C2 insofar as the action is coordinated mainly by a newly established network of actors for this particular action (whereas the actors themselves can be rather new or already existing, cf. A1 to A3). Otherwise, the collaboration within this network of actors was assessed as rather well-functioning too. Hence, this type is classified as neutral (similar to C2) regarding its potential to influence procedural justice (see Table 3 in Ch. 5). In regard to the question of to what extent the institutional arrangements at hand offer room for informality and flexibility, one can place C3 cautiously between C1 and C2 (see above).

In contrast, the types C4 and C5 are the two that may ‘slightly inhibit’ procedural justice, since the functioning of collaboration can be assessed as rather weak, and it was judged that there is considerable room for further improvement regarding these ten cases that were assigned to either C4 or C5. However, the two types differ significantly concerning their forms of coordination. In those cases which are assigned to type C4, the action is mainly coordinated by rather informal network(s), whereas in cases under type C5 the action is coordinated in a more centred way, namely by one rather formalised network of actors.

Figure 3: Forms of coordination and functioning of collaboration (C)



4.2. Participation and transparency

Participation of initial non-key actors and their exertion of influence (D)

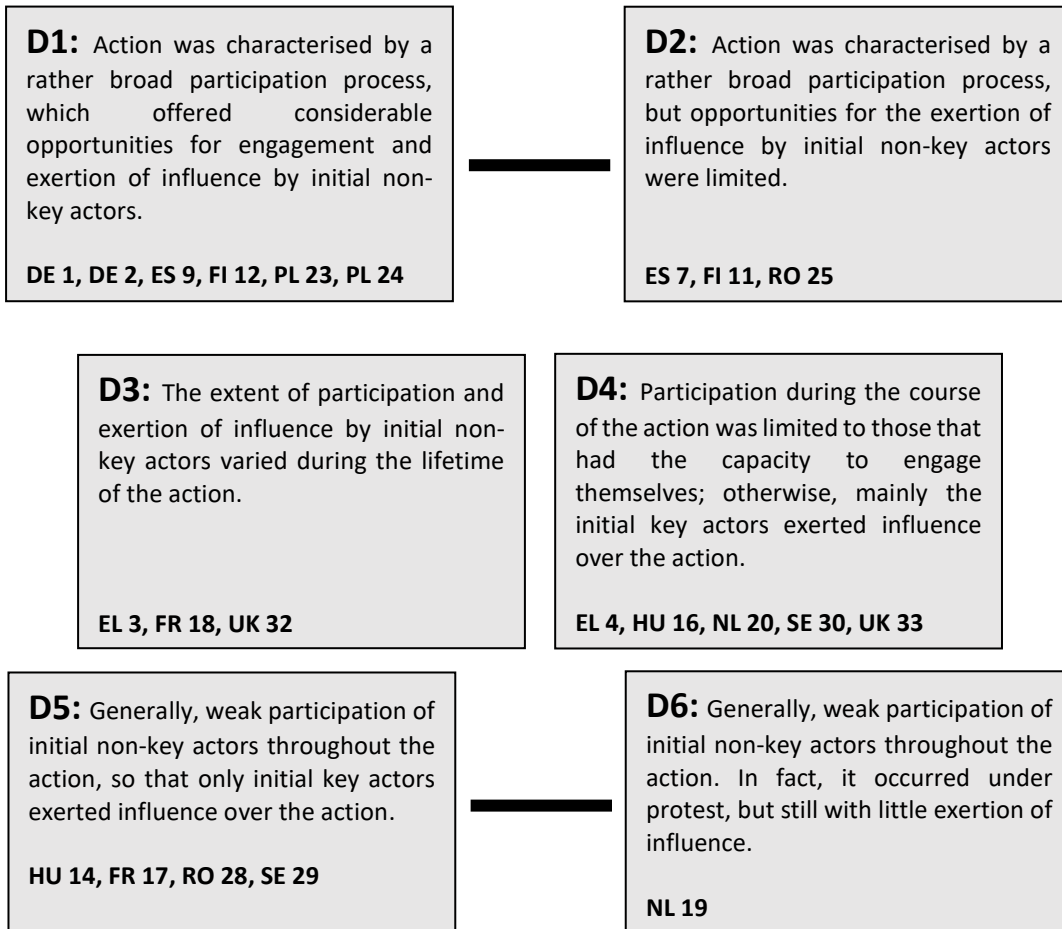
Concerning the first key element ‘participation of initial non-key actors and their exertion of influence’, in total, six generic types could be identified. Initial non-key actors are those that are not involved from the beginning (or quasi per definition) in the coordination and implementation of the action at hand. Apart from institutional or organised actors (such as neighbouring municipalities, sectoral organisations, NGOs), these initial non-key actors are often citizens that live in the specific locality at which the action is targeted and are as such in general weakly positioned, due to their limited resources. As ‘initial non-key actors’, their engagement needs to be mobilised (in general by those who are leading actors and as such have an important and powerful role from the beginning). Another important characteristic of the six identified types here is the extent to which these initial non-key actors, once their participation is mobilised, can exert influence over the action at hand.

In other words, these six types inform about whether information about the action is only shared or whether decision-making capacities are, at least to some extent, shared with initial non-key actors. The latter certainly impacts procedural justice to a larger extent than the former. The first two types (D1 and D2) are similar insofar as those cases assigned to them are characterised by a rather broad participation process. However, concerning D1, these participation processes lead to considerable opportunities for the exertion of influence by weakly positioned initial non-key actors, whereas these opportunities are limited in the three cases categorised under D2. Hence, D1 was categorised as ‘promoting’ towards procedural justice, whereas D2 is categorised as only ‘slightly promoting’.

D5 and D6 can be positioned in sharp contrast to D1 and D2, due to the ascribed rather weak or almost non-existent efforts to organise processes of participation. However, D5 and D6 differ in regard to the fact that in one case, little exertion of influence could be reached by initial non-key actors through protest (D6), whereas in those cases assigned to D5 the weak participation process resulted in no noteworthy influence over the action. As such, both types may ‘inhibit’ the achievement of procedural justice.

From a procedural justice perspective, the two types D3 and D4 can be placed in between D1/D2 and D5/D6, since they may eventually contribute to more perceived procedural justice compared to D5 and D6, but much less compared to D1 and D2. Similar to B2, D3 reminds us that the quality of governance can vary over time, whereas D4 points at capacity issues on the side of the initial non-key actors, which are indirectly addressed in the following types E1 to E4 as well. Nonetheless, practices that can be assigned to D3 are categorised as ‘mainly neutral’, whereas the type D4, may ‘slightly inhibit’ the achievement of procedural justice.

Figure 4: Participation of initial non-key actors and their exertion of influence (D)



Transparency and intelligibility (E)

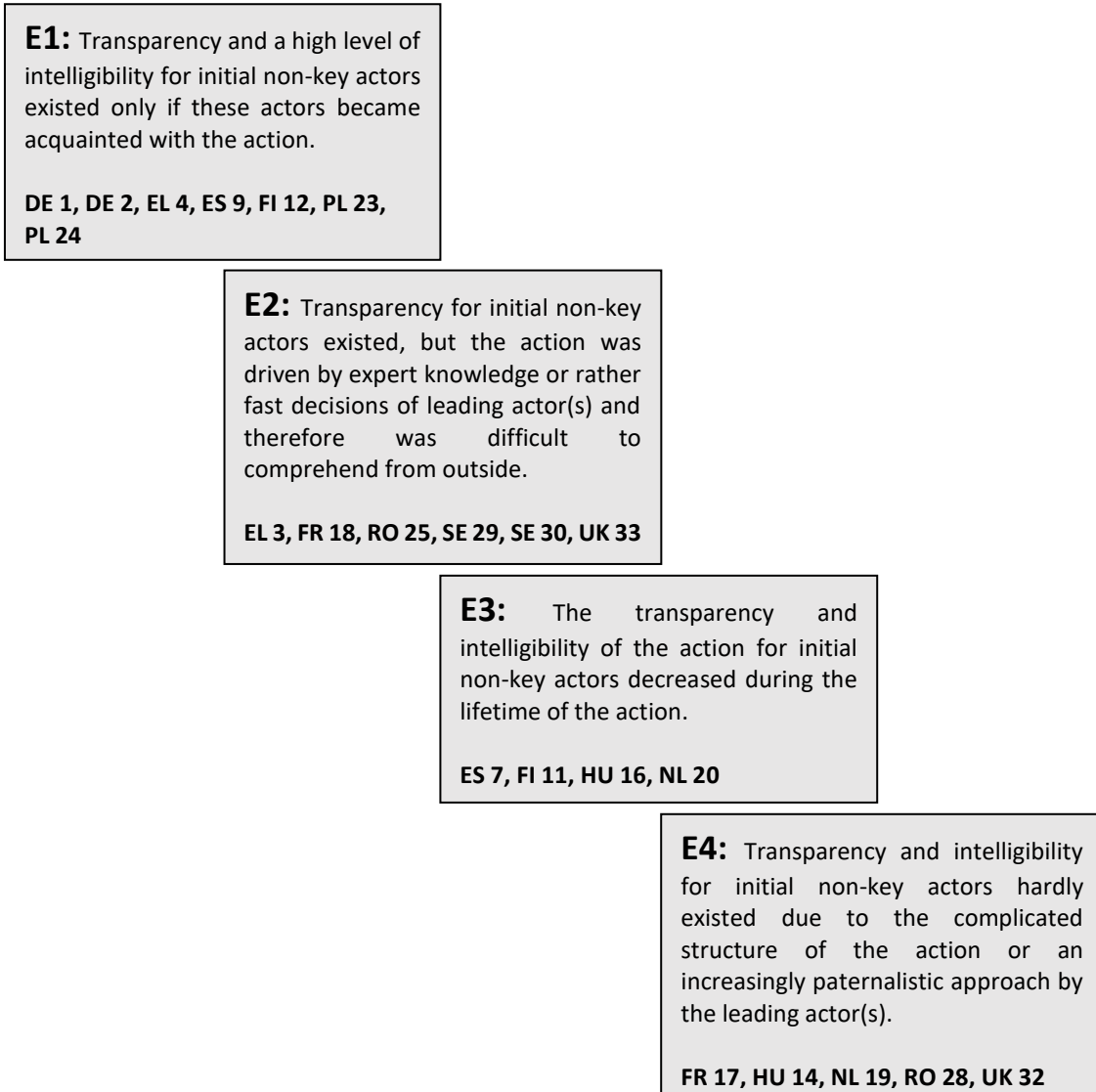
Similar to those types that indicate a different form of leadership of the identified leading actor(s) (cf. B1 → B4), the four generic types that were distilled from the 22 case studies concerning the transparency and intelligibility of the various actions show gradually decreasing potential for contributing to procedural justice from E1 to E4.

E1 shows that despite the fact that transparency and a high level of intelligibility existed, initial non-key actors needed certain capacities in order to become acquainted with the action, otherwise their engagement was at risk. Type E2 indicates that although transparency was safeguarded, intelligibility from outside was rather limited, since the action was driven by expert knowledge or by rather fast decisions of leading actor(s). Due to these qualitative differences, E1 is categorised as 'slightly promoting', whereas E2 is categorised as 'mainly neutral'.

For those cases categorised under E3, the shifting quality of this aspect of local governance was decisive. Here it is the decrease of the transparency and intelligibility during the lifetime of the action for initial non-key actors. Similar to type E4, E3 represents quite a number of cases, which means that 15 of the 22 cases analysed here were assigned to these two types that show rather poor potential to contribute to procedural justice.

However, those cases assigned to E4 show some rather worrisome characteristics, since they were described as follows: 'transparency and intelligibility for initial non-key actors hardly existed due to the complicated structure of the action or an increasingly paternalistic approach by the leading actor(s)'. Consequently, E3 is assessed as 'slightly inhibiting' for achieving procedural justice, whereas E4 is assessed as 'inhibiting'.

Figure 5: Transparency and intelligibility of the action (E)



5. Synthesis and conclusions

The five typologies presented in Ch. 4 offer a comparative perspective on the analysed 22 case studies. As clarified in Ch. 3, they are based on empirically informed types that emerge from the case studies. Certainly the chosen ‘analytical categories’ and ‘guiding questions’ in the case study manual (cf. Weck et al. 2018) moved the empirical research in this or that direction. On the other hand, the 22 case studies as such represent a wide scope of different territorial, institutional and political contexts. Also, the actions as such differed enormously in their characteristics, which means that they were different in terms of objectives, sectoral affiliations, time-lines, funding schemes and so on (cf. Weck et al. 2020).

Therefore, the emerging types can indeed be interpreted as rather generic as they represent a wide array of different approaches, institutional settings and pre-conditions as well as capacities on the side of the involved actors. On the other hand, it is noteworthy that the five typologies that are suggested here are not claimed to be comprehensive, which means that they are not supposed to cover all thinkable and eventually even ‘factual’ types of procedural (in)justice, if one were to add further cases studied within RELOCAL or beyond. To develop such a comprehensive list of types has not been the intention here. Rather the focus has been on whether we can recognise among the set of 22 cases any patterns that will help us to revisit the concept of procedural (in)justice. For this it is helpful not only to consider the scope and incidences of different types of local governance practices that seem to be central for investigating the concept of procedural justice in practice as the typologies A to F suggest, but also how they can be assessed regarding their (potential) influence on achieving procedural justice.

A compilation of what has been discussed in Ch. 4 is illustrated in Table 3. This means that the table below illustrates not only which types have been assigned to which case study, but also each type’s estimated influence on achieving procedural justice. Comparing case by case, we can thus easily recognise which cases apparently promise to achieve procedural justice comparatively well, and which do not. The cases DE 1, DE 2, ES 7, FI 12 and PL 23 and PL 24, for instance, may tend to move towards procedural justice, whereas cases such as EL 4, FR 17, HU 14, NL 19, RO 28 and UK 32 seem to arrive at a point, which can be considered as unjust from a procedural perspective. However, most of the cases indicate that they have potential for moving in both directions. In other words, there is potential for improvements, but also reasons to be aware of the need to safeguard those processes or institutional arrangements that seem to support elements of procedural justice. Generally, one can say that room for improvement can be specifically identified concerning governance practices that are related to the participation of initial non-key actors and their exertion of influence (D) and to aspects related to the transparency and intelligibility of the actions (E), whereas practices related to the leadership of the identified leading actor(s) (B) are assessed more positively.

Hence, policy-makers, leading actors or other stakeholders can interpret this table as a reminder of what they eventually need to “work on”. In other words, this table may function as a matrix that will make these actors aware of potentials but also risks in local governance processes. The table also suggests that the critical study of governance practices that may contribute to procedural (in)justice should include many different elements and perspectives and these cannot be easily assessed as “good” or “bad” concerning their impact on procedural (in)justice.

Table 3: Incidences and estimated influence of various types on achieving procedural justice in 22 RELOCAL case studies

| Abbreviations, action names and locations | | Ax | Bx | Cx | Dx | Ex |
|---|--|----|----|----|----|----|
| DE 1 | Smart Country Side - Ostwestfalen-Lippe | A2 | B1 | C3 | D1 | E1 |
| DE 2 | Youth Centre - Görlitz | A3 | B1 | C1 | D1 | E1 |
| EL 3 | Post-mining Regional Strategy - Western Macedonia | A2 | B3 | C1 | D3 | E2 |
| EL 4 | Alexander Innovation Centre - Thessaloniki Region | A1 | B4 | C5 | D4 | E1 |
| ES 7 | Monistrol 2020 Strategic Plan - Monistrol de Monserrat | A3 | B1 | C1 | D2 | E3 |
| ES 9 | La Mina Neighbourhood Transformation Plan - Barcelona | A1 | B1 | C3 | D1 | E1 |
| FI 11 | Liekka 2030 Development Strategy - Liekka | A3 | B1 | C5 | D2 | E3 |
| FI 12 | Community-led local development - Kotka | A2 | B1 | C1 | D1 | E1 |
| HU 14 | Urban Regeneration - György-telep, Neighbourhood of Pécs | A2 | B2 | C2 | D5 | E4 |
| HU 16 | Balaton LEADER - Balaton Uplands | A1 | B1 | C4 | D4 | E3 |
| FR 17 | EURALENS - Pas-de-Calais Mining Basin | A3 | B2 | C4 | D5 | E4 |
| FR 18 | EPA Alzette-Belval - Lorraine-Luxemburg Border Region | A1 | B1 | C5 | D3 | E2 |
| NL 19 | Induced Earthquakes - Northeast Groningen Region | A2 | B4 | C5 | D6 | E4 |
| NL 20 | Rotterdam South on Course - Neighbourhood of Rotterdam | A1 | B1 | C5 | D4 | E3 |
| PL 23 | Goth Village - Maslomecz Village | A1 | B1 | C3 | D1 | E1 |
| PL 24 | Rural Public Spaces - Villages of Domachowo, Potarzyce and Stara Krobica | A2 | B1 | C3 | D1 | E1 |
| RO 25 | Pata Cluj Project - Neighbourhood of Cluj | A1 | B4 | C5 | D2 | E2 |
| RO 28 | Plumbuita PIDU - Neighbourhood of Bucharest | A3 | B3 | C2 | D5 | E4 |
| SE 29 | Digital Västerbotten - Västerbotten Region | A2 | B1 | C3 | D5 | E2 |
| SE 30 | Stockholm Commission - Stockholm City | A1 | B1 | C3 | D4 | E2 |
| UK 32 | Homelessness Project - Lewisham, Borough of London | A2 | B3 | C5 | D3 | E4 |
| UK 33 | Strengthening Communities - Isle of Lewis | A1 | B1 | C3 | D4 | E2 |

| |
|---|
| (A) positioning of leading actor(s) |
| (B) forms of leadership of identified leading actor(s) |
| (C) forms of coordination and functioning of collaboration |
| (D) participation of initial non-key actors and their exertion of influence |
| (E) transparency and intelligibility |

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|---------------------|
| promoting |
| slightly promoting |
| mainly neutral |
| slightly inhibiting |
| inhibiting |

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