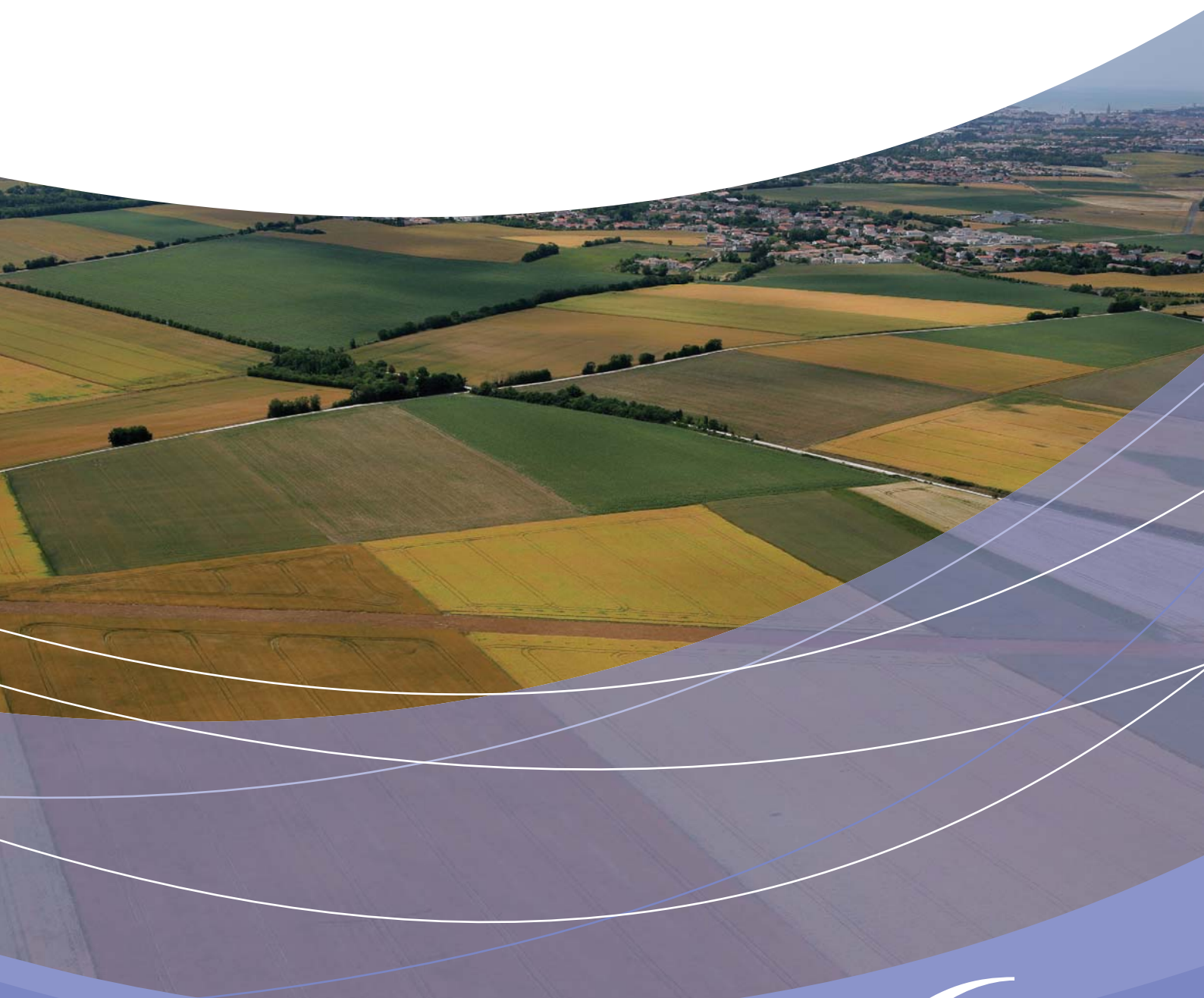


Eurostat regional yearbook 2008



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Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, 2008

ISBN 978-92-79-08212-2

ISSN 1830-9674

DOI 10.2785/11820

Cat. No. KS-HA-08-001-EN-N

(Cat. No. printed publication KS-HA-08-001-EN-C)

Theme: General and regional statistics

Collection: Statistical books

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Preface

Dear reader,

I am pleased to present the 2008 edition of the Eurostat regional yearbook, which gives an overview of the most recent developments in the regions of the European Union, with its current 27 Member States, as well as in the candidate countries and EFTA countries.

We have again selected themes that we think will show you the most interesting facets of development in the economic, social and demographic fields in Europe's regions. We are also pleased to include a contribution from our colleagues at the Commission's Directorate-General for Regional Policy for the second year running. This time the chapter is about 'Sectoral productivity' and it examines how productivity in different business sectors differs between the EU's regions.

Regional policy programmes initiated last year under the EU's new cohesion policy are now well under way and we hope that this publication will give some flavour of the progress being made in regional cohesion throughout the EU. We have also included some of the most recent results from the Urban Audit exercise, a data collection that compiles a great deal of statistical information on Europe's cities.

We are progressively developing the range of regional indicators available and will hopefully be able to include these in our choice of topics in future editions, as data availability and quality allow.

I wish you a stimulating read.



Hervé Carré
Director-General, Eurostat



Acknowledgements

The editors of the *Eurostat regional yearbook 2008* would like to thank all those who were involved in its preparation. We thank in particular the following chapter authors for making publication of this year's edition possible.

- **Population:** Gregor Kyi (Unit F.1 at Eurostat: Demographic and migration statistics)
- **Urban statistics:** Teodóra Brandmüller (Unit D.2 at Eurostat: Regional indicators and geographical information)
- **Gross domestic product:** Andreas Krüger (Unit C.2 at Eurostat: National accounts — production)
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- **Science, technology and innovation:** Bernard Felix and Tomas Meri (Unit F4 at Eurostat: Education, science and culture statistics)
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- **Agriculture:** Garry Mahon (Unit E.2 at Eurostat: Agricultural and fisheries statistics)

This publication was edited and coordinated by Åsa Önnersfors (Unit D.2 at Eurostat: Regional indicators and geographical information) with the help of Pavel Bořkovec (Unit B.6 at Eurostat: Dissemination). Baudouin Quennery (Unit D.2) produced all the statistical maps.

We are also very grateful to:

- the **Directorate-General for Translation of the European Commission**, and in particular the German, English and French translation units;
- the **Office for Official Publications of the European Communities**, and in particular Peter Johansson in Unit B.1, Cross-media publishing, and the proofreaders in Unit B.2, Editorial services.



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Introduction





Regional statistics give more detailed information

Eurostat, the statistical office of the European Communities, collects data on a range of different statistical topics, mainly from the 27 Member States of the European Union, but also from the three candidate countries (Croatia, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, and Turkey) and from the four EFTA countries (Iceland, Liechtenstein, Norway and Switzerland). The statistical data are often only collected at national level, but very many statistical fields also have statistics at regional level, which gives us a more complete picture.

This aim of this publication, the *Eurostat regional yearbook 2008*, is to give you detailed information on life in the European regions today. Looking at the regions of Europe under the magnifying glass allows the authors of the 13 different chapters to make an in-depth analysis of a large variety of statistical domains. We very much hope you will enjoy reading it!

The first chapter is about population statistics (demography), because population data form the basis for all other statistics. Many other statistical indicators are divided by the population figures, thus resulting in data with the unit expressed in terms of 'per inhabitant'. Therefore, we start the first chapter by presenting some basic facts about how the population is spread over the regions in Europe, providing birth and death rates, migration patterns and age distribution.

The second chapter, on urban statistics, is based on the Urban Audit data collection and it presents data on a range of different topics from all European capitals and from many other large European cities. As a large proportion of EU citizens live in these cities, it should be a topic that is interesting and directly relevant for many people.

The other chapters can be divided into four different themes.

The first concerns economic or financial indicators: gross domestic product (GDP), household accounts and structural business statistics. Economic cohesion is one of the main goals in EU policy and, one might say, the engine for all other policies. In particular the chapter on GDP gives a very good idea of the situation in the European Union today.

Labour market indicators form the second group of themes in this publication, containing a basic chapter on the labour market, and also introduc-

ing two totally new subjects for the *Eurostat regional yearbook*; sectoral productivity, written by a subject specialist from the Directorate-General for Regional Policy, and labour costs, where the regional differences in labour costs per hour are analysed.

The theme for the third group of chapters is more general and concerns the everyday life of most European citizens. Transport and tourism both focus on the mobility of people, while science, technology and innovation is often seen as one of the main cornerstones in the new Lisbon strategy for growth and jobs.

Well-being in general is the theme for the last two chapters; statistics on health are a welcome reappearance this year, focusing on the main causes of death and on the density of healthcare staff in the European regions; the chapter on agriculture this year concerns animal-rearing, mainly regarding pigs, sheep and cows.

The NUTS classification

All statistics at regional level within the EU are based on the nomenclature of territorial units for statistics (NUTS). The NUTS classification has been used for regional statistics for many decades, and has always formed the basis for regional funding policy. It was only in 2003, though, that NUTS acquired a legal basis, when the NUTS regulation was adopted by the Parliament and the Council ⁽¹⁾.

Whenever new Member States join the EU, the NUTS regulation is of course amended to include the regional classification in those countries. This was the case in 2004, when the EU took in 10 new Member States, and in 2007 when it expanded to include Bulgaria and Romania.

The NUTS regulation provides for a review to be conducted every three years whereby the regional classification can be changed and adapted to new administrative boundaries or economic circumstances. In 2006, this exercise took place for the first time, and the results of these changes to the NUTS classification have now been valid since 1 January 2008. Most territorial changes are at NUTS level 3, affecting 11 countries, while four countries had changes made at NUTS level 2 and only one country at NUTS level 1.

The main changes in this latest revision of the NUTS classification are the following: Denmark introduced new NUTS 2 regions and revised the existing NUTS 3 regions following a substantial

⁽¹⁾ More information on the NUTS classification can be found on the Internet (http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/ramon/nuts/splash_regions.html).



administrative regional reform. In one German region, Sachsen-Anhalt, three different NUTS 2 regions were merged into just one NUTS 2 region. Slovenia introduced two new NUTS 2 regions where it had only one previously. In the United Kingdom, more specifically in north-eastern Scotland, a boundary shift at both NUTS 2 and 3 levels had the effect of creating new regions. Sweden introduced NUTS 1 regions for the first time due to the size of the country. For more detailed information on the most recent NUTS changes, please consult the Eurostat website.

Since these NUTS changes were introduced only on 1 January 2008 and the statistical data for all the chapters had already been extracted by the beginning of this year, you will find that regional data, especially for Denmark and Slovenia, are missing or have been replaced with national values on many of the statistical maps. The regional data availability for these two countries will have hopefully improved for next year's publication.

As a rule regional data by NUTS 2 regions are displayed and analysed in the *Eurostat regional yearbook 2008*, but there is one exception. Regarding labour costs, Eurostat only collects data at NUTS level 1 and therefore in that chapter the data are based on NUTS 1 regions instead.

Please note that some of the Member States have a relatively small population and they are therefore not divided into more than one NUTS 2 region. Thus, for these countries the NUTS 2 value is exactly the same as the national value. Following the latest revision of the NUTS classification this now applies to six Member States (Estonia, Cyprus, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg and Malta), one candidate country (the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia), and two EFTA countries (Iceland and Liechtenstein): in all these cases the whole country consists of one single NUTS 2 region.

A folding map accompanies this publication on the inside of the cover and it shows all the regions at NUTS level 2 in the 27 Member States of the European Union (EU-27) and the corresponding statistical regions at level 2 in the candidate and EFTA countries. In the annex you will find the

full list of codes and names of these regions. This will help you to locate a specific region geographically on the map.

Coverage

The *Eurostat regional yearbook 2008* mainly contains statistics from the 27 Member States of the European Union, but when available also from the three candidate countries: Croatia, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, and Turkey; and from the four EFTA countries: Iceland, Liechtenstein, Norway and Switzerland.

Regions in the candidate countries and the EFTA countries are called statistical regions and they follow the same rules as the NUTS regions in the European Union, except that there is no legal base. Data from the candidate and EFTA countries are not yet available in the Eurostat database for some policy areas, but the data availability situation is constantly improving, and we hope to have even better coverage in the near future.

More regional information

Under the theme 'General and regional statistics' on the Eurostat website you will find tables with statistics on both 'Regions' and the 'Urban Audit' with more detailed time series (some of them going back as far as 1970) and with more detailed statistics than contained in this yearbook. You will also find a number of indicators at NUTS level 3 (such as area, demography, gross domestic product and labour market data). This is important since some of the countries covered are not divided into NUTS 2 regions, as mentioned above.

For more detailed information on the contents of the regional and urban databases please consult the Eurostat publication *European regional and urban statistics — Reference guide — 2008 edition*, which you can download free of charge from the Eurostat website. The specific data used for producing the maps and other illustrations in this publication can also be found as Excel tables on the Eurostat website.

Urban statistics

2





Introduction

Improving the attractiveness of regions and cities is one of the priorities targeted by the renewed Lisbon strategy and the Community strategic guidelines on cohesion for 2007–13. Quality of life is crucial in attracting and retaining a skilled labour force, businesses, students, tourists and, most of all, residents in a city. Assessing the current situation is a prerequisite for any improvement, development and future monitoring. The Urban Audit is a response to this demand for assessment. This data collection provides information on the different aspects of the quality of urban life in Europe's cities.

The Urban Audit is the result of a joint effort by the participating cities, the statistical offices belonging to the European statistical system and the European Commission's Directorate-General for Regional Policy. The success of this data collection depends on their contributions and continued support.

What makes the Urban Audit unique?

The Urban Audit exercise can now look back over almost a decade of trials, errors, and achievements. Several concepts were tested and large volumes of data were collected during the pilot study in 1999, the first large-scale data collection round of 2003/04 and the most recent collection round of 2006/07. The data which passed the quality control procedures has, since April 2008, been available in Eurostat's statistical databases. The uniqueness of the Urban Audit data set lies in the extent of its three main dimensions: its wide choice of indicators, its large geographical coverage and its decade-long time series.

Wide choice of indicators

More than 300 indicators were defined and calculated, covering most aspects of quality of life, e.g. demography, housing, health, crime, labour market, income disparity, local administration, educational qualifications, environment, climate, travel patterns, information society and cultural infrastructure. These indicators are derived from the 336 variables collected by Eurostat. Data availability differs from domain to domain: in the domain of demography, for instance, data are available for more than 90 % of the cities, while in the domain of the environment data are available for less than half of them.

Large geographical coverage

Following the pilot study of 58 cities, in 2003/04 the data collection expanded to cover 258 cities. At present the Urban Audit includes 321 cities from the EU-27, 26 Turkish cities, six Norwegian cities and four Swiss cities. Data will be collected from five Croatian cities in the course of 2008.

A city can be designated as an urban settlement (morphological concept) or as a legal entity (administrative concept). The Urban Audit uses this latter concept and delineates the so-called 'core city' according to political and administrative boundaries. Data used to produce the maps in this chapter refer to this spatial level. However, economic activity, labour force or air pollution, etc. evidently cross the administrative boundaries of a city. To capture information on this extended spatial level, the 'larger urban zone' was defined based on commuter flows. The larger urban zone includes the core city and its 'commuter belt'. Each core city is divided up into sub-city districts. This third spatial level enables information to be collected on disparities within a city. To allow comparative analysis, national-level data have also been compiled. Figure 2.1, for instance, compares the national population to the population figures collected at the city level.

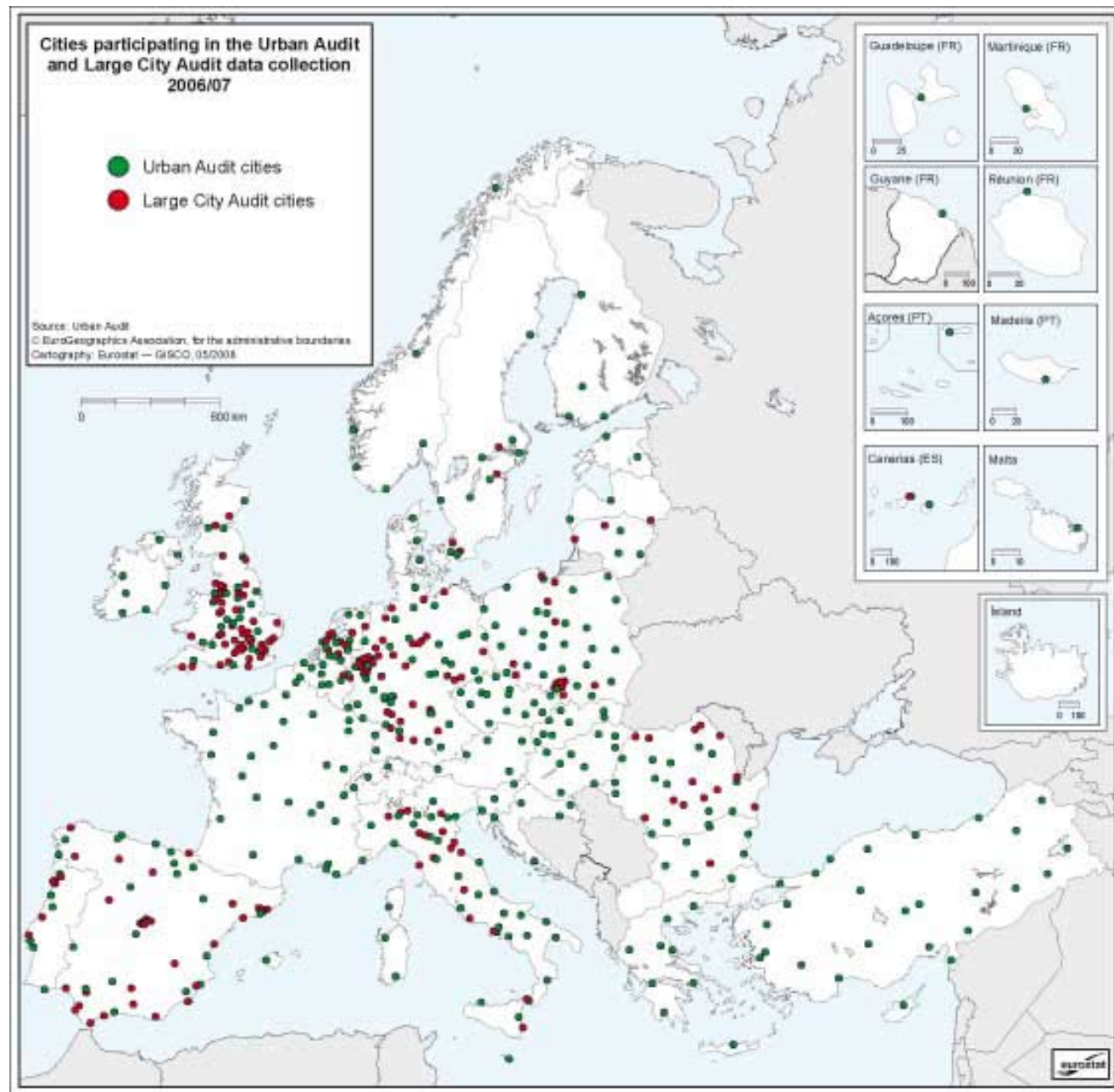
The selection of Urban Audit cities was based on several criteria. As a general requirement, the cities selected should reflect the geographical cross-section of each country and should comprise approximately 20 % of the national population. Consequently, in a few countries some large cities (over 100 000 inhabitants) were not included in the Urban Audit. To supplement the Urban Audit data collection in this respect, in 2006 a new data collection, the so-called 'Large City Audit' was launched. The Large City Audit includes all 'non-Urban Audit cities' with more than 100 000 inhabitants in the EU-27. For the over 250 cities in the Large City Audit, a reduced set of 50 variables is collected. The list of participating cities was agreed bilaterally with the Member States. Map 2.1 illustrates the geographical spread of Urban Audit cities and Large City Audit cities.

More than a decade-long time series

Four reference periods have been defined so far for the Urban Audit: 1989 to 1993, 1994 to 1998, 1999 to 2002 and 2003 to 2005. Within each period a reference year was set: 1991, 1996, 2001 and 2004. Where possible, cities were asked to provide data for these years. An adjacent year was



Map 2.1: Cities participating in the Urban Audit and Large City Audit data collection 2006/07





chosen for variables which were not available for the reference year. For the years 1991 and 1996, data were collected only for a reduced number of 80 variables.

Attractiveness of cities

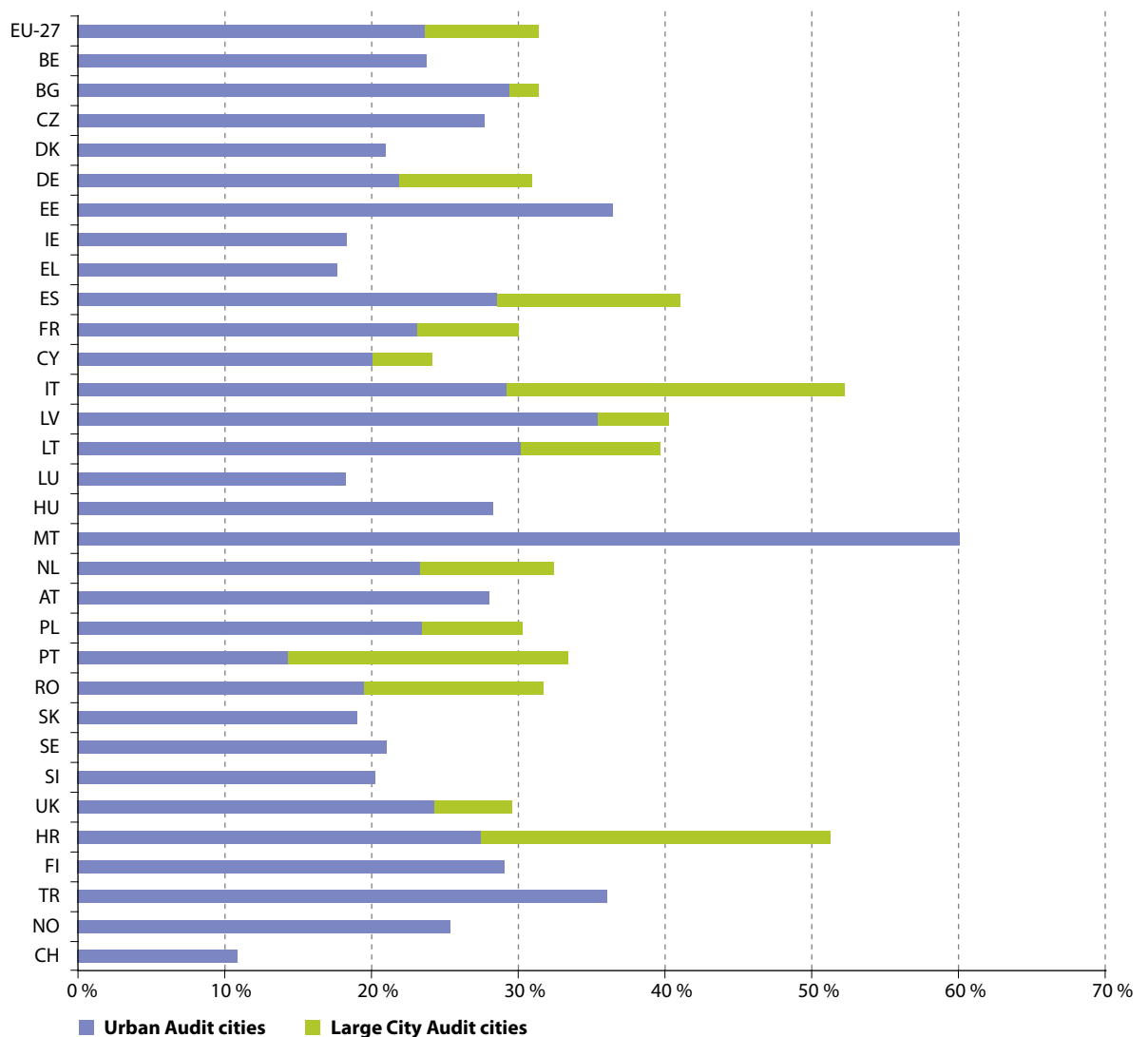
The power to attract people has been one of the distinguishing characteristics of cities. The concentration of people in cities is therefore one of the basic indicators of cities' attractiveness.

Figure 2.1 illustrates the percentage of national population living in the Urban Audit cities and Large City Audit cities. The total population of the 321 Urban Audit cities is more than 120 mil-

lion, representing approximately 25 % of the EU-27 population, while the Large City Audit covers an additional 8 % of the EU-27 population. In the two Mediterranean island States Cyprus and Malta, the proportions of the national population living in Urban Audit or Large City Audit cities are the highest among all Member States. It is worth noting that the smaller countries are not the only ones with high population coverage: Spain and the United Kingdom also have a percentage value above 40 %.

The size of the urban population in itself reveals only part of the story. Using the Urban Audit database we can examine the age structure of the cities. The share of children less than 14 years old

Figure 2.1: Population living in Urban Audit and Large City Audit cities as a percentage of the national population, 2004



Data: HU: 2005; MT, FI: 2003; BG, IE: 2002; DK: 2001; FR: 1999

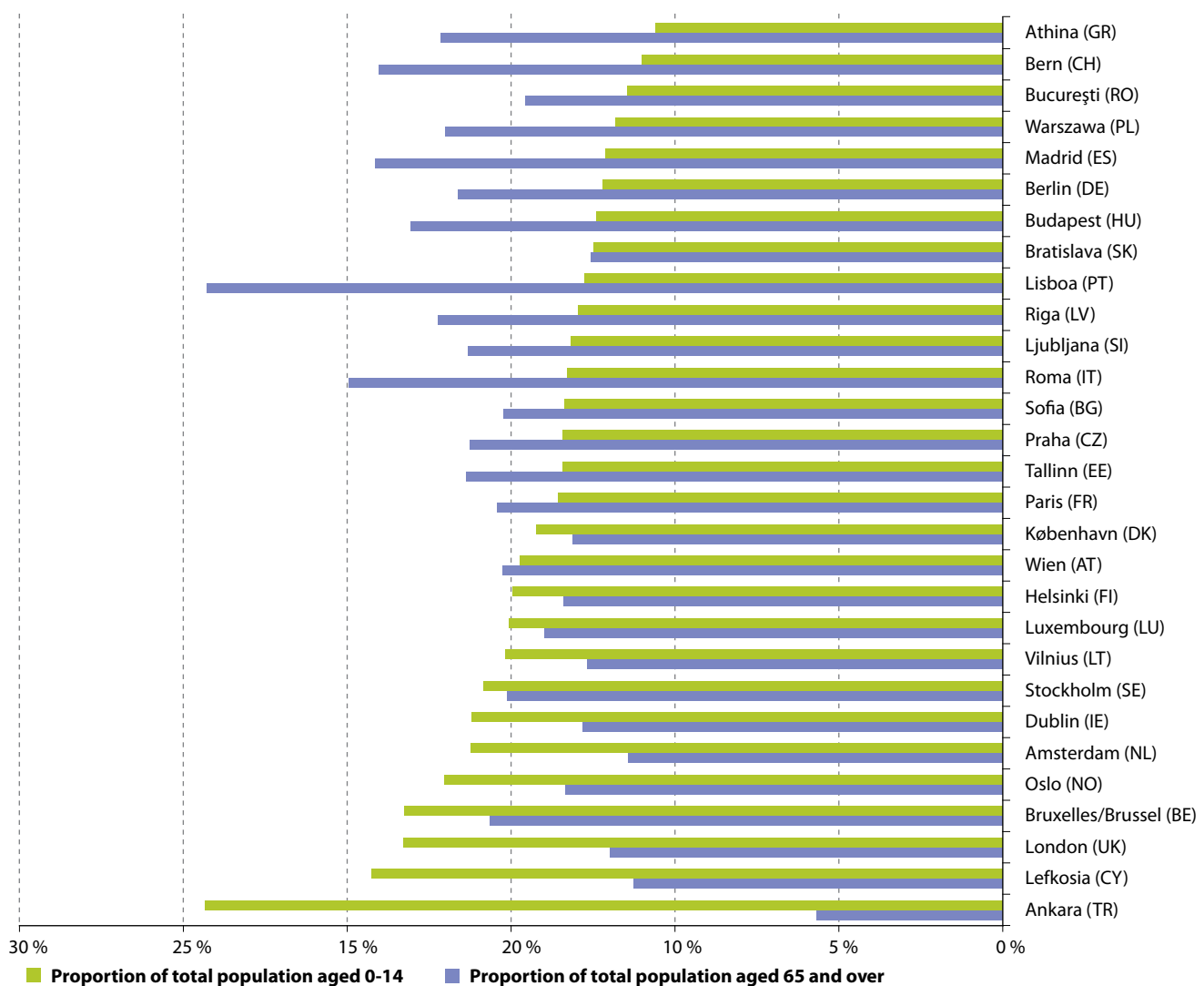


in the total resident population was the highest in Ankara and Lefkosia, as shown in Figure 2.2. Capitals such as London, Bruxelles/Brussel, Oslo, Amsterdam, Dublin and Stockholm also attract young people: the proportion of children less than 14 years old is above 15 % there, whereas in Athina, Bern and Bucuresti only one in 10 residents is less than 14 years old. The Portuguese capital has the highest share of residents above 65 years old, followed by the other two southern European capitals, Roma and Madrid. In these cities the share of elderly residents is significantly higher than the share of younger residents, raising concerns about the ageing of the population. This process is brought about by low birth rates and/or high life expectancies. These two indica-

tors are available from the Urban Audit database stored on the Eurostat portal.

The enhancement of urban attractiveness is a continuous policy effort. These efforts should achieve, along with other targets, an adaptable and diverse economic structure at the city level to provide a secure employment base for citizens. Generally, cities with a concentration of economic activity in the tertiary sector are considered to be more flexible and dynamic. The highest shares of employment in services, more than 92 %, were registered in Cambridge, Luxembourg and Genève. Despite their relatively small population these cities are acknowledged as international centres of research, financial services or

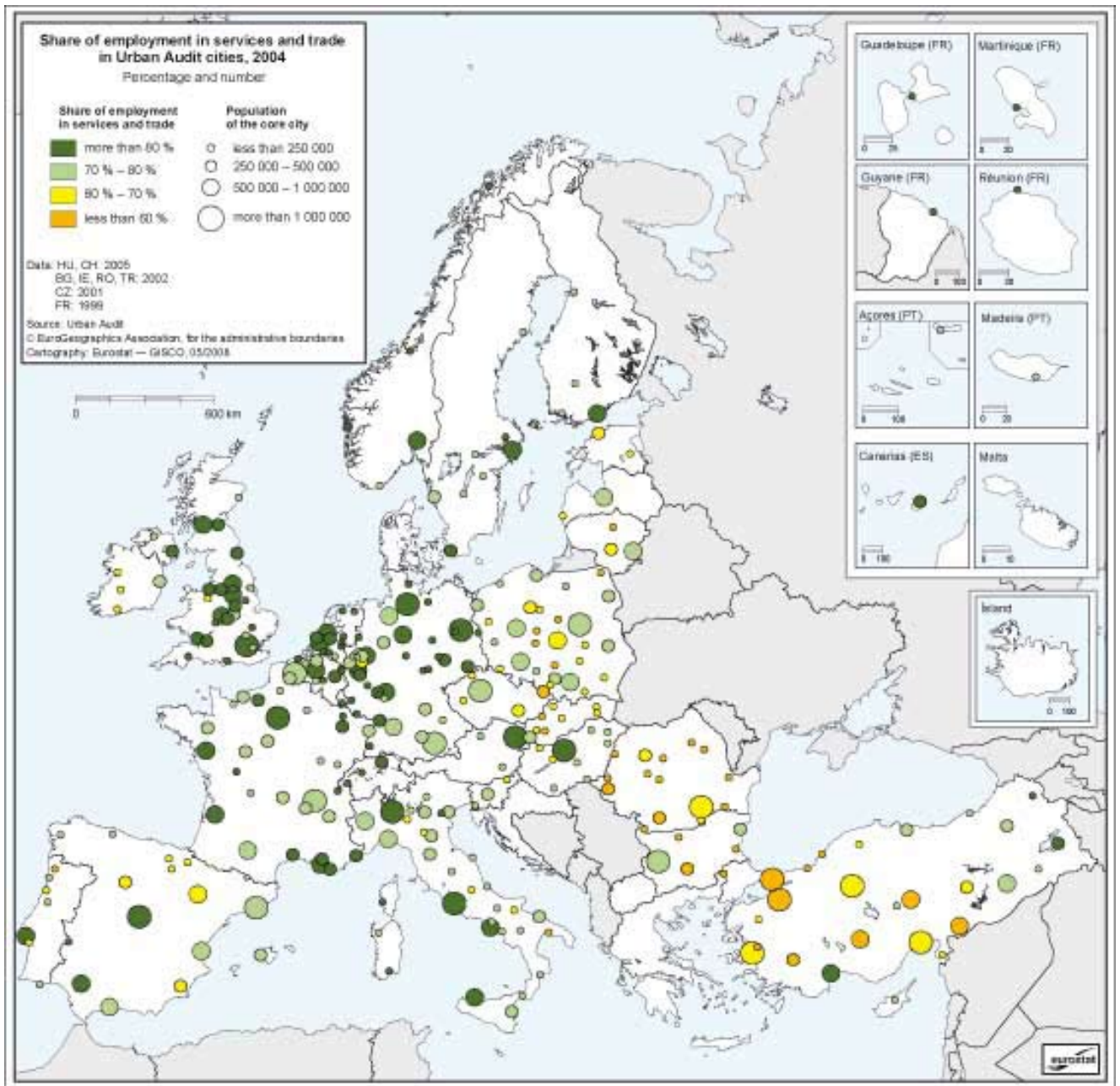
Figure 2.2: Proportion of population according to age groups in European capitals, 2004



Data: HU 2005; IE 2002; CY, FI, CZ, BG 2001; FR 1999; MT: data not available



Map 2.2: Share of employment in services and trade in Urban Audit cities, 2004
Percentage and number



administration. Cities where the share of employment in the service sector is 80 % or more are mostly located in north-western and northern Europe (see Map 2.2). Some cities of southern France, Spain and Italy where catering and the tourist trade are dominant also belong to this group. Cities with a high rate of employment in agriculture and industry are notably to be found in the two newest Member States and in Turkey. In 16 out of the 22 cities with more than 1 million inhabitants the share of employment in services is above 70 %, while among the cities with less than a 70 % share of employment in services seven out of 10 cities have less than 500 000 inhabitants. This is also highlighted on Map 2.2, where each circle represents one city: the size of the circle relates to the resident population of the city, and the colour of the circle shows the share of employment in services.

Whether cities are experiencing a 'brain drain' or a 'brain gain' depends among other things on their ability to attract students to their colleges and universities. Retaining university and college graduates in the city is the next step in establishing a highly skilled workforce. Map 2.3 shows the number of students in universities and other further education establishments per 1 000 resident population. The highest number of students in higher education per 1 000 resident population was registered in the world-famous Italian university town of Padova. Bologna, after which the process of creating the European Area of Higher Education was named, also ranked in the top 10. Cities where more than 150 students per 1 000 inhabitants are enrolled in higher education are widely spread all over Europe. However, in Poland a high concentration of such cities can be observed. Looking at the number of students relative to inhabitants means that large cities perform seemingly badly according to this indicator, although most of them host prestigious and large universities. Warszawa is the only city with more than 1 million inhabitants where the number of students is above 150 per 1 000 residents. Assessing the absolute number of students in colleges and universities could counterbalance this side-effect. These data series can also be consulted on the Urban Audit database available online.

Environmental factors, such as clean air, clear water and friendly weather, also influence the attractiveness of a city. Map 2.4 provides an overview of one of the basic indicators related to the environment: the average number of hours of sunshine per day. The patterns on the map clearly reflect the variety of climates we can experience throughout Europe. In general, northern and

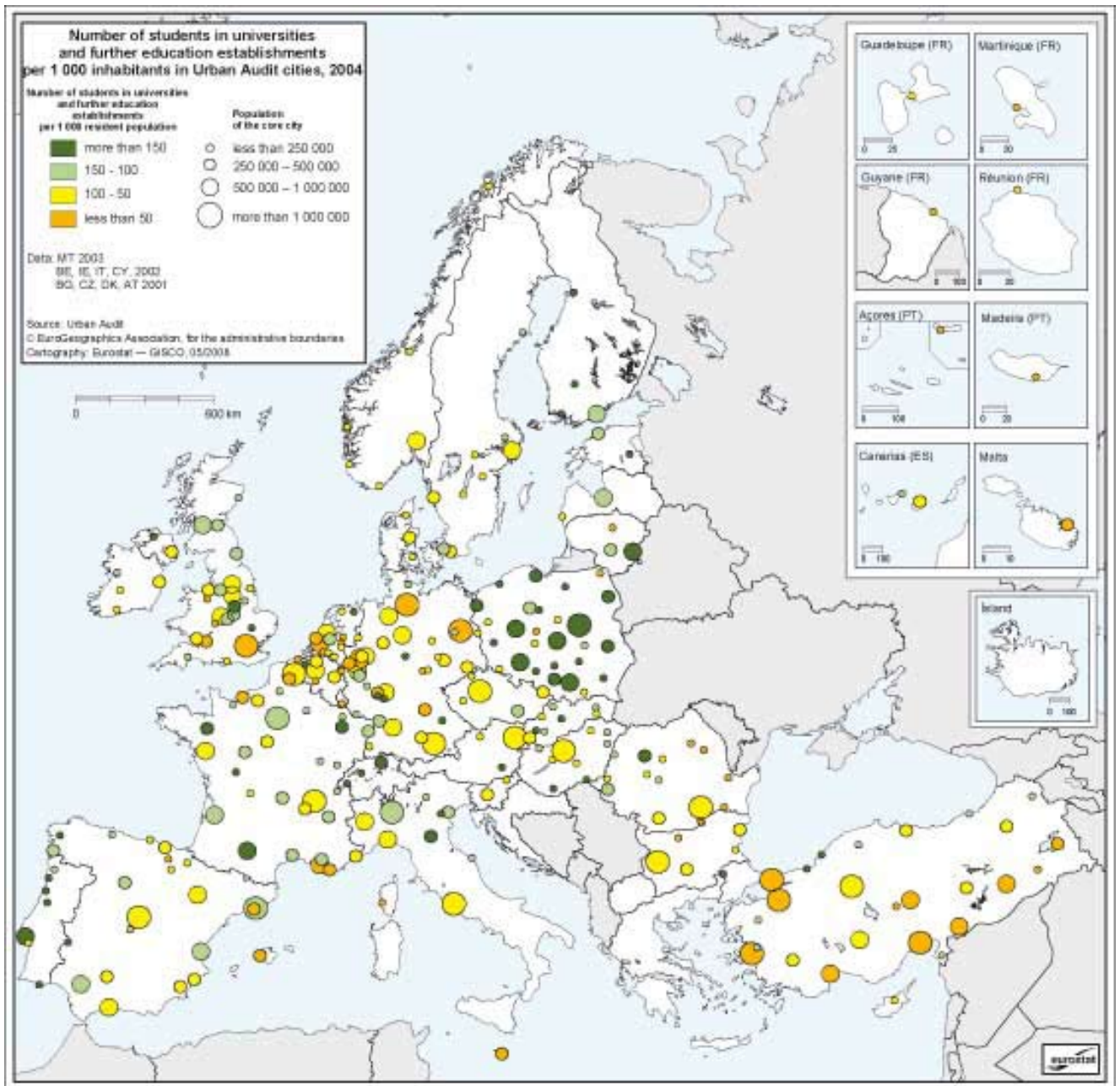
north-western Europe has less sunshine; the lowest daily averages were observed in the cities of the Ruhr area. Cities in southern Europe have more than 7.5 hours of sunshine daily. The largest disparities within a country are registered in Spain, between Bilbao and Málaga.

Besides the economic dimension, the importance of the social dimension of urban attractiveness has been coming to the fore recently. The image of a 'divided city' or an 'unsafe city' evidently has detrimental effects on the city's attractiveness. The image of a city has its roots in associations, memories and feelings linked to the city. Therefore, in addition to hard facts about social exclusion, disparities or crime, the perception of residents is crucial. To find out how citizens feel and think about their city we can turn to the results of the Urban Audit perception survey. The last survey took place in 2006 and included 75 major cities in the EU-27, Croatia and Turkey. Survey data were collected through telephone interviews of samples of 500 persons per city.

Figure 2.3 illustrates the responses to the questions in the public opinion survey on perception of safety in the city and in the neighbourhood. Respondents were asked if they always, sometimes, rarely or never feel safe in the city they live in. In Aalborg (DK), Oulu (FI), Oviedo (ES), Groningen (NL), København (DK), München (DE) and Helsinki (FI) less than 5 % of the respondents answered that they never or rarely feel safe in the city. Consequently, more than 95 % of the respondents always or most of the time feel safe in the city. Similarly favourable answers were registered in these cities to the question on feeling safe in the neighbourhood. These almost unanimous answers point to the fact that these cities are perceived as safe by the citizens. However, not all cities could be considered safe based on the responses. At the other end of the scale we find Istanbul (TR) and Napoli (IT). In these cities more than half of the respondents never or rarely feel safe in the city. In striking contrast to these negative results, remarkably few respondents, less than 15 %, stated in Istanbul that they never or rarely feel safe in the neighbourhood they live in. Large differences between the perceptions of safety in the city in general and in the specific neighbourhood where the respondents live were found in other cities as well, notably in Diyarbakir (TR), Marseille (FR), Antalya (TR) and Praha (CZ). In these cities the safety of the neighbourhood was rated more positively than the overall safety of the city. These discrepancies indicate the existence of social divisions within a city and the potential existence of 'crisis districts'.



Map 2.3: Number of students in universities and further education establishments per 1 000 inhabitants in Urban Audit cities, 2004





Map 2.4: Average number of hours of sunshine per day in Urban Audit cities, 2004

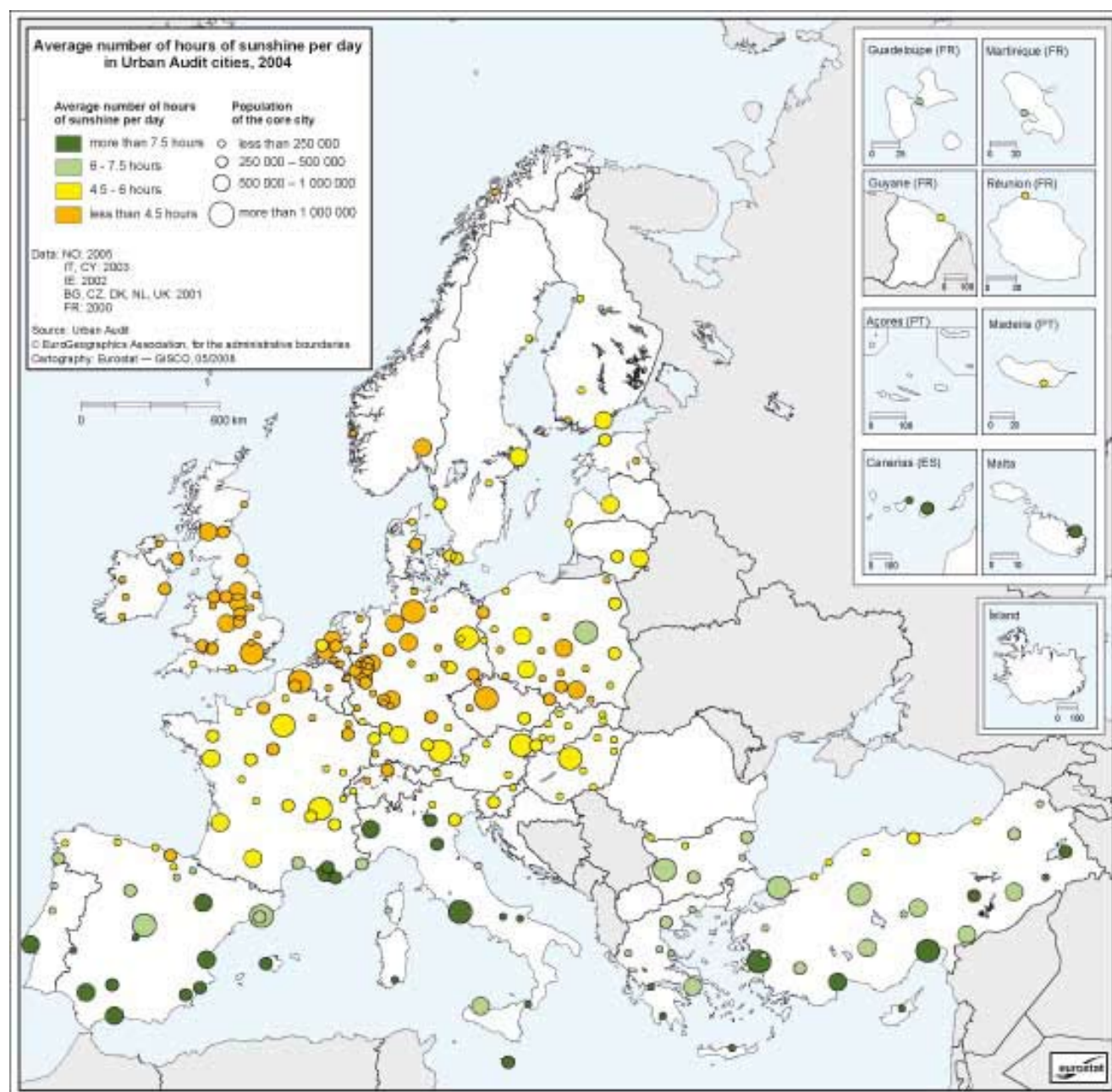
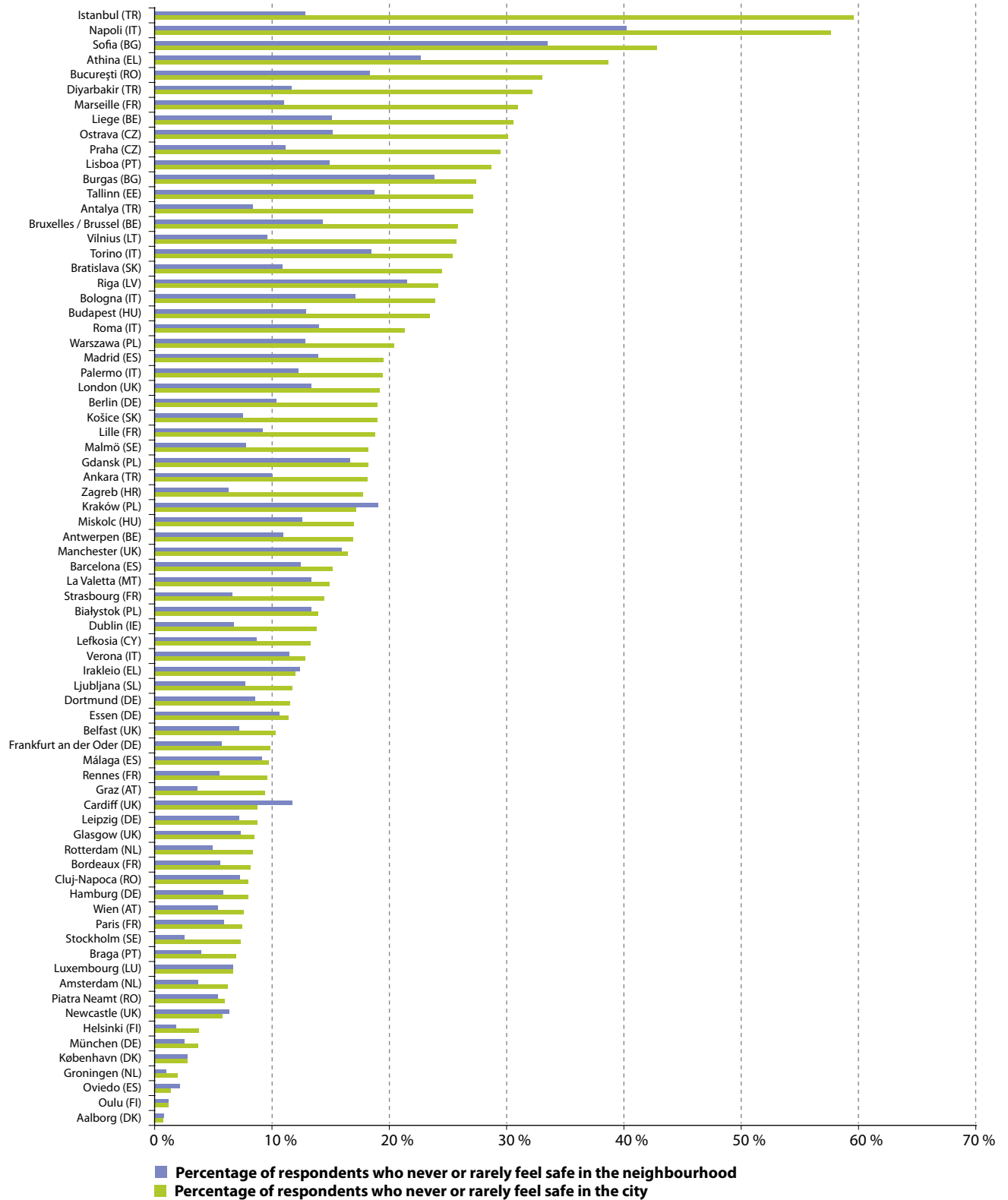




Figure 2.3: Perception of safety in selected Urban Audit cities, 2006
Percentage of respondents who never or rarely feel safe in the city or in the neighborhood they live in



Source: Urban Audit perception survey



Conclusion

What makes a city attractive? Residents are attracted to cities with a high quality of life, businesses are attracted to cities with a good skills base and infrastructure, students are attracted to cities with a good university or college, and tourists are attracted to cities with cultural values and mild

weather, etc. As a result, a city's attractiveness is determined by a number of factors. In the previous paragraphs we mentioned a few, such as demographic characteristics, economic structure, the environment and social aspects. However, several other elements could be analysed. We encourage readers to probe deeper into the Urban Audit database and discover which cities they find attractive.