D6.5 SEARCH DELIVERABLE

Final Policy Guide: Towards an Evidence-Based ENP

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Sharing KnowledgE Assets: InteRegionally Cohesive NeighBourhoods

Towards an Evidence-Based European Neighbourhood Policy

SEARCH Final Policy Guide

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www.ub.edu/searchproject
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Preface

The *Final Policy Guide* of the Sharing KnowledgE Assets: InteRegionallyCohesive NeighBourhoods – SEARCH – Project presents the main policy findings based on the research and evidence collected in the project and discussions at the Final Policy Conference. More than one hundred working papers, policy notes and policy briefs have been published based on the research carried out during the project.

This *Final Policy Guide* synthesises the policy findings reported in the working papers, policy notes and policy briefs produced by the work package leaders, Ron Boschma, Dimitris Kallioras, Raul Ramos, Raffaele Paci, Simona Iammarino, and the researchers on the project.

The *Final Policy Guide* complements the Final Academic Report of the project, which summarises the main research results. It is also constitutes the principle source for preparation of “How the European Neighbourhood Policy can strengthen integration between the European Union and Neighbourhood Countries: New Policy Directions”, which is the SEARCH Public Policy Report.

For more information about the SEARCH project, see webpage [www.ub.edu/searchproject](http://www.ub.edu/searchproject).
1. Executive Summary

The stunning turn of events in early 2014 transformed the status of a relatively benign Association Agreement between the EU and the Ukraine and has suddenly propelled the European Neighbourhood Policy (ENP) to the fore. This report draws from the SEARCH project’s impressive list of original research papers a series of policy inferences and findings that may help policy analysts and officials reorient the ENP more to the satisfaction of EU countries and their neighbouring countries.

Starting from the assumption that improvements to the ENP should be factually-based on the best available data, the project developed an evidence-based approach to policy findings. The many research groups and scholars involved provided key information about policy possibilities that was taken on board in the preparation of this document, as outlined in Section 2.

The main body of the text (sections 3-6) examines the policy content drawn from working research papers concerning: 1. Trade and Foreign Direct Investment, 2. Mobility and Migration, 3. Innovation and Knowledge Flows, and 4. Social Capital and Institutions. From approximately 100 research papers, plus a series of Policy Notes and Policy Briefs prepared by research authors, the team responsible for this Final Policy Report extracted and evaluated 77 distinct policy findings. The 77 were reviewed internally and externally at the Final Policy Conference in Istanbul (see Appendix IV).

Internal reviews also revealed a subset of 39 that team members considered the most relevant, provocative or important for further testing by advisory board members and external experts from the ENCs.

To understand the relevance of policy recommendations emerging from SEARCH, policy experts and officials were asked:

- How well does this proposed policy fit what you find on the ground in your region?
- How likely is this policy to benefit your region?
- How easy would the policy be to implement?

In total 12 trade policies, 11 migration policies, 7 technology policies and 9 institutional policies were scored.
Top Five most relevant policies

There is clearly a trade-off between the desirability of a proposed policy from the EU’s perspective and the difficulty of its implementation from the perspective of the Neighbourhood Countries. This Top Five emerges as being both desirable and relatively easy to implement.

1. **The EU should factor regional differences in the innovation capacity of Neighbourhood Countries into the formulation of its policies.**

The prospect of stronger cross-border knowledge flows is very important to Neighbourhood Countries. However, they face many difficulties in engaging and struggle to take full advantage of these potential benefits. Policies to promote knowledge flows and innovation need to be tailored in the light of these differences and difficulties.

   *While it is clear there is no one size fits all policy, the European Neighbourhood Countries can learn from each other. “That’s very important. You can look and see what policies were effective,” Iurii Bazhal, National University of Kyiv-Mohyla Academy and SEARCH Advisory Board member, speaking at the Final Policy Conference, Istanbul, 2 – 3 June 2014*

2. **The EU should make it more attractive for migrants to make remittances by reducing transfer fees and double taxation.**

This would be an easy win because SEARCH has shown remittances from migrants promote economic development and fund education in Neighbourhood Countries.

3. **The European Neighbourhood Policy should aim to encourage the development of improved infrastructure for making electronic money transfers.**

Making it easier to transfer money would further enhance and promote the positive effects of remittances.

   *The SEARCH Istanbul Conference took place in the wake of EU elections that saw far-right, anti-immigration and Eurosceptic parties increase their share of the vote and number of MEPs. This shift in sentiment should be taken into account in framing policy recommendations, said Torek Farhadi, Senior Advisor, Trade Finance for SMEs, International Trade Centre, who suggested immigration is “more digestible” if it linked to economic success.*

4. **Build channels for knowledge to diffuse within and between the European Neighbourhood Countries and the EU.**

SEARCH suggests two ways to do this, first promoting mutual understanding of different cultures and languages would reduce barriers to communication and make it easier for people to collaborate. This is an important means of extending the European Research Area to its European Research Neighbourhood as originally envisioned in the SEARCH project.
Second, by allowing students from the Neighbourhood Countries to study in the EU and be interns in EU companies, and encouraging EU students to go to Neighbourhood Countries to study and gain work experience.

“A central pre-condition for catching up in economic, social and political spheres is the acquisition and creation of knowledge and technology,” Stefano Usai, University of Cagliari, Italy and SEARCH researcher, speaking at the Final Policy Conference, Istanbul, 2 – 3 June 2014.

Mobility of students is already recognised as one of the key mechanisms of knowledge diffusion within the EU and is supported by a number of EU programmes. Extending this to the Neighbourhood Countries is a potent way to promote knowledge exchange and build social capital.

5. **Increase technical assistance and investments in Neighbourhood Countries to promote the development of an innovation-friendly environment**

The ambition of promoting overarching institutional reform has been undermined by experience and the turn of events. Instead, the European Neighbourhood Policy should home in on reforms that generate long-term improvements in the institutions that are required to underpin the formation and growth of companies.

“Turkey has gone to [a] mid-tech [economy] thanks to customs union [with the EU]. But to move from mid-tech to high-tech you need more - and deeper – engagement, in intellectual property rights, research partnerships, co-authorship, co-inventorship,” Ozan Ocar, the Economic Policy Research Foundation of Turkey, Final Policy Conference, Istanbul, 2 – 3 June.

These five final policy recommendations are endorsed by the SEARCH Advisory Board. Other policy recommendations from four areas of the European Neighbourhood Policy - and the research underpinning them - are discussed in the subsequent chapters of this report.
2. Project context and policy objectives

2.1 Project Overview

The European Union (EU) has progressively established partnership agreements to strengthen cooperation with its neighbouring countries. In 2004 the European Neighbourhood Policy (ENP) was established with the objective of avoiding the emergence of new frontier divisions between the enlarged EU and its immediate European Neighbourhood Countries (ENCs), while striving to bring peace, prosperity and stability to all. The partnership agreements have been difficult to negotiate in some cases due to internal opposition to expected Acquis reforms or because the value of integration diminished somewhat with the onset of the financial crisis. In extreme cases, some ENCs withdrew from partnership negotiations entirely, Ukraine most notably but temporarily, but also Armenia, in the face of measures taken by Russia to promote its own Neighbourhood Policy. This report attempts to document the principal factors affecting integration potential by conducting rigorous evidence-based research of underlying factors and presenting policy inferences worthy of further consideration.

The main objective of the SEARCH Project is to strengthen integration between the EU and the European Neighbourhood Policy Countries by focusing on the potential of the European Research Neighbourhood (ERN). The SEARCH Project analyses the impact of ENP on the integration of the EU and ENC in terms of their trade and capital flows, mobility and human capital, technological activities and innovation diffusion, and institutional environment. The aim is to facilitate a better understanding of the conditions characterising the institutional framework of the ENC and their economic interactions with the EU in relation to their peoples, capital, trade, knowledge and innovation. SEARCH seeks to enhance the implementation of the ENP on the understanding that “one-size-fits-all” policy recommendations are inappropriate given the bilateral nature of the EU-ENC country agreements.

The specific objectives are as follows:
- To provide a framework for a theoretical and empirical understanding of the relationships forged between the EU and the ENC.
- To undertake a theoretical and empirical study of the patterns of economic interaction between the EU and ENC and to estimate the sub-national (i.e., regional) impact of these interactions.
- To analyse the role of labour migration and its economic and social consequences (costs and benefits) both for the EU and its neighbouring regions.
- To investigate the extent to which the innovative performance of the regions (EU-27 and NC-16) depends on endogenous ability in knowledge creation or on the capacity to absorb, adopt and imitate other regions’ knowledge and innovations.
- To identify the impact of changes to the institutional structures of the ENC and regions on prospects for (a) improved economic development and social cohesion, and (b) for stronger integration with the EU and, in particular, with the New Member States (NMS).
- To extract country-specific policy guidelines for policymakers in the EU and the ENC to support the development of higher levels of economic integration for the enhanced growth, competitiveness and cohesion of the two areas.
- To disseminate the research findings to both policymakers and academic researchers at European, national and regional levels, in order to improve both future neighbourhood policy making and future academic research in the area.
The SEARCH Project is organised in eight work packages. The first six involve research and policy issues and their objectives are listed below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>WP</th>
<th>Objectives</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>WP1</td>
<td><strong>BACKGROUND ENP: PAST, PRESENT AND FUTURE</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>To provide a framework for the theoretical, empirical and policy analyses of work packages WP2-WP6, establishing a foundation for relationships between the EU and the ENCs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WP2</td>
<td><strong>TRADE FLOWS AND LOCALISATION CHOICES</strong></td>
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<td></td>
<td>To undertake a theoretical and empirical study of the patterns of economic interaction between the EU and the ENCs, to project future trends and to identify the effects of higher levels of economic integration on the growth, competitiveness and cohesion prospects of the two areas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WP3</td>
<td><strong>PEOPLE MOBILITY AND HUMAN CAPITAL</strong></td>
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<td>To analyse the current and potential future role of labour migration and its economic and social consequences (costs and benefits) both for destination (EU regions) and origin regions (ENCs). Particular attention to be given to the role of intangible assets, including human capital, entrepreneurship and technology diffusion.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WP4</td>
<td><strong>TECHNOLOGICAL ACTIVITIES AND INNOVATION DIFFUSION IN THE EU AND INTERACTIONS WITH NEIGHBOURING REGIONS</strong></td>
</tr>
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<td>To investigate the innovative performance of the regions (EU-27 and NC-16) to determine the extent to which this performance depends on the endogenous ability for knowledge creation, on the one hand, and on the absorptive capacity of regions to adopt and imitate, on the other.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WP5</td>
<td><strong>INSTITUTIONAL ENVIRONMENT</strong></td>
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<td>To investigate the current status of the social, cultural and institutional environment in the ENCs and regions; to identify the impact of current changes on prospects for improved economic development, social cohesion, and stronger integration with the EU area.</td>
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<tr>
<td>WP6</td>
<td><strong>POLICY ISSUES AND RESEARCH IMPLICATIONS: TOWARD AN INTEGRATED ERN POLICY POSTURE</strong></td>
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<td></td>
<td>To identify and analyse policy recommendations with the objective of contributing to evidence-based policy making and integrated European Research Neighbourhood polices.</td>
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More specifically, the objectives of WP1 are: a) to review the literature examining the economic and social consequences of the most recent EU enlargement and the ENP with regard to the following issues: socio-economic cohesion and regional disparities, intensities of economic interactions including trade linkages, labour migration, capital flows, knowledge flows and research collaboration; b) to review the ENP framework and its historical development in order to provide reliable background information for the other work packages; c) to develop a conceptual framework for the assessment of the impact of differentiated/incomplete integration on both new member states (NMS) and the ENCs, with special reference to the sub-national level of regions (Neighbouring Regions both inside and outside the EU); d) to provide guidelines for the whole project regarding possible focus countries for the undertaking of in-depth surveys and qualitative research.

The specific objectives of WP2 are: a) the analysis of trade patterns between the EU and its neighbouring countries and the potential impact of these on growth, structural change and
cohesion in both areas; b) the analysis of the locational choices of EU mobile investment, the
direction and drivers of capital mobility and their impact on the EU new member states and
neighbouring countries; c) the assessment of the efforts being made by domestic and foreign
firms to invest in technological and organisational capacities with a particular focus on the impact
of localised institutional environments; d) the analysis of the intra-country spatial effects of
higher levels of trade and investment interaction in both the EU and its neighbouring countries;
and e) the discussion of the policy options at the EU level that take into consideration the effects
of integration and attempt to increase and spread its benefits on both sides of the EU’s external
borders.

The specific objectives of WP3 are: a) to develop migration flow scenarios between the EU and
ENC regions paying attention to two main concerns: specific migration legislation and policies
applied in the EU and patterns of international specialisation in the regions of the EU; b) to
analyse the spatial differences in the returns to human capital as a potential explanatory factor of
worker mobility from and to the neighbouring countries and the difficulties encountered when
seeking to integrate in host labour markets; c) to explore the factors that account for the variation
in remittance flows and to determine whether remittances actually contribute to human capital
formation in neighbouring countries; d) to explore how schooling and work experience acquired
by immigrants in host countries can affect economic growth at points of origin; e) to analyse the
influence of migration flows and attitudes towards ethnic diversity on social capital formation
and, hence, on the economic growth of the EU’s regions; f) to provide policy suggestions, both
for public and private institutions at European, national and regional levels, concerning the
impact of migration flows on human and social capital and, consequently, on the economic
outcomes of both receiving and sending regions.

WP4 specifically examines a) the way in which internal and external factors (including, human
capital, social capital, institutions, public policies, spatial spillovers) impact innovation activities
and, consequently, regional economic performances. b) Moreover, it examines the process of
innovation diffusion and research networking so as to determine the extent to which the EU and
ENCs have succeeded in establishing valuable collaboration procedures. Throughout the analysis,
specific attention is devoted to the economic dynamics of the countries (and regions) that have
recently acceded to the EU (EU-12), the aim of learning more about the evolution that the
neighbouring countries might undergo in the near future as a result of the reinforcement of the
integration process. c) Useful policy recommendations are derived from all the preceding
research activities at both the European and the ENP country levels.

WP5 turns its attention to the following critical factors: a) the specific features of social capital in
the ENC region; b) the impact of cultural diversity and individual values on innovation; and c)
the relationship between the institutional environment and upgrading dynamics at system,
industry, firm and individual levels. For further details about the research undertaken within the
SEARCH Framework Programme Project, consult www.ub.edu/searchproject.

Finally, the goal of WP6 and this Final Policy Guide is to present an overview of potential EU
policy inferences and options for strengthening cohesion across the EU-27 and NC-16 in the mid-
to long-term, with a particular emphasis on the ENCs.
2.2 Evidence-based policy for the European Neighbourhood

The SEARCH project is explicitly focused on enlarging our understanding of what it is possible to expand or improve within the framework of the European Neighbourhood Policy (ENP). It is therefore important to stress the sometimes unclear but essential relationships between the evidence and findings that result from well-organised scientific investigations and how to report their implications for maximum policy impact. Researchers were encouraged to select research methodologies and data sources from suitable “hierarchies of evidence” to permit the preparation of reliable evidence-based policies. A template was provided for the inclusion of “Policy Notes” in all study documents prepared by researchers whose project task findings may have implications for ENP.

The SEARCH Project has taken the documentation and reporting of policies drawn from relevant research seriously, as this was an important selection criterion and EC expectations have risen. The reporting guidelines apply to all research findings from the SEARCH project that could have policy relevance. While WP6 had the principal responsibility for preparing an overall Final Policy Report, this task depended wholly on the timely and accurate reporting of the policy research findings from WP2-WP5. Materials intended to guide the reporting, collecting and review of policy evidence were provided to researchers by WP6 at several stages of the project. Recent political developments in the European Neighbourhood Countries (ENCs) place even greater importance on reporting fully the policy implications of our investigations. The purpose of these guidelines was to provide reporting templates both early enough in the project, and simple enough, to reduce the burden of collecting important policy-relevant details.

Some of these details are to be included and expanded upon in the Policy Briefs prepared by each work package team. The EC guidelines for Policy Briefs\(^1\) have recently been revised, including many useful suggestions, further references and examples worthy of consideration. However, previous project experience demonstrated the importance of timely policy-relevant research details collected from quite numerous, distant and frequently geographically dispersed team members to support the preparation of Policy Briefs. It was therefore important that Policy Note guidelines be applied by individual teams or members who prepare individual working papers, interim reports and other deliverables in which policy-relevant findings are documented. The guidelines in Appendix I resulted in a 2-3 page Policy Notes addendum that accompanied each SEARCH working paper, interim report or other deliverable at the date of submission.

2.3 Measures taken to stimulate policy-orientation in SEARCH

Templates for the Policy Notes (PNs) were developed as part of WP6 activities and discussed at SEARCH project meetings to clarify what exactly is to be included and why. The PNs were to be submitted contemporaneously with the scientific working paper to ensure timely compliance and to keep the policy focus fully in mind during working paper preparation. Approximately half the PNs completed—drawn principally from the early reporting work packages—were then

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\(^1\) Policy Briefs are obligatory deliverables, which are to be prepared by WP2-5 and those major SEARCH working papers or reports designated by the coordinator. It is expected that each of the substantive WPs will select and prepare 4-5 Policy Briefs. The selection should be announced as early as feasible to the WP6 coordinator. Its template is so designed that information from Policy Notes may be directly embedded in the Policy Brief document, which means some of the reporting is already available. European Commission. 2010. Communicating research for evidence-based policymaking. ftp://ftp.cordis.europa.eu/pub/fp7/ssh/docs/guide-communicating-research_en.pdf
evaluated by WP6 staff for completeness in reporting and scored on a spreadsheet that was returned to authors. The overall problems found during this interim evaluation were summarised and highlighted for presentation at the following SEARCH meeting to inform others of where special attention might be needed.

Policy Briefs (PBs) were similarly stressed, building upon EC guidelines and templates, but also including additional guidance suited to the specific orientation of the overall SEARCH project (Appendix I). Three early PBs were carefully evaluated for completeness and coverage of relevant requirements. These evaluations were distributed to all work package coordinators to guide their efforts in preparing and revising PBs.

For both Policy Notes and Policy Briefs, considerable effort was spent communicating with authors and coordinators to ensure that everyone understood the importance of extracting sound policy inferences from the basic research. The policy staff also attended every scheduled SEARCH meeting, commented about policy inferences at presentations of SEARCH findings, and kept the entire project appraised of how such inferences would be assembled and distilled in intermediate and final policy documents.

Did this persistence pay off? The ultimate proof of effort will be the effective use of this Guide by policy-making staff, executives and elected officials in the future. A more modest but immediate view can be found by examining the language found in the research documents produced by the SEARCH project as compared with the most-cited published articles on the same general topics. Emerging methods of text-mining permit us to examine the frequency with which key “content” words (this requires omitting many repetitive document headings or parts of speech, e.g. prepositions, articles, etc.) appear in texts. We rely on standard text preparation procedures and Nvivo software to detect in SEARCH work package (WP) papers concerning trade and migration how frequently the term “policy/policies” was used. This frequency was then compared with the same term in the same fields of published literature. We are reasonably certain this procedure is sound, as the first five words for each pair of migration (WP2 and most cited) and trade (WP3 and most cited) word frequency files are virtually identical. The SEARCH orientation to Europe and its neighbours at national and regional levels is also clear, as the WP papers show much higher frequencies for “European” than “American” than in published literature, while the terms urban and regional also appear more frequently in WP papers.

Assuming our focus has increased SEARCH scholars’ attention to the need to address policy in the design and discussion in their papers, we should find a higher frequency of mentions for “policy”, and we do. Policy as a specific term appears in the SEARCH working papers on migration at the 37th frequency rank, but at the 196th frequency rank in the most highly cited published articles. The difference in frequency rank for trade articles is much smaller (23rd vs. 26th ranks), perhaps due to policy being a very common objective of much trade research. Clearly, the research in this project appears to have taken its policy focus seriously.

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2 SEARCH project members were extremely cooperative in supplying the necessary Policy Notes and Policy Briefs, which greatly aided the production of this Guide.

3 Details of the procedure and tabular results are available in Appendix II “Text acquisition and analysis”
3. Trade and Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) Policies

3.1 Introduction
The recent EU enlargements of 2004, 2007 and 2013 moved the borders to a new set of countries in the East, which historically had less-intensive economic relations with the EU. These countries were part of the former Soviet Union and are characterised by lower development levels and significant institutional and structural differences. At the same time, in the Southern and the Eastern rim of the Mediterranean Sea, the EU borders countries are linked to individual EU member states through their colonial pasts.

Both bordering areas, in the EU East and the EU South, have been gaining in significance in trade, as they include emerging economies, energy suppliers, and large domestic markets, all of which are important to the EU economy. In recognition of this, in 2004 the EU launched the European Neighbourhood Policy (ENP), to extend the benefits of the EU to neighbouring countries, thus increasing stability, security and well-being, and creating a “ring of friends” around the EU’s political borders.

Following suspension of the Doha Development Round of the World Trade Organization, the European Commission began to pursue Free Trade Agreements (FTAs) that reduced tariffs on trade and restrictions on investment for certain economies, as a means of protecting markets and enhancing competitiveness. The FTAs were an initial step along a longer path to Deep and Comprehensive Free Trade Agreements (DCFTAs) with neighbouring countries, going beyond tariff reductions to cover regulatory issues such as investment protection, public procurement and competition policy. DCFTAs were intended as the EU’s ultimate recognition and acknowledgement of democratic and economic reforms by ENCs, including improved border security, prevention of illegal migration, reduced corruption and ensuring the rule of law. The ENP is based on a prevailing assumption that ENCs are essentially willing and able to conduct ‘Acquis’-based reforms as the pre-condition for a DCFTA.
The SEARCH project involved multiple avenues of research, resulting in more than 20 working papers, policy notes and policy briefs covering a broad range of trade and FDI policies. We summarise here the most significant findings and policy recommendations from this extensive body of research around the following themes: a) Value of trade incentives to ENCs, b) ENC growth and development potential from trade, and c) FDI and trade.

3.2 Value of trade incentives to European Neighbourhood Countries (ENCs)
To understand the value of trade incentives, we first need to know how important trade between the EU and ENCs is from the perspective of each group of countries. As things stand, with the exception of energy exports, ENCs are relatively unimportant trading partners for the EU core countries, while the EU is among the leading trade partners for ENCs. It is intended that this imbalance reduces over time, as various ENP agreements reach fruition and as EU trade grows. However, empirical evidence shows the growth of exports and imports between the EU27 and ENCs remained flat throughout the four years before and the six years after the ENP was established. Growth of ENC trade rose in that period only with the nearby EU12, the five major emerging economies of Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa (BRICS), and somewhat more with the USA and the rest of world. Even though an EU15 country is the most important trading partner for ENCs, based on research evidence (Petrakos et al., 2013; Kallioras and Pinna, 2013), ENC incentives to increase trade with the EU core appear relatively ineffective, thereby slowing or even potentially halting the willing uptake of ‘Acquis’-based reforms by ENCs.

It is possible that the lag in growth of trade with the EU27 may be due to the fact the ENC countries need to satisfy the EU’s conditions before an agreement is reached, combined with delayed, back-loaded benefits of EU trade concessions. The absence of trade growth with the EU27 perhaps reflects an unfortunate fact: ENCs may well conclude that trading elsewhere without conditions is preferable to trading with the EU. At the very least, the EU should consider how best to more finely calibrate its conditions and trade concessions to meet the highly specific domestic and trade circumstances faced by bi-lateral partners. Recent events in Armenia and Ukraine reinforce the importance of such considerations.

There are, however, further relevant findings. Since growth of trade with BRICS and the EU12 was positive during this period, we know ENCs have begun to fulfil their trade growth potential. Digging somewhat deeper into the trade geography, we can examine the best export market for ENCs in 1995 and 2010. The EU was the top market for eight of 16 ENCs in 1995, which then dropped to four ENCs by 2010. At the same time, Russia rose from the best export market for only one ENC, to the best market for four ENCs. The same trend applies to imports, with imports from EU countries falling even faster (Pinna et al., 2013).

All other things being equal, cross-border and regional trade is more likely to involve partners of similar levels of development, allowing for a more balanced and symmetrical interaction. It has been suggested that asymmetry in the geographic direction of trade may pose a barrier to growth for transition economies; with the evidence indicating ENCs are best able to use their limited comparative advantages when trading with less advanced or less-sophisticated partners. EU trade policies, incentives and supporting programmes should focus ENC trade access and opportunities towards the short term for recent EU accession countries rather than with the core EU15, to maximise the potential of trade as an incentive for reform, which is a cornerstone of the existing
ENP approach. As ENC trade diversifies over time in terms of product mix and quality, ample opportunities for expanded EU15 trade will arise, which might be less likely to arise when trading with Russia or other BRICS partners (Pinna, 2013).

[Policy inference 1.1: When setting conditions and trade concessions for its least able ENC trade partners, the EU should consider their specific domestic and trade circumstances.]4

3.3 ENC growth and development potential from trade

3.3.1 Growth potential from trade
Exports and imports to/from the EU are shown by the SEARCH project’s findings to contribute to growth of gross domestic product (GDP) in ENCs, thereby highlighting the genuine value of trade as a carrot to stimulate ENC reforms. These results are, however, strictly conditional: the analysis further reveals that trade expansion with the EU contributes to ENC growth when this trade is mainly with the EU’s middle- and low-income members, specifically the Southern and the Central-Eastern members. On the other hand, when trade as a share of GDP with high income EU member states increases, the impact of trade on ENC growth of GDP turns negative (Anagnostou et al., 2013).

[Policy inference 1.2: EU trade policies should focus ENC trade on recent EU accession countries rather than on the core EU15 countries.]

A different but complementary analysis using gravity equations finds distance to be inversely related to trade flows, which is further evidence of the fact that ENCs trade more with their nearest than their more distant core EU neighbours (Kallioras and Petrakos, 2013). These results also mirror the finding above that ENC’s trade grew with the EU accession countries but not the EU core countries during the last decade. However, it is important to repeat the essential point that trade with low-medium income, nearby and EU accession countries helps contribute to growth of GDP, rather than to its decline. The EU should openly promote the value of ENC trade with its newest members as an ENC growth stimulant and support such trade with a well-calibrated portfolio of supplementary European Neighbourhood and Partnership Instrument (ENPI) measures designed to accelerate growth in both trading regions.

[Policy inference 1.3: The EU should support ENC trade with the newest EU members with carefully designed ENPI measures that promote growth in both trading regions.]

3.3.2 Development diversification potential from trade
Export diversification is variously defined a change in the composition of a country’s existing export product mix or export destination, or as the spread of production over many sectors. There are well known risks in concentrating exports in a few primary commodities: such concentration exposes a country to the negative effects of fluctuations in world demand and to the negative supply-side features of these primary products. In terms of exports, in 2010 the vast majority of the ENCs had higher levels of concentration either in the EU market or the BRICS market,

4 The Policy Inferences marked in bold-face fonts have been tested in survey questions posed to regional policy experts in the ENCs for their benefit, fit and ease of implementation in the respective countries and regions.
compared to the world market. The same applies to imports, although imports are more diversified than exports in all markets under consideration.

The risk that ENC economies and exports would be locked-in to their present export specialisations might arise as a consequence of two distinct types of trade: trading non-fossil fuel commodities with similar partners (similar partner specialisations reduce opportunities for diversification), and trade with European partners (well-advanced specialisations inapplicable to diversification) by ENC carbon exporters. Either way, an ENC economy will have difficulty restructuring its production system, expanding its comparative advantages and diversifying its export mix.

Recent developments in the international trade literature show the current production structure of a country is affected by its past production structure, through a path-dependent process governed by the relatedness of products. Relatedness matters because jumping into new products is far from easy and straightforward, and relatedness requires the further application of specific capabilities. Capabilities are not easily transferred across countries: if a country lacks the capabilities needed to produce a new good, it can be very difficult to start producing it. We see the path-dependent process of product diversification as driven not only by each country’s past production structure, but also by its trade relationships with other countries. Jumping into new products because of these relationships might (or not) be feasible, depending on the strength of economic incentives or of learning opportunities (which will be fewer with similar trading partners).

Some capabilities are important only for specific products or groups of products (e.g. specific technological knowledge, such as fuel extraction). There are also general-purpose capabilities that are relevant and adaptable to all products. ENCs are more typically characterised by weaker general-purpose capabilities and need to rely much more on the existing links between products requiring related specific capabilities in order to jump into new, diversified industries. Specific-purpose technologies make it very difficult for ENCs to launch new industries that require capabilities they do not presently possess.

In the case of ENCs, we find product relatedness has a strong effect, both in keeping a comparative advantage in old products and in diversifying into new products. Policy aimed at improving and speeding up the diversification process in the short term should focus on favouring the development of closely-related sectors that benefit from present capabilities. Directly favouring the creation of unrelated industries might result in severe failures, since the lack of necessary supporting infrastructure and institutions may doom these initiatives. However, together with these interventions focused on closely related industries, policy makers should consider increasing existing technical assistance and diversifying investment with the aim of promoting long-term improvements in the quality of supporting institutions in ENCs. Creating a favourable environment where firms can emerge and grow more easily, and where returns from innovation can be appropriated by local companies and new innovators, might provide stronger incentives and opportunities for diversification even in very remotely related products, and therefore boost future growth. (Boschma and Capone, 2013).
[Policy inference 1.4: Policy aimed at improving and speeding up the industrial diversification process in the short term should focus on favouring ENC sectors most similar to ENC exports.]

[Policy inference 1.5: EU policy-makers should consider increasing technical assistance and investments to ENCs for long-term improvements in the quality of institutions that support firm emergence and firm growth.]

Imports provide powerful incentives for both the EU and ENCs to maintain production in old sectors where they already enjoy comparative advantage, but learning effects from imports appear to arise only in EU countries. The availability of a wide variety of inputs, or of higher quality products in the ENCs, does not stimulate the diversification they need, perhaps because of the lack of suitable institutions and capabilities, and also because of a lack of demand. Therefore, policy aimed at improving institutions might also be very useful in this respect. However, more specific policies might be designed to promote trade flow parity as a whole in ENCs: sectors that are open to international imports should also be opened very soon to opportunities for exports, to support diversification and growth in ENCs.

[Policy inference 1.6: Specific EU policies should be designed to promote trade flow balance as a whole in ENCs by reducing trade restrictions in all EU and ENCs.]

3.4 FDI

3.4.1 FDI potential
Firms may perform international operations including export and import trade, foreign direct investments, international outsourcing, in which international market activities lie at the core of their competitiveness. It is clearly recognised in the literature that the firm’s perspective is the most relevant basis on which to formulate policies to better support national export capability, and therefore growth. EU firms may engage in trade, or not, and engage in other international transactions such as foreign direct investments, contracts and arm’s length agreements that allow firms to reduce their production costs, to improve their technologies (reducing the gap with leading firms) and to increase their sales. Firms usually internationalise their production activity in three different ways: a) importing inputs and components for use in domestic production; b) the international outsourcing of goods and services (IO), by creating arm’s length agreements with companies in foreign markets; or c) increasing productivity through foreign direct investment (FDI).

Drawing on data relating to about 15,000 firms in six long-term member states (Austria, France, Germany, Italy, Spain, and UK) and from a newer member state (Hungary), we find about 70% of these firms are exporters, but less than 6% have the ENC as the main export destination (first, second or third export partner) and just 2% consider an ENC as its first export target market. While the vast majority of firms export abroad, far fewer firms decide to combine this with internationalisation of production. There appear to be no significant differences between exporters in general and firms which choose to export mainly to the ENCs. Nor does FDI as a percent of turnover – about 27%—differ between firms that export primarily to ENCs and firms exporting elsewhere. The old core of Europe still remains the main location where European
firms prefer to carry out foreign production activities (Pinna, 2013). However, this finding is in fact quite encouraging: ENCs already receive levels of FDI entirely comparable with EU FDI, even though ENCs presently lack many of the protections and supports that are offered by EU countries and sought by their firms. Expanding FDI clearly depends upon ENCs pursuing the very ‘Acquis’-based reforms some have resisted, to stimulate trade; the added FDI incentives may then improve the willingness to comply with ‘Acquis’-based reforms. Based on these findings, the EU is advised to continue active promotion of reforms in ENC negotiations with the full expectation that expanded FDI, trade and other forms of internationalisation by EU firms is likely to follow.

[Policy inference 1.7: The EU is advised to continue promoting ENC reforms with the full expectation that FDI and internationalisation by EU firms will follow.]

3.4.2 ‘Acquis’-based reform potential
A related study examined empirically the relationship between the quality of economic governance in recipient countries and the location of FDI by Multinational Enterprises (MNEs) from EU-15 countries in a wide set of destination countries, including EU new member states, accession and candidate countries, ENCs, and the Russian Federation. Particular attention was devoted to studying the role of the quality of recipient countries’ economic governance framework in driving MNEs’ inward investment decisions.

Economic institutions and governance are drivers of MNEs’ location choices, but not all aspects of a host country’s environment matter to the same degree. Government expenditure, property rights and the legal system positively influence investment decisions, while monetary policy and market regulations do not seem to be relevant drivers. In negotiations with ENCs, the EU is therefore advised initially to stress the need for effective reforms relating to government expenditure, property rights and the legal system, as those most important to FDI, while temporising on changes to monetary policy and market regulation.

[Policy inference 1.8: Reforms to government expenditure, property rights, and the legal system should be a priority for EU policies to promote Foreign Direct Investment in European Neighbouring Countries.]

It was also noted that MNEs do not all attach the same relevance to the quality of economic institutions and governance: about one-third of MNEs from EU-15 invested in destinations where these are weaker, while two-thirds of investment goes where institutions are of higher quality. MNEs investing in countries with poor institutional practices may appear to be counterintuitive, but there could be situations in which companies believe they can capture advantage from these weaknesses. Such institutional subversion is a particularly well-documented phenomenon in the case of transition economies, where political and economic elites maintain advantage over the rest of the population. It is then possible that some MNEs are drawn towards locations where they can establish influential connections with these elites, which in turn allow them to take advantage of poor governance by obtaining low rents or circumventing market rules.

Even so, it must be borne in mind that most MNEs prefer locations where economic institutions are strong. Furthermore, foreign investment attracted by institutional weakness is far more likely
to benefit local elites than the economy as a whole. Therefore, in terms of policy implications, focused and continuing efforts should be made to establish and reinforce strong governance and institutions in ENCs. This is not only relevant to attracting global capital but it is also fundamental to stimulate domestic economies. Indeed, improving economic institutions is very likely to be seen as a positive signal by foreign investors overall (Ascani et al., 2013).

[Policy inference 1.9: Focused and continuing efforts should be made to establish and reinforce strong institutional settings of European neighbouring countries.]

3.4.3 Benefit potential of FDI seen broadly
The benefits of FDI are sometimes taken for granted. However, there is often little reliable empirical evidence to support the common claim of economic gains from capital investments in the ENCs and other transition countries. Nor is there evidence of the size of the (presumed positive) spillovers of European FDI vis-à-vis foreign investments originating from other parts of the world. Thus, it is not known whether the preferential relations offered by EU’s European Neighbourhood Policy and related bilateral agreements, and the intensification of economic interactions – including capital flows – that these facilitate, are in fact beneficial for the countries of the region.

The relevant literature has shown that at the national level these spillovers are by and large positive, raising the productivity of domestic firms (albeit often conditional on a range of factors, such as firm sizes, domestic technology and institutions, etc.) and thus of the economy as a whole. But studies for other parts of the world have shown these positive effects often favour the most advanced regions. As a result, FDI can often contribute to a widening of regional disparities in recipient countries. In the ENP context, where spatial asymmetries are often acute and geographical disparities already large, this effect may be particularly difficult to redress.

From the EU side, the ENP provides an institutional framework of association (including preferential trade agreements) which, arguably, gives EU firms a relative advantage, at least in the sense of reducing entry costs and uncertainties such as information asymmetries and legal barriers. If, as is believed to have happened in the new EU member-states, the framework of association promotes less speculative and more long-term strategic investments, then investments originating in the EU are likely to be more organically linked to the local economies of the host countries, thus, possibly, generating larger spillovers for domestic firms.

The evidence shows FDI originating in the EU to have a ‘productivity advantage’ over investments from other parts of the world, in the sense that it tends to generate greater productivity spillovers for domestic firms. It thus seems that the process of association with these regions, which gives a preferential access to European firms in their markets, does not carry a ‘hidden’ or indirect penalty for ENC firms. Equally interesting, FDI spillovers have not reached their maximum value in the ENC region. In South Eastern Europe, where the involvement of the EU is magnified, such spillovers are very positive and strong, despite the fact that recipient countries in the region share similar initial problems of institutional quality and absorptive capacity with many of the ENP countries. This suggests that further intensification of economic links and capital flows are likely to be increasingly beneficial.
Together with findings of section 1.4.1 above, the overall potential gains to ENCs of EU association are substantially larger than experienced thus far, which may lead ENCs to conclude that benefits to date were not worth the pain of attempting reforms. Future productivity benefits and growth potential from EU-based FDI should be stressed in promotional materials and discussions between EU and ENC negotiators.

3.4.4 Spatial development potential of FDI
The economic growth of ENCs tends to be driven by the performance of a limited number of local economies within nation-states, particularly those most engaged in international trade. These are most frequently urban areas where economic growth concentrates. Indeed, most industrial production, skilled labour and higher paid jobs tend to agglomerate in cities, where geographical proximity promotes ease of communication and creates an environment which favours frequent interactions and the flow of ideas. In turn, this agglomeration limits the diffusion of knowledge beyond the boundaries of economic concentrations.

Accordingly, economic development is ultimately spurred at the local level where knowledge spillover is generated. As a matter of fact, while codified knowledge becomes largely available and accessible as a result of improvements in communication technologies, the tacit knowledge necessary to apply this codified knowledge to new development remains localised, requiring spatial proximity to be transmitted, absorbed and successfully applied.

[Policy inference 1.10: Research findings that demonstrate strong prospects for future growth from EU-based FDI should be included in relevant materials and discussions between EU and ENC negotiators.]

Although the productivity spillovers discussed in 1.4.3 above, are not particularly localised, they tend to be significantly stronger and more positive for firms located in the capital city regions of the recipient countries. As FDI tends to concentrate in these regions anyway, it follows that it acts to amplify regional disparities within countries. European FDI appears to have the strongest contribution to this adverse geographical effect. This risk of such disparities gives EU policy – and ENP in particular – an increased responsibility to implement and support action to reduce spatial disparities and asymmetries in the countries of the EU neighbourhood (Monastriotis and Borrell, 2013).

3.4.5 Spatial development potential of FDI: the case of Ukraine
Based on empirical data collected in our SEARCH enterprise survey of 153 foreign firms in three district regions of the Ukraine in 2012, further insights about regional effects of FDI are presented. The data contains information on location choice of MNCs, assessment of institutional quality, and embeddedness within the regional economy. Investors in search of markets are most likely to invest in the capital region Kyiv, rather than in the bordering regions Lviv and Kharkiv, due to Kyiv’s large market potential, better access to resources, and the higher quality of institutions in the capital. The border region Lviv, enjoys the advantage of being close to the EU border, and with its concentrations of human capital, pulls in labour-seeking FDI. The Kharkiv region, bordering the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS), retains its old industrial infrastructure as a remnant of Ukraine’s planned economy. It continues to attract foreign
investments from CIS firms to serve the local market through historically well-established customer-supplier networks. The overall better institutional quality of the capital region attracts vital FDI firms that place great importance on the institutional environment, emphasising the impact that poor hinterland can have in promoting highly uneven regional development.

[Policy inference 1.11: The risk of increasing regional disparities means the ENP has an important role in supporting actions that reduce spatial disparities and asymmetries in the countries of the EU neighbourhood.]

Policy lessons from the example of Ukraine could apply to other ENCs that share similar regional structures and levels of economic and institutional development. In all these cases, there are strong reasons to properly balance the Acquis compliance with a calibrated programme of ENPI assistance, as proposed earlier in this chapter. More specifically, programmes to improve specific strategic assets of the key regions and regional governments, such as human capital, concentrated pools of highly skilled labour, and building technology-oriented infrastructures, deserve special attention. Targeted development of local infrastructure is also advised. This implies support of local SMEs, building of customer-supplier networks, and promoting the development of specialised clusters of companies and industries by national and regional governments, as well as public institutional centres. Finally, there is a need to introduce and actively promote improvements in overall quality of regional institutions. The policy guidance here can be summed up as follows: ENPI and related programmes should not be promoted broadly, but must take account of the specific assets of key regions (at national and sub-national levels), the quality of local infrastructures, capabilities, and the quality of regional institutions.

[Policy inference 1.12: ENPI and related programme supports should not be promoted broadly, but must take account of the specific assets of key regions (at national as well as sub-national levels), the quality of local infrastructures, capabilities, and the quality of regional institutions.]
4. Mobility and Migration Policies

4.1 Introduction
A central focus of the ENP is the free movement of people (COM 774, 2007 in Wesselink and Boschma, 2013). At the time of the first ENP negotiations, officials travelling to Brussels from EU neighbouring countries encountered problems in acquiring temporary visas, and partner countries mentioned difficult visa procedures as a disincentive to further integration (COM 726 final, 2006 in Wesselink and Boschma, 2013). Visa negotiations were initiated as a starting point for wider negotiations with the majority of ENP countries in order to make the ENP a more attractive policy for partner countries (Wesselink and Boschma, 2013). The majority of southern ENCs had special visa regulations in existence, and these were then expanded to Ukraine and Moldova, and later considered for Georgia, Armenia and Azerbaijan. However, temporary visas are a relatively small step in the vast array of supports needed to promote mobility of workers between the EU and ENCs. In common with the coupling of trade incentives to political reforms (democracy and human rights), the ENP has used political reforms in ENCs as a condition for changes in EU migration laws. Efforts such as the governance facility (European Commission, 2008a), the Neighbourhood Investment Facility (NIF), and the InterRegional Programme (IRP) have been set up to support reform projects in countries under the ENP remit. The scholarship programme Erasmus Mundus, specifically targeting ENP countries, was set up to continue the success of previous scholarship programmes in fostering cooperation at the university level (COM 774, 2007 in Wesselink and Boschma, 2013).

The evidence collected in the SEARCH project points the way to policies that will complement and strengthen current ENP initiatives on migration and worker mobility, and make them more effective in meeting ENP goals. The following sections summarise these policy findings organised around the themes (1) Benefits of mobility of highly-skilled workers, inventors and research networks, (2) Potentials of wage regulation and measures to protect migrants in the EU, and (3) Benefits of addressing remittance policies.
4.2 Benefits of mobility of highly-skilled workers, inventors and research networks

The policy implications of this research are based on evidence of (1) patterns of labour mobility of highly skilled individuals, (2) the impact of the mobility of highly skilled individuals on economic growth, and (3) the push factors of highly skilled labour flows.

Our results suggest that mobility seems desirable at the aggregate level, although at the inventor level it is a zero-sum game for firms (Moreno, 2013). The policy inference derived from these results is that policies should be directed at promoting inter-regional and international competition for highly-skilled labour, and reducing institutional barriers to highly skilled labour flows. These barriers are higher between ENP countries and EU countries, than within-EU countries, and so there is scope for reducing barriers between EU countries and ENCs (Moreno, 2013).

[Policy inference 2.1: Policies should be directed at promoting inter-regional and international competition for highly-skilled labour, and at reducing institutional barriers to highly-skilled labour flows especially between the EU and ENCs.]

Labour mobility and research networks have been found to be a crucial factor in the creation of knowledge, and their unequal distribution over geographical spaces explains regional differences in innovation performance and economic development (Moreno, 2013). So, policies directed at encouraging the mobility of highly skilled workers (such as the EC Marie Curie Programme or Framework Programme R&D projects) may have a very important role in fostering innovation in less-innovative regions, and in supporting their economic growth (Moreno, 2013).

The findings of this research contradict what was expected by the researchers. It was not expected that geographical distance would have such a large negative effect on the mobility of highly skilled workers (Moreno, 2013). As a working hypothesis, highly skilled workers might not want to relocate to distances far away from their current colleagues (Moreno, 2013). Moreover, this research has shown that progression towards the European Research Area is hindered by fragmentation of the institutional framework between countries, which impedes international labour mobility (Moreno, 2013). Therefore, policies should be directed at increasing the transparency of recruitment procedures, at improving the portability of social security provision internationally, and at reducing differences in taxation (Moreno, 2013). A possible coupling of such requirements with bilateral ENP instruments – action plans – needs to be used to support such a strategy.

[Policy inference 2.2: Policies should support the participation of highly skilled workers in both EU and European Neighbourhood Country research networks.]

The findings of this research suggest that research collaborations as currently supported by formal EU programmes stimulate the acquisition of direct knowledge through such collaboration, which also tend to reduce frictions that may restrict labour mobility across Europe (Moreno, 2013). Such benefits of research funding policies could be extended to the ENP area through their inclusion in the building of international research networks.
[Policy inference 2.3: Policies aimed at supporting high-skilled worker mobility from ENCs should focus on three measures: (1) making recruitment procedures more transparent, (2) improving the portability of social security provision internationally, and (3) reducing differences in international taxation.]

Nieto et al. (2013) find that immigrants are more likely to be over-educated than natives, with this probability being higher for immigrants from non-EU countries. Nonetheless, through years of residence in host countries, the probability of being over-educated slightly decreases for both kinds of immigrants, but the size of the reduction is greater for immigrants from non-EU countries. This means that although there is a higher probability immigrants from countries outside EU are over-educated, their process of assimilation is faster than for immigrants from EU countries. It is worth noting that these differences are not related to horizontal mismatch (differences between their field of the study and their job).

Thus, immigrants experience a higher over-education disadvantage than natives due to the imperfect transferability of the human capital acquired in their countries of origin. However, immigrants accumulate knowledge and experience in the host country and adapt to the local labour market, thus facilitating an assimilation process that reduces the intensity of over-education. The pace of assimilation however is notably slow for immigrants. Therefore there is a certain risk that immigrants from outside the European Union remain permanently trapped in poorly-matched jobs, regardless of their levels of education. Taking into account the wage consequences of over-education, this last result implies that the wage gap between natives and immigrants will remain after several years of residence in the host country. Policy actions should focus on three different aspects: first, incorporating in the migration policy formal criteria related to education levels and to the match with the current needs in the labour market (i.e., like the Australian points system); second, trying to design a system of assessment and recognition of foreign qualifications in order to give an appropriate signal to the labour market and, third, providing publicly-provided informal training to recent immigrants with appropriate skills to improve the transferability of their skills to the new labour market.

[Policy inference 2.4: A programme should be developed to assess professional qualifications of ENC migrants, and to provide informal training to immigrants to improve skills transferability to the new labour market.]

Miguelez and Moreno (2013a) find that only a subset of countries, and a subset of regions in some of the Northern and Central European countries, are benefiting from the immigration of talented individuals and, as a consequence, these regions are those potentially benefiting from knowledge flows and human capital spatial externalities. All in all, from this first analysis it is important to bear in mind that (1), even when controlling for innovation potential and patenting bias, skilled individuals are particularly attracted to a few countries and regions, whilst this phenomenon is very poor or non-existent in other countries; (2), large cities and capital cities register high inward migration rates, most of the time, even in countries that do not have a high level of inward migration—supporting the importance of urban agglomerations as a pull factor in attracting migrants; and (3), in some cases, the regions surrounding large or capital cities are even more magnetic, pointing to the existence of spillovers of attractive features and/or crowding-out effects from the capital region.
The research also confirmed the importance of being located nearby those leading regions and cities in terms of inventors’ stocks and inflows, indicating co-location and geography count in attracting talent. When trying to elucidate why these movements are concentrated in space, we uncovered three reasons. First, attractive regions are located nearby because the attractive characteristics of a given region in terms of amenities, job opportunities, social networks, research facilities, multinational firms, contacts with academia, and the like, may well spill over its administrative boundaries. Second, some of these popular regions, especially urban ones, may suffer some kind of congestion effects, such as high land prices, traffic jams, or pollution, which would favour the location of the research agents outside the region, but nearby it at the same time in order to take advantage of the possible existence of agglomeration economies. Finally, we believe that certain European countries are more attractive due to their research prestige, their wage premiums, or their industrial traditions, which make all the regions of these countries attractive for inventors from abroad - a consideration that should be taken into account when defining the global EU research policy.

Since highly-skilled labour mobility tends to be very concentrated in space, few regions will benefit from the knowledge of these highly-skilled workers. Therefore, it is not clear that policies aiming at attracting talent will promote economic convergence. At least, this has not been the case for most European countries, so it is not expected to happen in European neighbouring countries. What policy makers in ENCs should take into account is that regions hosting the capital city tend to attract more highly-skilled workers and this is where they should focus their efforts in policies designed to attract highly-skilled workers. In this way, the surrounding regions of capital regions will also be able to benefit from these policies.

[Policy inference 2.5: The EU should consider supporting ENCs in their efforts to attract high skilled workers to ENC capital cities.]

Research collaborations between firms and across regions are pivotal for acquiring external knowledge and in creating new knowledge (Miguelez and Moreno, 2013a). The promotion of distant, weak ties embracing as many actors as possible is a plausible and beneficial policy option from a regional perspective. The promotion of cooperation is therefore advisable from a policy viewpoint, especially in linking inventors who are both geographically and economically distant. Consequently, promoting the creation of research networks between inventors in the EU and in the ENP countries is of value, especially bearing in mind that the geographical and the economic distance is greater with the ENP countries, and may boost innovation and, as a result, economic growth. Providing job opportunities and being connected to other regions through networks of collaborations helps, especially for peripheral, backward regions of Europe, as well as regions in ENP countries.

Policy recommendations regarding mobility within the local labour market are not so straightforward. Although mobility seems to be desirable at an aggregate level, and also at the inventor level, it could be understood as a zero-sum game for firms. One policy option is to promote the competition for talent at the interregional and, in particular, the international levels. What, in any case, seems clear is that at the very least, institutional barriers to mobility must be avoided. As these barriers tend to be higher between European Neighbourhood Countries and countries in the EU, than between EU countries, there is scope for removing barriers in order to spur innovation (Miguelez and Moreno, 2013a).
Miguelez and Moreno (2013b) state that the results of their research provide additional evidence of the role that socioeconomic conditions play in enhancing regional innovation rates. Thus, policies that aim to increase the polarisation and concentration of innovation activities in order to benefit from economies of scale may fail to achieve satisfactory results if the specific economic fabric of a region is not properly taken into consideration. In other words, we should factor in ways of diffusing knowledge, such as through collaboration in research networks, which make investments in R&D and human capital more profitable in economic terms. To sum up, if governments want to obtain the highest returns from each euro invested in R&D and in education, it is advisable from a policy perspective, to promote the participation of highly-skilled workers in networks of research.

Miguelez and Moreno (2013c) state that as labour mobility and research networks have been demonstrated to be a fundamental factor in the creation of knowledge, their unequal distribution could explain regional differences in innovation performance and economic development. In this sense, policies aimed at encouraging the mobility of highly skilled workers or enhancing participation in research networks (as promoted by the European Commission through Marie Curie programmes or the Framework Programme Projects), especially in less innovative regions, may play a critical role in the creation of knowledge, and subsequent economic growth. Clearly though, the effectiveness of such policies, as shown by the results of this research, crucially depends on each region’s capacity to give returns to such labour mobility and on participation in research networks. In this respect, we have provided evidence that those regions that are more knowledge- and innovation-intensive obtain higher returns, since they are able to translate internal and external knowledge into specific new commercial applications more efficiently than less innovative regions. Therefore, the idea that R&D spending and knowledge production, in general, spillover to neighbouring regions is not so evident in the absence of a certain level of receptivity to external knowledge (Miguelez and Moreno, 2013c).

The SEARCH study perfectly fits the rationale of the Smart Specialisation strategy, recently launched by the European Commission. In order to work out how the Smart Specialisation concept could be applied to regional policy, the concepts of embeddedness of the local networks and the local labour force, as well as the idea of connectedness to global knowledge hotspots, (by means of learning-linkages in the form of cross-regional alliances and spatial mobility of human capital), are pivotal (Miguelez and Moreno, 2013c).

4.3 Wage regulation and measures to improve conditions for migrants in the EU

4.3.1 Labour market instruments and migrants

Three main policy implications are drawn from this research. First, labour market instruments such as the minimum wage, redundancy costs and the generosity of unemployment benefits...
interact with one another, some substituting or complementing one another (Cigagna and Sulis, 2013). Second, there is interaction between labour market policies and migration policies, and third, international coordination of migration policies may help attract skilled migrants (Cigagna and Sulis, 2013). Labour market policies show important degrees of complementarity/substitutability among them (see Boer and van Ours, 2008). For example, employment protection legislation and unemployment benefits coverage have the same aim of protecting workers against risk, hence they are imperfect substitutes. However, while higher employment protection of employed persons reduces turnover in the labour market, that protection makes it more difficult for the unemployed to find positions. On the other hand, higher coverage of unemployment benefits can increase mobility. As long as migrants perceive such differences, this will have important implications for the way in which immigrants choose destination countries. In other words, national governments and EU authorities have to take such interactions into consideration when making policy adjustments.

[Policy inference 2.8: ENP measures should include clear and transparent information on labour market policies in EU countries, so that potential migrants from Neighbouring Countries are well-informed prior to choosing destination countries.]

The second important policy implication is that labour market policies interact with migration policies. Hence the effect of possible reforms should carefully take into account such interactions. For example, the introduction of a minimum wage could have both a positive employment effect on native workers and a positive effect on migration flows. If migration policy is not properly calibrated or adequately coordinated, such a large inflow of immigrants could crowd native workers out of jobs, thus cancelling out the potentially positive benefit effects of a minimum wage (Cigagna and Sulis, 2013).

[Policy inference 2.9: ENP measures should include clear and transparent information on labour market institutions in EU countries, so that potential migrants from Neighbouring Countries are well-informed prior to choosing destination countries.]

Finally, countries should design and coordinate their migration policies in order to attract the most highly skilled migrants. In fact, we obtain quite different results for migrants with low and high skills, depending on the area of origin, both for the role of migration policies and employment protection legislation. The negative effect of migration policies on flows is much stronger for migrants from the East of Europe and the Middle East who on average have higher skills, while it is statistically significant but reduced in size for migrants from the North of Africa. Similarly, the potentially attractive role of employment protection is higher for the former group of migrants (Cigagna and Sulis, 2013).

[Policy inference 2.10: ENP migration policies need to take into consideration the different impacts they have on migrants from Eastern Europe, the Middle East, and North Africa.]

4.3.2 Economic crises and ENC-outmigration

Motellon and Lopez-Bazo (2013) find that the impact of the financial crisis on the probability of losing their job was greater for immigrants from the ENC. The results also indicate that differences in the probability of losing their job for immigrants with respect to natives in terms of educational attainment, occupation and sector, were even greater than differences observed for
non-ENC immigrants. In fact, almost the entire gap in the rate of job loss between natives and immigrants from ENC can be attributed to differences in observed characteristics, thus ruling out discrimination against ENC immigrants. In any case, one could argue that what might be behind the results is a phenomenon of job segregation between natives and immigrants, in which discrimination actually takes place through the real possibilities of occupying certain jobs.

Some implications can be derived from Spanish economy. First, the loss of employment for immigrants is an added cost to their own displaced status, especially for recent immigrants. Even for those who are entitled to receive unemployment benefit, the difficulty of finding another job in a prolonged recession may mean they have limited financial resources with which to meet basic needs. The higher chance of losing one’s job, combined with low chance of finding another (as reflected in an unemployment rate for immigrants of around 35%) could force immigrants to return to their home countries. Even if they stay in the host country, a long period without employment erodes both real social integration and assimilation into the labour market (Motellon and Lopez-Bazo, 2013).

In turn, for the host country, and by extension to the whole EU, the presence of a large number of unemployed immigrants has obvious costs. Despite these risks, it is possible that a high percentage of unemployed immigrants decide to stay in the host countries because they have no better alternative in their countries of origin. Even without a job in the EU, they have higher levels of security, as well as of social protection (including unemployment benefits, and health and education services). In that case, at least temporarily, immigrants stop contributing to the system and, consequently, do not help to counteract the effects of an ageing population (Motellon and Lopez-Bazo, 2013).

Reduced ability to maintain employment among immigrants can be seen as a cost also for their countries of origin. First, costs are incurred in terms of the value of forgone remittances, which in the case for countries of North Africa, (especially Morocco and Algeria), where remittances are an important source of external financing. Secondly, because they have to deal with the return of those who decide to come home, especially for the young, more skilled population (Motellon and Lopez-Bazo, 2013).

Finally, migration policies should take into account the effects of business cycle asymmetries on push and pull factors of migration. In particular, as high rates of job losses may discourage potential future immigrants, and thereby hinder the correction of macroeconomic imbalances in sending countries, this could increase the lack of opportunities for a significant portion of the population in sending countries (Motellon and Lopez-Bazo, 2013).

[Policy inference 2.11: ENP migration policies need to take into account the dynamic effects of business cycle asymmetries on push and pull factors of migration.]

These circumstances must be considered when designing and assessing instruments of EU migration policy in the context of the ENP. Despite the obvious difficulties that would surround the implementation of an action of this type, the results suggest that, in the context of the ENP, resources should be allocated to improve the human capital of immigrants, and even of potential immigrants in their countries of origin. Among other effects, an increase in the educational
attainment of immigrants would improve their employability and the pace of assimilation into the European labour market.

[Policy inference 2.12: The EU should consider directing policies to improve the educational level of ENC immigrants.]

4.3.3 Measures to influence attitudes towards immigrants
Research carried out in Parts (2013) suggests that countries differ in their attitudes towards immigrants. First, in Western Europe, people tend to worry more about possible threats to economic and social welfare as a result of immigration, while people in Neighbouring Countries tend to perceive immigrants as a threat to local culture and customs. Second, native respondents from New EU Member States had average scores in most aspects of their attitudes to immigration, apart from perceiving that immigrants undermine a country’s culture. These findings are useful for developing precisely targeted policy measures to promote pro-immigrant attitudes among different populations.

[Policy inference 2.13: Both EU and ENCs would benefit from learning to understand specific fears of its population regarding immigrants, and to base suitable pro-immigrant policies on this knowledge.]

4.4 Policy measures to address remittances
Matanos and Ramos (2013) in their research suggest focusing on remittance policies as part of the overall migration strategy formulated under the remit of the ENP. Remittances are considered important for development in receiving countries (Matano and Ramos, 2013a). In order to augment the potential positive effects of remittances, policy-makers should address the following:

1) Facilitate the process of remitting, making it more transparent and official.
2) Stimulate and support temporary migration.
3) Provide incentives for highly skilled migrants to increase their likelihood of remitting.
4) Foster the temporary migration of skilled migrants who remit larger amounts of money.

Such policies would benefit ENP countries in the following respects:
1) Stimulating temporary migration might limit the losses a country faces with permanent migration (such as brain drain).
2) Returning migrants will bring back not only the original human capital with which they are endowed, but also the human capital acquired in host countries, thus facilitating positive human capital spillovers in their countries of origin. Also, returning migrants bring back the social capital acquired during their migration experience.
3) Temporary migration allows more flexibility in meeting the demands of host countries, which is often variable and depends on the business cycle.
4) Increasing remittances supports recipients to enter higher education and also improves welfare.
5) Making the process of sending remittances easier increases the probability that funds can be targeted to direct investment in education and other assets in origin countries.
6) Supporting temporary migration can reduce the risk of disrupting families that might occur with permanent migration.
Overall, barriers to remittances should be reduced and several policy areas can be addressed to achieve this aim. Support for temporary migration, such as temporary work visas and dual citizenship (Matano and Ramos, 2013a), can make it easier for people to find employment and facilitate trade in services, for example. A second set of barriers relates to remittance fees and double taxation. Such transfer costs make official and legal channels of remittances less attractive for migrant workers, and increase the propensity to use illegal and informal ways of money transfer (Matano and Ramos, 2013a). Moreover, taxing remittances in receiving countries doubles the tax load on money transfer and decreases the attractiveness of legal transfers even further, hindering development in receiving countries (Matano and Ramos, 2013a). A third set of policies should be targeted at infrastructures, such as providing electronic means to transfer money into migrant origin countries (Matano and Ramos, 2013a). Fourth, encouraging migrants to do fewer but larger remittance transactions (as opposed to multiple transactions with small amounts) would help bring down the burden of fixed remittance fees, as well as stimulating increased competition by allowing more institutions to enter in the money transfer business (Matano and Ramos, 2013b).

[Policy inference 2.14: The EU should consider developing policies to support temporary migration from European Neighbouring Countries through temporary work visas.]

[Policy inference 2.15: The EU should support temporary migration through dual citizenship.]

[Policy inference 2.16: European Neighbourhood Policy should encourage development of improved electronic money transfer infrastructures for migrants.]

[Policy inference 2.17: European Neighbourhood Policy needs to reduce barriers to remittances by reducing monetary transfer costs such as fees and double taxation.]

[Policy inference 2.18: The EU should encourage migrants to make larger but fewer remittances rather than smaller and more frequent money transfers.]
5. Technology and Innovation Policies

5.1 Introduction
A central pre-condition for catching-up in economic, social and political spheres is the acquisition, innovation and production of technology. Research evidence collected in Work package 4, ‘Technological activities and innovation diffusion in the EU and interactions with the EU neighbouring regions’ of the SEARCH Project focused on the investigation of technology flows within and between EU and ENC regions. The results of this research have policy implications in the following areas: (1) value of improving the mechanisms and conditions for knowledge flows, (2) benefits of innovation policies, (3) growth potential from addressing inter-relationships between innovation, FDI and trade openness, (4) growth potential from investments in social capital, and (5) potential for improving the availability of data.

5.2 Value of improving the mechanisms and conditions for knowledge flows
Autant-Bernard and Chalaye (2013a) in their research in international knowledge flows state that in order to participate in building a Common Knowledge and Innovation Space, public policies should be developed to support the channels through which knowledge diffuses.

Firstly, the channels through which knowledge diffuses should be reinforced. Since scientific and technological collaborations, built upon historical and commercial linkages due to proximity, are favoured by common language, policy makers should promote mutual knowledge of cultures and languages among EU countries and ENC to promote an intensification of partnerships. The public and private research potential of European countries on the one hand and their immediate physical proximity on the other hand, can offer greater cooperation opportunities than can the USA to neighbouring countries.

A means of encouraging mutual understanding and knowledge of cultures and languages is essential to promote student mobility. This type of flow is mainly determined by the continent of
residence. Policy makers should encourage balanced mobility of students from ENC to Europe, and vice versa. Mobility should not be restricted to academic courses but should also include internships in firms. The feasibility of balancing mobility varies by country and more specifically according to the standard of living (studying in Europe often represents a high cost for families). Balancing mobility depends also on the political context (the current situation in Syria, for instance, prevents balanced mobility).

**Policy inference 3.1: The ENP should support the channels through which knowledge diffuses by formulating policies for: (1) the promotion of a mutual understanding of cultures and languages and (2) a balanced mobility of students between the EU and ENCs, both in the academic and the industrial spheres.**

Location plays a lesser role in the choice of which country to file a patent, than it does for scientific and technological collaboration. The protection of intellectual property rights (IPRs) is more important in the downstream phase of the research and innovation processes, and is closely related to markets and export dynamics, which follow a different logic in terms of the importance of location. On the other hand, the geography of production and exports is less concentrated than for scientific and technological collaborations. Policy-makers are therefore advised to collaborate on the formulation of policies for intellectual property regulation (Autant-Bernard and Chalaye, 2013a).

**Policy inference 3.2: The ENP should support cooperation between the EU and ENCs in the formulation of policies for intellectual property rights regulation.**

Secondly, the actors through which knowledge spreads should be directly promoted. In particular, among ENC inventors and scientists, those coming from Israel, Ukraine and to a lesser extent Egypt, often appear as central agents within the knowledge networks. At the same time, these countries are among the least Europe-oriented ENCs. Improving their orientation towards the EU would therefore help, both directly and indirectly, to foster knowledge exchanges between the EU and the ENCs (Autant-Bernard and Chalaye, 2013a).

**Policy inference 3.3: The ENP should support the generation and spread of knowledge flows within and between the EU and ENCs with instruments focused on specific actors and groups such as universities, research institutes, and specific sectors and firms.**

The prominent role played by Germany and France in innovation within the EU should be drawn upon to develop additional collaborations and to foster knowledge diffusion between ENCs. French and German inventors and scientists are strongly connected to both EU and ENC countries and could therefore act as knowledge spillover agents between the two areas (Autant-Bernard and Chalaye, 2013a).

The potential role played by the newer Member States should not be neglected. Due to their geographical, cultural and sometimes linguistic proximity to certain ENCs, they may collaborate more easily with partners from other ENCs. Reinforcing their ability to collaborate and exchange knowledge with their closest neighbours should therefore help to create a Common Knowledge and Innovation Space (Autant-Bernard and Chalaye, 2013a).
[Policy inference 3.4: The ENP should support countries central for innovation in the EU (such as Germany and France) when creating innovation linkages between EU and ENCs.]

The results of the research carried out in the study by Autant-Bernard et al. (2013) on 14 EU countries, (Belgium, Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Estonia, Spain, Greece, Hungary, Iceland, Lithuania, Latvia, Norway, Portugal, Romania and Slovakia) find differences between old and newer EU member countries in corporate innovation rates. Despite these differences, the determinants as well as the type of innovation (generation versus adoption) in the two groups of countries are quite similar. Newer EU countries therefore still suffer from a gap between them and older EU countries, but the forces at work are similar and their potential to generate and adopt innovation is not so different. The gap is more a result of limited absorption capacity and export exposure than to a divide in the innovation process, in which old EU member countries generate innovation and newer EU member countries adopt it (Autant-Bernard et al. 2013).

This suggests that developing countries do generate innovation and can contribute to the Common Knowledge and Innovation Space, or as mentioned in the original SEARCH proposal, lead to the emergence of the European Research Neighbourhood. In order to develop ENC innovation capacity, increasing their export exposure and their internal level of knowledge are key priorities. This would foster the ability of these countries to generate innovation but also to adopt existing technologies (Autant-Bernard et al. 2013). In addition, adoption is strongly influenced by the intensity of collaboration in both old and new EU countries. The ability of firms to adopt externally-generated technologies should therefore be improved by fostering R&D cooperation (Autant-Bernard et al. 2013).

[Policy inference 3.5: The ENP needs to acknowledge the interdependencies between external technology adoption and R&D collaboration, by implementing policies that support both.]

The empirical analysis in the research of Sebestyen and Varga (2013) produced important findings on the role of space in different processes of knowledge generation. The finding that non-spatially mediated learning in (Framework Programme or patent) collaboration networks significantly enhances research productivity, is evident for both types of knowledge creation in the regression results of the research study. However, spatial proximity plays different roles in patenting and scientific publication. While local agglomeration of knowledge industries, together with patenting carried out in proximate regions, improve patenting prospects, spatially mediated knowledge flows do not seem to be significant sources of science-oriented research resulting in publications. On the contrary, the results suggest a “chessboard-like” spatial arrangement of scientific research institutions, which do not tend to spatially agglomerate. However, it also seems that success in science does not necessarily require agglomeration. This finding has policy relevance as it proves that establishing channels for knowledge flows which contribute to a higher quality of network embeddedness have a positive effect on the productivity of a region (Sebestyen and Varga, 2013).

EU neighbouring country regions where good quality universities and public research institutions are located could potentially build research collaboration networks that are competitive with networks maintained by many European regions (Sebestyen and Varga, 2013). Moreover, intensifying the participation of neighbouring countries in EU Framework Programme-funded
research projects could result in an increase in research productivity in neighbouring country regions where local universities or public research facilities already have substantial research capacity. This increased research productivity might later form the basis of regional economic development policies that take advantage of accumulated potential of their higher education institutions or public research institutes. Policies aimed at attracting private research labs of industries closely related to the region’s research specialisation, paired with complementary measures such as building human capital assets or physical infrastructure development, could potentially initiate a long running process that possibly ends up in a substantial regional industry concentration (Sebestyen and Varga, 2013).

[Policy inference 3.6: Policy-makers should extend participation in EU research funding programmes to public research institutions in ENCs.]

The results in the study by Miguelez and Moreno (2013) confirm that the production of knowledge in a region depends not only on its own research efforts and internal factors, but also on the knowledge available in other regions, accessible through mobile inventors and bilateral collaborations (Miguelez and Moreno, 2013). In addition, regions benefit more from external knowledge stocks when the transmission is through networks of collaboration than through the movement of highly skilled workers (Miguelez and Moreno, 2013).

In the design of the Innovation policy in a knowledge-based economy (European Commission, 2000, p. 5), the European Commission emphasised the importance of knowledge mobility, since, “the importance of tacit and specialised knowledge calls for greater mobility of knowledge workers”. Equally, it was highlighted that, “European heterogeneity or variety can be exploited through networking of firms and scientists, to create a vibrant learning culture in which many different ideas and approaches are available as inputs to firms’ innovation and learning” (p. 6). Our research has empirically confirmed that policies fostering mobility and collaborations amongst inventors lead to higher innovation outputs. Thus, policies that facilitate the mobility of knowledge among firms, stimulate collaborations among firms in their knowledge activities and foster senior knowledge workers visiting other institutions, even when crossing the borders of a region, has a benefit for the EU as a whole (Miguelez and Moreno, 2013).

The empirical analysis carried out by Miguelez and Moreno (2013) supports the hypothesis of the importance of collaborations and, to a lesser extent, of labour mobility, as the means of fostering the geographical diffusion of knowledge. Hence, from a policy perspective, these results illustrate that R&D and human capital efforts are not the only important factors in generating innovation at the regional level, but that the degree of connectivity with agents external to the region are also important for innovation.

[Policy inference 3.7: In order to augment innovation capacities within the EU and the ENCs, policy mechanisms of the ENP should support the creation of linkages between EU, ENC and global actors.]

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5 The idea of connectivity is also at the core of the ‘smart specialisation’ strategy recently launched by the European Commission.
5.3 Policies for reducing innovation barriers

The analysis by Marrocu et al. (2013) offers relevant and original empirical findings which make for a better understanding of the processes of knowledge creation and diffusion across Europe and ENC. The policy advice is that regions and countries still need to focus on creating a well-educated labour force, given its strong and pervasive role in determining both the internal creation, and the external absorption, of knowledge. The impact of graduates on innovation activities is much stronger than formal R&D expenditures (Marrocu et al., 2013).

[Policy inference 3.8: The ENP should support action to increase the skills of the labour force in ENCs.]

Pikalova and Mazurin (2013) analysed the barriers and supports to success of projects for international cooperation (INCO Projects). The policy implications of this research suggest that the ENP looks for ways to lower regulatory barriers to innovation, supporting the building of institutions for innovation, and instruments for international cooperation between the EU and the ENCs.

Regulatory barriers and information flows

When it comes to raising awareness and communicating good practice in establishing regulatory frameworks to encourage international science, technology and innovation (STI), STI cooperation, and fostering ethical standards for conducting research at a national level, national policy stakeholders in the EU and NCs must ensure political decision makers are aware of the need to stimulate regulatory frameworks for STI cooperation and of barriers and threats which require urgent action (Pikalova and Mazurin, 2013).

Legal constraints such as IPR and licensing barriers hindering cooperation need to be removed (e.g. for international mobility, protection and utilisation of intellectual property, transfer of funds and scientific equipment, shipping of scientific material and samples etc.) and appropriate national legal frameworks should be designed in accordance with international standards. Emphasis should be put both on the protection of each other’s knowledge and on the transnational access to knowledge, allowing international exchange of scientific data and results, while guaranteeing the rights of individual partners (Pikalova and Mazurin, 2013).

National rules for import and export of scientific material are one of the significant issues hampering international science and technology cooperation with NCs. Procedures need to be simplified to bring national regulations into line with international law (Pikalova and Mazurin, 2013).

[Policy inference 3.9: The ENP should encourage the lifting of legal constraints on innovation such as rules for trade in scientific materials, IPR and licensing.]

A further set of measures to support innovation in ENCs concerns access to information. On the basis of the research carried out by Pikalova and Mazurin (2013) it is recommended that ENCs increase the capacity of their National Information Points and National Contact Points. This could be done by the EU, through the assessment of support structures for EU-ENC science,
technology and innovation cooperation, and the provision of professional and accessible information and consultancy services (Pikalova and Mazurin, 2013).

[Policy inference 3.10: It is recommended that policy stakeholders in the EU and NCs assess and advance support structures for STI cooperation between the EU and ENCs by providing information and consultancy services.]

Linking EU and ENC institutions
The full openness of EU Framework Programmes for ENC participation could, in addition to supporting direct research links, also enable cooperation with European and international research networks and platforms for ENC researchers (Pikalova and Mazurin, 2013).

Promoting information exchange between national institutions in EU Member States that have expertise in innovation management and entrepreneurship with ENCs could support ENCs in the development of these competencies. Furthermore, training courses on innovation management and entrepreneurship could be set up within academic or innovation-related institutions in ENCs, involving experts from both EU Member States and Neighbourhood Countries, with financial or indirect support (e.g. incentives) from the national authorities (Pikalova and Mazurin, 2013).

[Policy inference 3.11: The EU should consider setting up training courses on innovation management and entrepreneurship within academic or innovation related institutions in ENCs.]

It is recommended by Pikalova and Mazurin (2013) that mutual learning activities between EU and ENCs be set up which focus on legislative, tax and IPR issues, as well as on the coherence and coordination of the whole framework, in order to identify good practices and success stories, but also barriers and failures in both EU Member States and Neighbourhood countries. To implement such international exercises, joint workshops or small conferences could be organised in the scope of Specific International Scientific Cooperation Activities (INCO), funded within the EU Research and Technological Development (RTD) Programme, or at a bilateral level, based on the partnership of individual EU Member States and Neighbourhood countries (Pikalova and Mazurin, 2013).

[Policy inference 3.12: The EU should consider supporting mutual learning activities which address legislative, tax and IPR issues and help to identify good practices, and barriers and supports to innovation in these areas.]

Based on the evidence collected in INCO projects, Pikalova and Mazurin (2013) recommended that the EU and ENCs engage in joint twinning activities between research centres, institutes, EU, national-level technological platforms and other national and regional technology networks. In addition, the experience gained through the European Technology Platforms can be replicated in ENCs by building industry-led technology platforms for the definition of research priorities and action plans on technological areas underpinning growth, competitiveness and sustainability (Pikalova and Mazurin, 2013).
[Policy inference 3.13: The EU should consider extending its innovation policy instruments such as twinning activities and technology platforms to ENCs.]

Transfer of good practice between scientists. To support mutual learning in good scientific practice, the EU is advised to invest in individual capabilities, through joint training activities in science management (Pikalova and Mazurin, 2013). In order to reduce linguistic barriers, the EU could promote knowledge of different languages through supporting the teaching of university courses in different languages in ENCs, international joint supervision of PhD theses between the EU and ENCs, and joint mobility programmes for scientists in the EU and the ENCs (Pikalova and Mazurin, 2013).

[Policy inference 3.14: EU innovation support to ENCs should include joint training activities in the management of science, support learning of different languages in university courses, joint mobility programmes for scientists, and encourage international co-supervision of PhD theses.]

Supporting Pikalova’s and Mazurin’s (2013) study on the importance of knowledge of languages for international collaboration in research and innovation, Autant-Bernard and Chalaye (2013) find that whether or not a country or region is Francophone plays an important role in international collaboration between some of the EU and some ENCs. They suggest that another means to enhance sharing language could be based on the promotion of one specific language throughout the neighbouring area. The specific role played by French in several ENCs clearly favours their integration within EU knowledge networks. Compared to other areas, and especially the US, the EU does not benefit from its spatial proximity to ENCs alone. EU also holds a comparative advantage based on the number of Francophone ENCs. Policy makers should strengthen this advantage by promoting Francophone. In this perspective, the development of new technologies opens new opportunities to teach and exchange knowledge with ENCs in a common language. Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCs) could in particular be used as a strategic tool to reinforce Francophone and hence knowledge sharing in the area.

[Policy inference 3.15: The EU should consider supporting Francophone through Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCs) to facilitate innovation collaboration between the EU and NCs.]

Liargovas (2013) finds that EU27 and NC16 countries place different emphasis on different policy instruments for innovation, depending on their endowments. For example, the successful performance of technoparks, which are the focus of Northern European countries, requires a rich background as regards knowledge creation and the institutional environment to support the generation, diffusion and commercialisation of knowledge. On the other hand, Eastern and Southern European countries place emphasis on the development of business incubators. Obviously, the latter require fewer endowments compared to technoparks.

[Policy inference 3.16: Technoparks and incubators are innovation instruments which require different conditions for their effectiveness. Policy makers should recognise these differences and support the implementation of these policies only where such specific conditions exist.]
5.4 Growth potential from addressing inter-relationships between innovation, FDI and trade openness

The relationships between the EU and ENC countries have received great attention since 2007 when the EU attempted to develop an integrated policy towards the non-candidate countries on the EU’s eastern and southern borders, as an alternative to further enlargement. Among the different ways in which valuable interactions between the EU and ENC are generated, capital transactions represent a key channel and M&A activity is one of the most effective ways for directing capital towards productive sites (Di Guardo et al., 2013).

Our results concerning the determinants of M&A activities among EU and ENC countries provide useful insights to assess whether the European neighbourhood policy (ENP) is becoming effective in offsetting tangible and intangible barriers between the two country groups. In order to support knowledge flows among ENC and EU countries, international transactions should be supported and encouraged by ENP because a high density of interactions between firms from the EU and ENC exposes neighbouring countries to the influence of EU-based firms, which often have more advanced technical solutions and organisational practices (Di Guardo et al., 2013).

[Policy inference 3.17: The ENP should consider facilitating international capital transactions between ENCs and EU countries as a measure for supporting innovation.]

In the study by Bergman and Ondos (2013a, 2013b) it was found that international patent co-citations between EU and ENCs are increasing, indicating an increase in innovation collaboration. This trend is likely to increase as a host of other policies for FDI and trade openness take hold. A direct implication of these findings is that the EU should support FDI policies that bring innovative firms to ENCs because they will stimulate patenting activity and innovation (Bergman and Ondos, 2013a and 2013b). Moreover, policies promoting trade and people mobility can also be expected to contribute to an expansion of patenting activity (Bergman and Ondos, 2013a and 2013b).

[Policy inference 3.18: ENP measures should support FDI policies that bring innovative firms to ENCs.]

As in the case of EU accession country experience, international patent citations may increase in some ENC regions, and decrease in other regions if they are less innovative or unable to capitalise upon related measures of the ENP (for example, FDI, trade, university exchange). The effects of several ENP initiatives will influence which ENC regions can take fullest advantage of potential knowledge flows within relevant citation exchange communities (Bergman and Ondos, 2013a and 2013b).

ENP border region citations of Western patents can be expected to rise markedly, although the reverse citation flows are extremely unlikely in the short run. In common with accession country experience, developing ENC regions are expected to be citation-knowledge consumers in early rounds, a dependence which may continue indefinitely for all but the most advanced or technically-specialised ENC regions (Bergman and Ondos, 2013a and 2013b).
In this perspective, ENP should take care of regional differences also based on their location and on their current innovation endowment (Bergman and Ondos, 2013a and 2013b).

[Policy inference 3.19: The ENP should take account of regional differences in ENC innovation capacities in the formulation of its policies.]

Complementing Bergman and Ondos’ (2013) study of knowledge flows via patent citations, Di Guardo and Paci (2013) find that various types of corporate alliances (Merger and Acquisition, Joint Ventures and Strategic Alliances) provide a valuable channel of interaction and knowledge flow among companies located in the ENC and in EU. The presence and development of these external connections strengthens the competitive conditions of the ENC markets and favours their economic growth.

At the same time, the situation of uncertainty and instability in several neighbouring countries increases the risk involved in international agreements; as a result, companies’ willingness to do deals and the number of completed transactions decreases. Moreover cross-border transactions have been shown to be influenced by the historical, cultural, institutional, and geographical proximity between EU and neighbourhood countries (Di Guardo and Paci, 2013).

Overall, the ENP should try to support agreements among firms in EU and ENC through the design of specific instruments devoted to decreasing the risk associated with uncertainty and instability. More generally, the EU should continue and reinforce its policy of supporting the neighbourhood countries in their ongoing process towards more open and competitive internal markets and towards more democratic, efficient and transparent institutions (Di Guardo and Paci, 2013).

[Policy inference 3.20: The ENP should design policies to reduce risk and uncertainty in firm alliances between EU and ENCs by supporting ENCs in making markets more open and competitive, and their institutions more democratic, efficient and transparent.]

Results in the paper by Lopez-Bazo and Motellon (2013) suggest that regional differences in export sunk costs might be causing differences across regions in how export levels respond to innovation. Innovation contributes to raising a firm’s future productivity and makes products more attractive, making it easier for a company to accommodate the extra costs of exporting its products. Even given the assumption that firms in all regions are similarly effective in translating innovation into higher productivity and competitiveness, it remains the case that geography, agglomeration, and certain regional endowments cause differences across regions in the sunk costs faced by firms. As a result these of regional differences, the benefits of innovation make up for additional cost of exporting in some regions but not in others. This explains the greater effect of innovation on export status for regions with a high extensive margin of exports. Therefore, policies aimed at increasing the number of firms that export in regions with a low extensive margin of exports should encourage generation and adoption of innovation by non-exporting firms and, simultaneously, compensate for the location disadvantage that firms in these regions face (Lopez-Bazo and Motellon, 2013).
More specifically, results from a sample of Spanish firms, and from each of the Spanish NUTS2 regions, can be used to infer the likely effectiveness of policies that aim to promote exports in ENCs:

1. Stimulating innovation in products and processes can be an effective policy for increasing the share of exporting firms in ENCs in the medium and long term. Innovation developed by firms within the ENC or generated elsewhere but adopted by firms in these countries, increases competitiveness and thus the chances to export, raising the volume of exports from ENCs.

2. To be effective, direct policies aiming to stimulate exports in the short run, should focus on innovative firms from ENCs with a level of productivity above a given threshold. They are the group of firms with the highest chances of success in foreign markets and should be the target of direct policies designed to facilitate sales abroad, for example, by providing information, credits, and easing contacts with potential customers (Lopez-Bazo and Motellon, 2013).

[Policy inference 3.21: The ENP should include measures to stimulate exports in the short run by focusing on innovative firms in ENCs with a level of productivity above a certain threshold, because these firms have the highest chance of success in foreign markets.]

5.5 Growth potential from investments in social capital
Di Guardo et al. (2013) state that given the very important role played by political, cultural and social distance, efforts to promote democratic reform and improve human rights should be strongly encouraged by European institutions. As a matter of fact, notwithstanding the merits of the ENP and the goals achieved so far, there remains plenty of unfulfilled potential in using the relationships between the EU and the ENC countries to promote social capital and institutions.

In relative terms, countries such as Belarus, Libya, Syria, Azerbaijan, Russia, Ukraine, Moldova, Egypt, Jordan rank very low in terms of democracy, human rights, the rule of law, good governance and market economy principles, whereas top positions are taken by the most advanced EU countries, namely Sweden, Denmark, Finland, The Netherlands, Austria (Di Guardo et al., 2013). This calls for more efforts from both sides to accelerate the process of ENC democratic reform and reduce the gap in democracy and human rights. Increased financial assistance and technical support from the EU and stronger action to promote democratic control, political freedom, civil liberties, competitive elections, freedom to organise and freedom of expression, and to combat corruption and violence from within ENCs is expected to improve the level of cooperation, to increase economic integration and movement of people, to intensify ties and to strengthen peaceful relationships. Ultimately, this enduring process should guarantee widespread democratic shared values that are indispensable for civil and political stability, sustainable long term development and economic prosperity (Di Guardo et al., 2013).

[Policy inference 3.22: EU countries should consider measures for strengthening social and institutional capital in ENCs, for example democratic reform, protection of human rights, political and civil liberties, competitive elections, freedom to organise and freedom of expression, and the fight against corruption in ENCs.]
5.6 Scope for improving the availability of data in the Community Innovation Survey (CIS)
As a result of experience of using the CIS dataset to study the innovation diffusion process in the EU countries, Moreno et al. (2013) offer some suggestions for future implementation of CIS data and questionnaires:

• With the available information in CIS, it is currently impossible to compute any indicator on innovation diffusion for the ENCs. None of them are present in the CIS. The number of countries covered should be increased.
• Some improvements in the CIS survey could address the main limitations highlighted in this study. In particular, collecting more quantitative information about the way innovation is produced would be of great help in econometric and economic analysis. For instance, the shares (or the intensity) of innovation made within a firm, in cooperation or developed by others, should be registered directly for each case. Moreover, the usefulness of the CIS data comes from the possibility of cross-referencing several items. Most of these cannot be carried out using aggregated data available on the Eurostat website, because micro-level data are needed. Increasing the availability of data at the micro level (which for now is available for only a few EU member states) would thus provide more tractable information and richer analysis of the adoption process and its determinants.
• A second suggestion would be to try to eliminate the subjectivity in some of the questions of the CIS questionnaire, in order to be able to better define categories and quantify the answers. Some of the current questions, for instance, ask whether an innovation has been developed “mainly” by other firms or in collaboration. This subjectivity impedes the ability to measure or consistently define the same processes across countries, due to the possible biases related to the subjectivity of the answer. As suggested above, this subjectivity may be partly solved by asking what share of innovation that relies on each type of innovation. In the present CIS3 and CIS4 questionnaires, the items dealing with the innovation adoption, do not provide separate information about diffusion occurring within the country and across countries. A revision of the question may solve this problem.
• EUROSTAT should provide a technical annex on how the macro data provided in its web-site have been generated from the micro data. Aggregation issues and different methodologies may be a problem for researchers who need to know how the statistical office treated micro data, in order to obtain macro data.
• CIS tells us if a firm has made or adopted an innovation or but gives no indication of the intensity of such processes. Therefore, a firm making a small-scale innovation and a big firm generating a lot of innovation are, at the moment, considered equally. A question (even qualitative) about the importance of innovation in the firm’s activity could be added. This question should be asked for each type of innovation (innovation within the firm/ innovation resulting from collaborations / innovation generated by others).
• Another drawback of the CIS is that it does not allow us to assess the intensity of technological flows between EU countries. It does not provide information on the geographical origin of the technologies adopted by firms. This kind of information is crucial for determining whether innovation diffusion arises mainly within countries, or if significant technological flows occur also between countries. Identifying the
countries that derive most benefit from these international flows would also be of interest. According to our results, diffusion arises mainly between Core countries and the highest levels of adoption are recorded for Core countries. But obviously this requires additional investigation.

[Policy inference 3.23: The data collected under the CIS survey could be improved by:
• Expanding the survey to ENCs.
• Including more quantitative information and data at the macro level.
• Improved by eliminating the subjectivity in some of its existing questions.
• EUROSTAT should provide a technical annex on how the macro data is collected starting from the micro data.
• A question should be added about the importance of innovation in the activities of the firm.
• The CIS should incorporate questions on the geographical origin of the technologies adopted by firms.]
6. Institutional and Social Capital Policies

6.1 Introduction
Social capital affects the level of economic development, promotes formation of political openness, democracy, human rights and freedoms in society (Tatarko, 2013). It supports these processes in different ways such as interpersonal and institutional trust, cooperative values and attitudes, sustaining communities and networks of people and firms. Private corporations benefit from trust among their employees and from trusting relations with clients and suppliers, creditors and shareholders. To deepen our understanding of these processes it is important to draw lessons about institutions and policies that encourage the formation of social capital in the European Neighbourhood. (Parts, 2013b).

Research evidence produced in Work package 5 “Institutional Environment” of the SEARCH Project has led to policy recommendations that support ENP initiatives for strengthening of institutions that promote economic growth in EU Neighbouring Countries. This chapter summarises the main policy findings on the following topics: (4.2) Importance of social capital and institutional quality for economic growth, (4.3) Benefits of social capital for innovation, (4.4) Influencing institutional quality in ENCs through the adoption of the ‘Aquis’, (4.5) Recognising the importance of national specificities in institutional reform, (4.6) Use of social capital for entrepreneurship, (4.7) Policies for addressing education mismatch between EU and ENCs, and (4.8) Law approximation under the ENP.

6.2 Importance of social capital and institutional quality for economic growth
Research by Hlepas (2013a) finds that a cooperative predisposition of the population, and public trust in politicians who are involved in negotiations and implementation of measures for European integration and European Neighbourhood policies, are very important within the context of the EU.
There are important differences in social capital among the “old” EU-15 members, and even more so, among candidate countries and Eastern neighbouring countries. European policies should be calibrated to national needs and deficiencies. Southern European Countries are currently suffering an unprecedented economic crisis, highlighting how deficiencies in institutional quality, elite compliance with legal and ethical norms and cooperative attitudes have not been properly addressed. This is resulting in low levels of competitiveness, even though democratic institutions and human rights reached high standards in these same countries, which have been following the path of Europeanisation over several decades.

There should be concrete measures to encourage cooperative attitudes and restore confidence in politicians, for example through increasing participation in procedures and institutions, transparent and accountable decision-making, encouraging various forms of voluntary social work etc. Compliance of elites with legal and ethical norms can be promoted through actions to strengthen the rule of law, public awareness and transparent budgeting, while discouraging rent-seeking and free-rider attitudes. Policies should be further developed, with an emphasis on institutional capacity and sound governance.

[Policy inference 4.1: EU policy measures under the ENP should support the formation of institutional capacities and sound governance in ENCs.]

Bartlett et al. (2013) investigated the relationship between institutional quality and growth in EU Neighbouring Countries. According to the comparative analysis of governance indicators, both Ukraine and Moldova are fragile in terms of political stability, freedom of expression and media freedoms, as well as implementation of electoral processes, despite some progress in compliance with democratic principles and the rule of law. Both states are characterised by lower levels of accountability of the government. But most of all, dealing with corruption remains the greatest problem Neighbouring Countries face. This is not surprising, given the political struggles and accompanying social and economic instability in the last decade that made these two countries politically vulnerable, unstable and democratically less-consolidated, especially when compared to the control groups of candidate countries (Croatia and Macedonia) and EU new member states (Bulgaria and Romania) (Bartlett et al., 2013).

The comparative empirical analysis of quality of institutions has reached some key conclusions. Firstly, the prospect of accession to the EU is a powerful driver of institutional convergence. The analyses showed that ENCs have a much weaker institutional convergence path than accession countries, and a lower level of governance capacity than in the new member states. This may be due to an absence of a clear accession horizon for EU membership, and associated weak and inconsistent European Neighbourhood Policies, which place ENP countries in the “realm between accession, integration and external relations policies” (Monastiriotis and Borrell, 2012). However, nominal adoption or transposition of current EU norms and rules does not guarantee successful institutional performance, as the continuing problems in Bulgaria and Romania demonstrate (Bartkett et al., 2013).

Secondly, although Ukraine and Moldova have shown considerable progress over recent years, difficulties in compliance with core democratic standards (rule of law, political and economic freedoms, respect for minorities, free media) persist. Nevertheless, the findings concerning our new “Institutional Quality of Public Services Index” show that capacities for change have
improved based on the considerable improvements in the quality of education in Ukraine, and in the capacity for innovation in Moldova. However, convergence is not complete and the final outcome is far from certain. Given that good governance and democratisation are among the top priorities of the ENP Instruments for Ukraine and Moldova, the EU has so far failed to promote transformative processes and to encourage the complementary evolution of institutions. The EU has not yet fulfilled its potential role as a “transformative power”, shaping faster institutional convergence and improved internal institutional complementarity. Under such circumstances, there is a danger that if they are indefinitely delayed the reform processes will either stagnate or “run out of steam” (Bartlett et al., 2013).

[Policy inference 4.2: The EU should not delay its pressures on reform processes in ENCs.]

Thirdly, institutional reform in ENCs is strongly and positively related to economic growth. This suggests that attention should be given to the complementarity of the institutional reforms that take place under the process of transition. A corollary of the findings is that reforms that lead to a lower level of institutional complementarity are likely to have a significant negative impact on economic growth. The change in formal institutions brought about by reforms should therefore not be allowed to outpace the (slower) change in informal institutions. In Ukraine and Moldova the likely consequence of ongoing discontinuities in the pace of institutional change could be an increase in corruption and political instability. Reform programmes should therefore focus as much on informal institutions as on formal institutions in the design of policy, in order to create stable democratic change and functioning market economies. For example, the development of endogenous institutions and incentives to eliminate the deeply-rooted tolerance for corruption would contribute greatly to the elimination of the “governance gap” between these countries and the EU (Bartlett et al., 2013).

[Policy inference 4.3: In countries such as the Ukraine and Moldova reform programmes supported by the European Neighbourhood Policy should focus as much on informal institutions as on formal institutions.]

Part (2013b) states that cooperative predisposition of the population and public trust of politicians who negotiate and decide on matters of European integration are very important within the context of Europeanisation and EN policies. At the level of individuals, social capital gives people a sense of confidence and security, thus compensating partly for the shortage of money in hard times. However, the case of Southern European Countries that are suffering from political and economic crises, shows that their deficiencies in institutional quality, elite compliance with legal and ethical norms and cooperative attitudes have not been accordingly addressed.

Trust levels tend to increase along with overall economic development and growing incomes, indicating that general pro-growth policies could benefit the creation of social capital. However, policy makers should keep in mind that in countries with low initial welfare levels the effect of growth might be the opposite: in several EU neighbouring countries (e.g. Serbia, Ukraine, Croatia) higher incomes are associated with lower institutional trust and lower acceptance of social norms. In some new member states (e.g. Bulgaria, Hungary, Latvia, Poland) institutional trust has been even lower than in ENCs, even though these countries are already in the phase of development where growing incomes favour higher institutional trust.
Political authorities could also encourage values that contribute to the development of social capital, such as acceptance of social norms, more cooperative attitudes, supporting various forms of voluntary work, etc. In this respect, compliance of political and business elites with legal and ethical norms has critical importance, as the rest of the public tend to follow the elite’s value orientations. Elite compliance can be promoted through actions that strengthen the rule of law, public awareness and transparent budgeting, while discouraging rent-seeking and free-rider attitudes.

In sum, it is not easy to provide uniform policy recommendations for all countries on how to support the creation of social capital. The policies which aim at supporting social capital creation should adjust to the peculiarities of each country and focus on country-specific deficiencies. These peculiarities, including institutional capacity and governance performance, depend on the overall level of economic and democratic development of a specific country, so respective policies should be continuously revised and adjusted.

[Policy inference 4.4. The ENP needs to support political authorities in ENCs to promote values that contribute to the development of social capital, such as strengthening the rule of law, improving transparency, and discouraging rent-seeking and free-riding.]

6.3 Benefits of social capital for innovation
Lebedeva and Schmidt’s (2012) research on values and attitudes to innovation among Canadian, Chinese and Russian students found that there are cultural differences in value priorities:

- Russians prefer the values of Self-Enhancement more often than Canadians do, but the latter prefer values of Self-Transcendence more often than Russians do. Chinese students prefer values of Conservation more often than Russians and Canadians.
- Russians and Canadians prefer values of Openness to Change more often than Chinese students do. These differences, in our opinion, reflect differences in the Traditionalism-versus-Modernism continuum, with Chinese culture tending to be closer to the pole of Traditionalism, whereas the cultural patterns of Russians and Canadians lean towards Modernism.
- There are significant cultural differences in innovative attitudes among Canadian, Russian and Chinese college students. Canadian and Russian’ attitudes towards innovation are more positive, while the Chinese are less positive.
- There are certain universal relationships in the three cultural groups, with the values of Openness to Change being conducive to innovative attitudes, and the values of Conservation impeding them. This conclusion is compatible with the results obtained by other researchers (Shane, 1992, 1995; Dollinger, Burke & Gump, 2007).
- There are culturally specific features in some relations of values and innovative attitudes: thus, among Russians the values of Achievement positively relate to innovative attitudes, among Canadians, values of Benevolence negatively relate to innovative attitudes and among Chinese values of Self-Direction have no relation with attitudes towards innovation. We explain these differences by culturally specific value priorities and implicit theories of creativity and innovation.
- The type of Values-Innovation mediation is different in the three countries. Whereas in Russia and Canada values fully mediate the effects of gender and age, this is not true for the effect of gender in China, which also has a direct effect on innovation.
• The regression coefficients of age and gender on values differ between Canada, China and Russia, which reflect cultural differences in the impact of age and gender on value priorities.

We may suppose that in societies where people value tradition, security, conformity (values of Conservation in the Schwartz model) any innovation can cause fear, anxiety and mistrust, therefore it is obvious that values of Conservation are negatively connected with acceptance of innovation (Lebedeva and Schmidt, 2012). Values of Openness to Change on the contrary positively influence acceptance of innovation. Gender differences might play their role in cultures that are more traditional: women tend to be more suspicious toward innovation.

The findings that there are culturally specific and gender–related relations of values with attitudes about innovation means that we must consider specific features of a culture when introducing innovative patterns to it (Lebedeva and Schmidt, 2012).

[Policy inference 4.5: ENP measures should focus on supporting a cooperative attitude and restoration of confidence in politicians in ENCs by increasing: (1) public participation, (2) transparency and (3) accountability in political decision-making.]

Akcomak and Muller-Zick (2013) reach two types of policy conclusions from the research on the relationship between trust and innovation. Social networks are good for economic outcomes, meaning governments should enhance participation in networks. The EU Framework R&D projects are good examples here, because most applications require a consortium. In this way professional and social links are established throughout the continent (and sometimes outside the continent), which in the long run are very important for diffusion of knowledge. Through this channel, social capital can be tied to innovation. So fostering (especially vertical) networks is a policy outcome. If the general trust or social capital index is used as an indicator, then the literature points to complementarity effects to argue either that governments should invest in human capital - since education has a great socialising element, or looks at the variables that form social capital/trust in the long run. If the research has a long-run view, then establishing formal institutions, as well as education, would support the creation of social capital in future.

This research is about the trust-innovation link. Given this, the policy implications are akin to the second observation (i.e., the complementarities and institutions as first best solutions). But in general, current EU policies that support the formation of networks (e.g., the Framework Programme), promote education (e.g., lifelong learning) and reduce heterogeneity (e.g., policies on social inclusion, inclusive growth) can foster trust in an indirect way. The new Horizon 2020 research programme set up is also conducive to social capital and trust since inter-disciplinarity is a strong aspect of the programme. Forcing scientists and policy makers of different backgrounds to come together would result in links across disciplines between and within regions, which is very important for the diffusion of knowledge (Akcomak and Muller-Zick, 2013).

[Policy inference 4.6: The European Neighbourhood Policy should promote school curricula that build capacity for and promote positive attitudes toward innovation.]

The results obtained by Ozman and Erdil (2013a) reveal strong interaction effects between cultural diversity, diversity in competencies and industry regime. The research highlights that the impact of cultural diversity on innovation depends upon technological opportunities, and the distribution of knowledge. According to the results, no significant effects of cultural diversity on
innovation are detected for low and high technological opportunity regimes. On the other hand, in general, both knowledge diversity and cultural diversity tend to reduce knowledge creation in industries characterised by intermediate levels of technological opportunities.

The underlying reason behind this result can be related to the networks of actors. In particular, it is found that, high degrees of cultural and knowledge diversity tends to reduce the extent of partnerships. According to the results of the simulation analysis, there is also an interaction effect between knowledge diversity and cultural diversity. In particular, the highest knowledge growth, and the highest level of interactions occur when both cultural diversity and knowledge diversity is at a minimum. This also implies that negative effects of cultural diversity can be offset by promoting cultural homogeneity.

There are various policy implications of these results. Firstly, since the impact of cultural diversity on innovation largely depends on the context of the industry, it is particularly important to consider the nature of knowledge creation in the specific context under question. By knowledge creation we mean the extent to which learning happens through knowledge transfer and de novo knowledge creation. Where both mechanisms determine learning, cultural diversity has a negative impact on innovation. However, in cases where cultural diversity is a necessity, the negative impacts can be offset by employing people/organisations who have similar competencies. In other words, a policy perspective which takes into account diversity in competencies is relevant to promote innovation, when considering the impacts of cultural diversity.

[Policy inference 4.7: EU policies should support the formation of vertical networks between organisations in EU Neighbouring Countries.]

Networks of actors also play an important role in this context. In this paper, networks are taken as the main mechanisms through which the impact of diversity manifests itself. In general, the extent of interactions between different actors contributes to learning. On the other hand, to the extent that partnerships are repeated between the same people/organisations, learning and new knowledge creation can be limited.

The findings of Erdil and Pamukcu (2013) point to the following policy implications: EU-related support seems to exert a significant effect on firm-level innovation activities in Turkey even though it accounts for less than 2% of the total public funding. It is worthwhile noting that EU-supported R&D projects are based on international collaborations, while only 1.5 % of R&D and innovation projects supported by national programmes are collaborative. Hence, existing support mechanisms should be strengthened and new policy instruments should be developed both for universities and private sector. Further research is necessary to investigate the success of EU-funded programmes on one hand – and the apparent failure of the schemes organised on the local (subnational) level, on the other.

[Policy inference 4.8: Policies arising from the ENP in support of innovation need to take into account diversity in firms’ competencies in ENCs.]
6.4 Influencing institutional quality in ENCs through the adoption of the ‘Aquis’

Research by Hlepas (2013c) finds that the adoption of “European acquis”, either through legal compliance of the regulative and legislative framework, or through “voluntary” domestic policies in the framework of new Governance arrangements (Open Method of Coordination, “White Paper of Governance”) has improved institutional quality and that it has a positive impact on economic development in EU and in the Neighbouring Countries.

In addition to the adoption of the Acquis, other factors that play an important role in institutional quality are the global financial crisis 2007/8, the public debt crisis of the European Southern countries running from 2008 until today, and domestic institutional governance reforms. Different waves and velocities of Europeanisation alongside external and internal driving forces, influence the significant path of institutional quality of each country. Divergent processes of Europeanisation in different countries or groups of countries reflect the “Goodness of Fit” or “Misfit”, along with the responses of domestic structures and actors to European and global driving forces.

However, even in cases of improved institutional quality, the analysis has shown important differences in government effectiveness, regulatory quality, rule of law and control of corruption, between countries. The legal compliance and adoption of formal criteria has to be complemented with effective implementation of policies, employing more legitimate governance arrangements.

[Policy inference 4.9: The EU should consider strengthening existing support mechanisms for knowledge transfer in ENCs.]

[Policy inference 4.10: EU policies should be adjusted to the particular characteristics of each country.]

Ozman and Erdil (2014) investigate the relationship between cultural diversity, knowledge diversity and innovation. High levels of cultural diversity are found to be one of the fundamental obstacles in the EU, in the management and coordination of the innovation processes in the European Region.

Cultural diversity has both potential advantages and disadvantages for innovation. The positive effects of cultural diversity are related to increased synergies and spillovers that arise from the association of different viewpoints, and increased opportunities for knowledge recombination. On the other hand, negative effects are related mostly to communication problems and problems which arise in conflict resolution. The research from which the following policy recommendations arise has focused on the interactions between industry characteristics, cultural diversity and knowledge diversity and their relationship to innovation.

The findings of our study provide insights for shaping policies that aim to increase innovation performance via collaborations. For example, in an industry lacking innovative success, the reason can be low levels of technological opportunities, rather than communication problems associated with high cultural diversity. If this is the case, policies aiming at effective knowledge diffusion may not be able to achieve their goals. Therefore we propose that an immediate policy consideration should be the prioritisation of sectors according to their technological opportunity levels.
In shaping innovation and collaboration policies, policy makers should consider the nature of knowledge regimes in specific contexts. In knowledge-intensive industries where innovation occurs through new knowledge creation, as in software and information and communication technologies, a culturally diverse population comprised of similar competences yields high innovation.

However, in low tech industries, where a knowledge regime predominantly favours knowledge diffusion with few opportunities for new knowledge creation, cultural diversity has a smaller impact on innovation. In such cases, complementarities between different competences should be emphasised. In other words, neither too much knowledge similarity nor knowledge diversity is beneficial, rather collaborations between actors of complementary competences yield high levels of innovation.

[Policy inference 4.11: The EU should place emphasis on the improvement of legal compliance of countries as well as their institutional capacity.]

[Policy inference 4.12: In both low tech and high tech industry contexts, the EU is advised to support collaboration between actors with similar competencies.]

6.5 Recognising the importance of national specificities in ENCs in institutional reform

Kaasa (2013b) finds that countries with a Communist background tend to have much lower levels of governance quality than western economies. Among the latter, Northern European countries have the highest and Southern European countries the lowest governance quality. Among the neighbouring countries, besides the three old western economies, no further lines based on geographical or historical background can be drawn. If the mean values of country groups are considered, a Communist history seems to have a strong influence on governance quality. Among the countries of Middle East, the governance quality in North African countries is comparable to the countries that were part of the former Soviet Union. More generally, governance quality is similar in geographically close countries. Hence, there is a strong need to improve governance quality in the countries of former Soviet Union and North Africa; and a move to create policies for improvements seems sensible.

[Policy inference 4.13: In high tech industries, the EU is advised to foster collaboration between culturally diverse actors.]

In the study by Bartlett and Popovski (2013) it was found that local governance and social cohesion are important political principles which feature prominently in Ukrainian politics but there are many obstacles to their effective implementation. Despite many discussions about the need for the reform of local government, both in political institutions as well as in civil society, there is no political will to draft an action plan with a view to implementing it. A divided political opposition and diminished civil society mean that there is little impetus to reform the system. The local political elite is still unable to take over the running of local government. The majority of them are still tuned into the centralised model and they do not have the political education to run their local councils independently. Both the psychology of local politicians and the administrative
structure still favour the centralised model. Centralisation has been taking place since 2010, and political and economic power is concentrated in the office of the President and the ruling elite.

The 2008 crisis, on top of the 20 years of economic problems, impoverished the majority of the Ukrainian population, exacerbating their retreat from the political sphere. They felt and still feel that the ruling elite does not want them in the corridors of power. They are invited and wooed to vote but are not encouraged to actively engage in politics. They also perceive the ruling elite as corrupt and guided by personal economic interests. The Ukrainian populace is also deterred from engaging actively in politics as a result of the need to concentrate on economic survival. Networks play an important role in developing and supporting these strategies. These networks are a backbone of the Ukrainian state and society, and as such they are a vital structure of, and play an important function in, all different groups of Ukrainian society. As much as they are helping some Ukrainians to survive they are also helping a smaller minority to enrich themselves.

Since Ukraine embraced market forces, financial transactions have become more important in these networks. Corruption has become endemic to Ukrainian society and has permeated not only the economic sphere but also public services such as education, health care and social services. As a result of political centralisation, lip service only is paid to the reform of local government. The process of centralisation, together with the economic recession and high levels of corruption is creating a fragmented society in which there are increasingly fewer connections between different groups in society.

In the light of this summary of our research results we recommend the following:
1. To discuss, amend and implement the draft laws of 2009; Draft Concept on Administrative and Territorial Structure Reform in Ukraine and the Concept of Local Self-Government.
2. To be able to fulfill the task above it is important to build capacity to discuss, amend and implement the draft laws:
   2.1. There are already provisions in the Ukrainian legislation and they need to be put into practice. To enable this there is a need to invest in human capital;
   2.1.1. To address the standard of education in primary and secondary schools, as well as regional differences, and differences in rural and urban areas.
   2.1.2. The number of universities has gone up and the level of education has gone down. The Bologna Agreement needs to be implemented. There is a brain-drain taking place, especially among the best educated.
   2.1.3. There is a need for citizenship or civic education. The ruling elite is still immersed in the Communist legacy and is there to rule not to serve. As a result, a majority of the population has withdrawn from the political sphere.
3. To address the high levels of corruption in Ukrainian society. Corruption has spread to all levels of Ukrainian society.
4. To invest in the development of civil society, which has diminished in the aftermath of the Orange Revolution.

In sum, Ukraine is a highly centralised state and a fragmented society. Political decisions are made by a small ruling elite that combines political and commercial interests. Centralisation has been taking place since 2010 and the ruling elite pays lip service to the reform of local government. As a result, the present political situation in Ukraine is characterised by the absence of decision-making. The Ukrainian ruling elite does not promote, let alone strengthen, local
government, capacity building and citizens’ democratic participation at local and regional levels. Civil society is too weak to put pressure on the President and the Parliament, and Ukrainian citizens show little interest in participation since they do not trust the ruling elite.

[Policy inference 4.14: The EU should cooperate with countries of the former Soviet Union and North Africa to improve governance quality in these regions.]

6.6 Use of social capital for entrepreneurship
Bartlett, Popa and Popovski (2013) state that the removal of barriers to entry and growth is an important focus of policy to stimulate entrepreneurship in the transition economies of ENP. Moldova and Ukraine still have a long way to go in liberalising their economies (Bartlett et al. 2012). The situation is not much different in the non-transition economies of North Africa. In all ENC economies therefore, liberalisation of the business environment is needed to stimulate the further development of small and medium enterprises (SMEs).

The state has an important constructive and supportive role to play in establishing the basic institutional framework in which entrepreneurship can flourish, new firms are encouraged to enter the market, and established firms have appropriate incentives to undertake investment and generate employment opportunities (Tyson et al. 1994; Smallbone and Welter, 2001b, 2010a, 2010b). In addition to macroeconomic stability and secure property rights, governments need to establish an effective institutional support structure for the development of the SME sector (Kolodko 2000). In particular the establishment of formal institutions to monitor and enforce competition, and reduce the ability of large monopolistic firms to stitch up local markets, is an important element of building an institutional framework supportive of a dynamic market economy and economic growth. The Croatian government began to develop an institutional support structure for SMEs in the 1990s, passing a Law on the Encouragement of Small Business Development in 2002. A national strategy for SMEs was adopted in Macedonia in 2002. As yet, such national strategies have not been adopted in the ENP countries.

However, progress with creating a formal institutional framework for the support for SMEs is not the whole of the story. Other missing ingredients include informal institutions, which can either promote or hinder the development of small businesses, including factors such as the extent of corruption, informal norms of business behaviour, and the size of the informal economy. In addition, the degree of interpersonal trust is an important factor. A legacy of ethnic tension can undermine such trust relationships and make it difficult for entrepreneurs to do business on the basis of arms-length anonymous contracting. Instead they are reduced to a smaller circle of business partners who they know personally and can trust to do business with them. Such trust is hard to rebuild if rent-seeking clan or social networks of the former nomenklatura elites reinforce the political connectedness between the large firm sector and the political elite. Such political connectedness supports the monopoly positions of local tycoons, and provides both overt and hidden barriers to small business entry and growth. This drives up business costs and reduces the quality of goods and services, reinforcing the lack of international competitiveness of most economies of the region. Policy makers will need to address these issues in a serious way if the potential of the small firm sector to promote economic growth, in an increasingly difficult global market environment, is to achieve its full potential.
Policy inference 4.15: EU policy-makers should consider supporting Ukraine in the discussion, amendment and implementation of draft laws of 2009 which emphasise: (1) the investment in education and implementation of the Bologna Agreement, (2) investment in citizenship and the development of civil society.

6.7 Policies for addressing the skills mismatch and labour market distortions in ENCs

The major finding of the study by Bartlett (2013) is that there is a different pattern of skill matching across education qualifications between transition economies and emerging economies in the ENP region. In most countries there is a clear divide between mid-level educated workers with secondary education, who suffer high levels of positive mismatch, and more highly educated workers with a university education who have a better experience in the labour market (as do workers with a very low level of education). This pattern is found in the transition economies such as Croatia and Moldova. It is similar for the Ukraine, with the exception that tertiary-educated workers also suffer high levels of positive mismatch and only a post-graduate qualification ensures easy access to a job. The picture is rather similar in Turkey, with the exception that there is a huge gender bias, with women facing a far greater degree of mismatch than men at almost all levels of qualification. Egypt shows a completely different pattern, with high levels of mismatch among all education groups. Among workers with primary education or lower, the level of negative mismatch is high, while among the more educated with secondary and tertiary levels of education, the level of positive mismatch is high.

Policies need to address the high level of mismatch in the middle level of education achievement. This means reforming secondary vocational schools to replace out-dated curricula and improve the efficiency of school systems. Policy makers need to make the necessary changes to education and training systems. To this end, vocational education systems need to adapt or be reformed. Appropriate changes need to be made in the curricula, in the reallocation of teachers between subjects, in teacher retraining and in school restructuring.

Higher education systems also need attention since there is a growing demand for highly skilled workers, evidenced by the high level of mismatch of university graduates. Even though enrollment in universities has increased, there appears to be much scope for further growth at the tertiary level. However, any further expansion of tertiary education also needs to be well regulated to ensure that the quality of the education experience does not decline.

At the same time, the capacity of the public administration to carry out labour market forecasts or skills forecasts is limited by budget cuts, caps on public sector employment, and a lack of statisticians and labour market experts to carry out the analyses. Contracting out of services may to some extent overcome such limitations, but will not completely solve it. The first priority therefore is to carry out capacity building within public administration to enable appropriate staff carry out, and use, skill mismatch analyses and macroeconomic and sector skill forecasts.

Yet, even if the macro- or sector-level skill forecasts are carried out, and education and training systems are adapted, reformed and restructured, such a top-down approach may still fail to address skill mismatches: future demand for skills may not match projections due to unexpected technological and structural change. For this reason, ENCs should also consider using subsidies to ensure a greater degree of skill matching, especially for adult training and retraining purposes,
and to supplement skills forecasts, which are especially useful for guiding long-term investments in the provision of initial education.

Finally, research has shown there are substantial and significant problems of mismatch that are common to the labour markets of both the EU Enlargement and EU Neighbourhood countries. Some specific policy measures could help to reduce this including (i) incentives for older less-skilled workers to retrain and for firms to carry out more and better in-house training for workers of all skill levels; (ii) reform of the secondary and vocational education systems, especially in transition countries; (iii) measures to improve the labour market matching for women workers, such as provision of publicly-provided nursery and kindergarten education for young children especially in the emerging market countries; (iv) encouragement to employers to take on younger skilled workers through job subsidies and internships; and (v) provision of improved skill forecasts to professionals in career and education guidance for adults as well as school leavers.

[Policy inference 4.16: To stimulate entrepreneurship in the small firm sector in the EU neighbourhood, policy makers need to address issues that undermine trust relationships such as a legacy of ethnic tensions, rent-seeking clans or social networks of the former nomenklatura elites that reinforce the political connectedness between the large firm sector and the political elite.]

[Policy inference 4.17: The EU should consider supporting educational reform policies in the Ukraine to address the skills mismatch by updating curricula and improving efficiency of secondary vocational schools.]
6.8 Law harmonisation under the ENP

Harpaz (2013) discusses the approximation of laws under the ENP. He states that, first, the ENP’s lack of definition and legal clarity, and the flexible nature of mechanisms under which the EU sets out the terms that must be met by ENCs participating in ENP programmes, reduces its effectiveness. Second, this light legalism, coupled with a lack of “joint ownership” between the EU and the NCs in formulating and implementing the ENP is not all negative, because there are positive repercussions of these features. Third, the EU should offer a much more comprehensive and generous set of incentives to overcome objections of interest groups in ENC that want to veto cooperation. Fourth, conditions should be re-oriented more towards trade and regulatory expectations, as opposed to political expectations. This reorientation is especially warranted vis-à-vis ENCs such as Israel, where strong veto players exist. However, given that the ENCs have no prospect of becoming EU Member States in the short and medium term and in light of the (almost ten years) failure of the ENP to offer alternative meaningful incentives, it will be very difficult for the EU to re-establish, at least in the short-term, the credibility of the ENP’s positive conditionality.

This difficulty, which is being accentuated during the current crisis in European leadership, in economic and monetary matters, and the ensuing rise in Euro-scepticism, only underscores the important role of social learning and institution building in positioning the ENP to serve as a robust, comprehensive, consistent and long-lasting (economic and political) anchor for reform. The EU should do more to establish enhanced cooperation, closer institutional links and networks between the EU technocracy and the technocracies of the various ENCs. Such links and networks may better succeed in advancing, on an ad hoc basis, alignment on specific-issues relating to trade, and depoliticising moves towards regulatory and legislative alignment. The EU’s Twinning programmes and the full or partial opening of other EU programmes and institutions to ENC’s could be an important move. As this research has attempted to establish, the EU is continuing to overcome challenges in the spheres of social learning and institution building. (Harpaz, 2013).

[Policy inference 4.18: The EU should consider supporting Ukraine in reducing skills mismatch in the Ukrainian labour market with specific policies for: (1) retraining workers, (2) encouraging firms to retrain workers in-house, (3) investment in and regulation of educational reforms, (4) improvement of conditions for women workers by public provision of childcare such as nursery and kindergarten, (5) supporting employers to take on younger skilled workers through job subsidies and internships, and (6) improving skills forecasting for future labour market requirements.]

[Policy inference 4.19: The EU should offer a much more comprehensive and generous set of incentives to reinforce the mechanisms of positive conditionality and overcome veto players in the NCs.]

[Policy inference 4.20: Trade incentives to influence the formation of democracy and the promotion of human rights in European Neighbouring Countries should be re-oriented towards reform of trade and regulatory practices, rather than used as incentives for purely political reforms.]
The results obtained by Lopez-Tamayo et al. (2013) in their research on the effects of the ENP on the institutional, social and economic performance of EU neighbouring countries show that:

(a) there are significant differences among countries in the ISEPI index;
(b) ENC countries are at the bottom of the league;
(c) there are some differences between those countries located in the south of European Union and those located in the east;
(d) between 1995 and 2011, only developed and European Union countries registered an improvement in the ISEPI index.;
(e) a convergence process to a single steady-state is not observed in the global ISEPI index;
(f) a conditional convergence process has occurred during the period. At an individual level, only in the Macroeconomic Environment and Quality of life and labour market conditions has the speed of convergence speed been improved.

The results indicate that ENP has had different effects on different measures in the index and that the evolution of neighbouring countries is heterogeneous.

From a policy perspective, these results reinforce the validity of the bilateral action plans that have characterised ENP, recognising the different starting point and particular characteristics of each neighbouring country.

[Policy inference 4.21: The EU should do more to establish closer institutional links and networks between the EU technocracy and the technocracies of the various NCs.]

In relation to the European Neighbourhood Policy targets for harmonising intellectual property rights within and beyond the European Union, Favale and Borghi (2013) make the following recommendations:

- There should be an end of the ‘one size fits all’ approach to international harmonisation of IPR, and the adoption of a more balanced approach. This will have positive effect on successful implementation of the obligations agreed in the Action Plans and in the related bilateral agreements. This approach has to be pursued with greater determination, especially in the field of ‘automatic’ IPR, i.e. rights that do not depend upon registration and examination, that is copyright and related rights, unregistered designs.
- Presently, all bilateral agreements between the EU and ENCs include a ‘safeguard clause’ whereby restrictions on trade can be imposed on the grounds of protecting IPR. This has the effect of restricting the parallel import of IPR-protected goods from ENCs to EU and vice versa, which is a serious barrier to trade. There is a need to explore the possibility of repealing or modifying the ‘safeguard clause’ with respect to those ENCs that show a level of IPR comparable to that of the EU (in our analysis: Israel and Jordan).
- Most of the bilateral agreements stress the importance of law approximation and set detailed targets in this respect. It is suggested the focus on IPR protection should be shifted to aspects that are more directly relevant to inter-state trade; most importantly this requires the coordination of judicial procedures and enforcement mechanisms.
- Progress has been made in the coordination of financial assistance to develop IPR agencies. Such financial assistance should be paralleled with administrative support from
EU agencies (for example, the Office for Harmonisation in the Internal Market and other inter-European institutions (e.g. the European Patent Office).

[Policy inference 4.22: The EU should continue its implementation of bilateral action plans which take into account the different starting points and characteristics of each NC.]

[Policy inference 4.23: It is suggested that consideration is given to the possibility of repealing or modifying the ‘safeguard clause’ for IPR.]

[Policy inference 4.24: Policies should shift the focus of bi-lateral agreements on intellectual property rights protection to become more directly relevant to inter-state trade; these include, above all, coordination of judicial procedures and enforcement mechanisms in European Neighbouring Countries.]
7. Testing SEARCH Policies

The previous section examined in detail a series of 77 individual policy inferences for separate issues (trade, etc.) that resulted from several rounds of internal review by researchers to ensure maximum coverage and clarity of the policy issues. We feel confident that the processes used have yielded a useful set of policy findings. However, we also worked from the proposal stage onwards to test policy findings by other methods of evaluation. This should help us understand more clearly how individual policy inferences fit within broader frames of reference.

To answer these questions, we conducted three additional policy tests: External expert review, Text-mining, and Modelling of policy impacts.

The principal value of expert comments is to get an ENC perspective of the relative feasibility and applicability of evidence-based policy inferences. We wish to know how the issues raised by our research might fare in the policy world and in various ENC settings. To this end, we have conducted an online questionnaire survey of policy experts and officials in the ENP East and South. We also used our final policy conference to get feedback from participant stakeholders, policy officials, EC representatives and SEARCH members.

7.1 Policy Expert Scoring
To understand the relevance of the policies, we conducted an online questionnaire survey of stakeholders, advisory committee members and regional experts, asking them:

- How relevant are individual policy concepts to ENC regions? Which concepts are seen as applicable by external ENC experts and which not?
- How do broad categories of policy overlap in terms of shared concepts? Are there potential complementarities?
- How effective are distinct portfolios of policy concepts in generating growth and development? Which offer the likeliest payoffs?

We therefore posed these three questions to each, asking for a Likert-scale score for 39 policies, and invited further comment as desired. The three questions were:

1. How well does this kind of policy fit the circumstances of your region? (5=Perfect fit, 1=Does not fit)
2. How likely is this kind of policy to benefit your region? (5=High benefits, 1=No benefits)
3. How easy would it be to implement/accommodate this kind of policy in your region? (5=Very Easy, 1=Very Difficult)

The 39 policies to which these questions were applied were those judged by SEARCH members to be the most interesting, novel or provocative of all the 77 policy recommendations arising from the SEARCH project. In all, 12 trade policies (A), 11 migration policies (B), 7 technology policies (C), and 9 institutional policies (D) were scored by regional experts. The overall relevance of these policies can be judged by the equally-weighted sum of overall score averages for fit, benefit and difficulty. Considering first the four groups of policy types, (C)
knowledge/innovation policies were on average seen as most relevant (4.16), followed by (A) trade (3.78), (B) migration/mobility (3.74), and (D) institutions (3.66). The top ranking of knowledge/innovation policies by regional experts confirms the aims the SEARCH project, as laid out in the Quality Plan (p. 6): “The main objective of this project is to strengthen the integration process between the EU and the NCs by focusing on the European Research Neighbourhood (ERN) [...].” The importance of this European Research Area (ERA) analogue re-emerges at several points in this document.

The individual policies scored highest by experts deserve the greatest attention. No policy from the innovation group scored lower than 24th of 39; and while the mobility/migration group was third among the four groups in average overall score, two of its remittance-related policies (B9 and B10) are among the Top Five most relevant policies, which in rank order are:

C7. The European Neighbourhood Policy should take account of regional differences in the innovation capacities of European Neighbourhood Countries in the formulation of its policies.

B10. European Neighbourhood Policy needs to lower barriers to remittances by reducing transfer costs and removing double taxation.

C1. The European Neighbourhood Policy should support the channels through which knowledge diffuses by formulating policies for: (1) the promotion of a mutual understanding of cultures and languages and (2) a balanced mobility of students between the EU and European Neighbourhood Countries, both in the academic and the industrial spheres.


A5. EU policy makers should consider increasing technical assistance and investments to European Neighbourhood Countries for long-term improvements in the quality of institutions that support company formation and growth.

As the experts who scored policies responded principally from the East ENC region, the following discussion is based on their assessments. The policies scored by policy experts are presented in charts that show the most (highest score) to least (lowest score) relevant policy along the black asterisk-punctuated line depicting average overall scores. This overall score comprises three different dimensions: how well experts consider policies fit their region (yellow line), the likely benefits to their region (blue line), and the difficulty/ease of implementing or accommodating the policy in their region (red line). The three individual charts show the rank-order slope of the average overall line, but also reveal some differences that represent possible trade-offs between fit, benefit and difficulty. In general, fit and benefit scores lie above the average score line, while ease of implementation is reflected in generally lower scores, a pattern that holds true for all but one policy (B9).

Having reorganised the data in charts for individual components, we first note high scores for each component: scores for benefits meet or exceed 4.5 for nine policies, fit meets/exceeds for six policies, while ease of implementation attains this high score for only one policy. At the lowest score range, ease of implementation scored 3.0 or lower for seven policies, while comparably low scores for policy fit applied twice and policy benefit dropped to a score of 3.0 only once. The
charts included at the end of this section show the highest (and lowest) score for each policy by the three scoring criteria.

The five policies that attained the highest *average* overall score were also among the 14 policies that met or exceeded 4.5 for one component. The nine remaining policies that might also be among the first to be considered for implementation by ENCs include:

Policies with best Fit to Region (score>=4.5)

A5. EU policy makers should consider increasing technical assistance and investments to European Neighbouring Countries for long-term improvements in the quality of institutions that support company formation and growth.
D1. EU policy measures under the European Neighbourhood Policy should support the formation of institutional capacities and sound governance in European Neighbouring Countries.
D3. The European Neighbourhood Policy should promote school curricula that build capacity for, and promote positive attitudes towards, innovation.

Policies most Beneficial to Region (Score>=4.5)

A5. EU policy makers should consider increasing technical assistance and investments to European Neighbouring Countries for long-term improvements in the quality of institutions that support company formation and growth.
A8. Reforms to government expenditure, property rights, and the legal system should be a priority for EU policies, in order to promote Foreign Direct Investment in European Neighbouring Countries.
A10. The SEARCH finding that Foreign Direct Investment from the EU creates strong prospects for future growth should be highlighted in briefing papers and discussions between EU and European Neighbouring Country negotiators.
A12. European Neighbourhood and Partnership Instruments and related programme supports should not be promoted broadly, but targeted based on the quality of local infrastructures, capabilities, and regional institutions, as well as specific assets of key regions (at national as well as sub-national levels).
B3. Policies should support the participation of highly skilled workers in both EU and European Neighbourhood Country research networks.
B10. European Neighbourhood Policy needs to reduce barriers to remittances by reducing transfer costs, such as fees and double taxation.

Policy makers doubtless recognise that difficulty in implementation can often compromise otherwise desirable policies. Regional experts have scored the policies from their perspective, but their views must be aligned with the views of EU negotiators, who may find others equally appealing. Clearly, there are tradeoffs between the desirability of an ENP policy and the difficulty of implementing it from the ENC perspective. This difficulty emerged from the very beginning of the ENP and continued up to the Ukrainian original unwillingness to sign the EU Association Agreement in early 2014.
### 7.2 Istanbul Roundtables

The Final Policy Conference\(^6\) assembled a large group of policy officials in Turkey for presentations and discussions on the policy implications derived from the SEARCH Project and Neighbouring Country contexts. Policy officials and attendees had the advantage of reading sections of this Policy Guide in advance. We took the opportunity to record relevant comments and suggestions that arose during discussions of the policy concepts. The thrust of these comments are included here, in the conclusions of this report, and in the Public Policy Report: *How the European Neighbourhood Policy can strengthen integration between the European Union and Neighbourhood Countries: New Policy Directions*.

The presentation of policy findings was warmly received by invited conference panellists and guests, including SEARCH advisory committee members and the EC project officer, who judged the findings to be relevant to the Horizon 2020 programme and to the newly elected EU parliament.

The selection of Istanbul as the conference venue proved to be appropriate, since Turkey effectively separates the East from the South ENCs. This helped to highlight the differences between the two sets of countries, as the comments and insights of panellists and delegates underlined during discussions. Foremost are certainly language, alphabet, and culture, which for the East ENCs are more similar to EU member states. This was underscored within the SEARCH project by our inability to find reliable research partners or conduct surveys in any Maghreb or Mashreq country along the lines of those carried out in Ukraine, and by the lack of response to our scoring survey among known English-speaking officials in the ENC South. This experience lends further weight to policies discussed above that favour a key language component of ENP: EU policy makers should *promote Francophone in relevant Southern Partnership countries* (see also Autant-Bernard and Chalaye 2013 from this project). Moreover, the development of new technologies opens new opportunities to teach and exchange knowledge with ENCs in a common language. Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCs) could in particular be used as a strategic tool to reinforce Francophone and permit deeper connections with these countries.

In addition to possible language mismatches, comments from panellists indicate that a contributing cause of non-responsiveness is the very small and overworked base of informed officials in the South, who lack the resources to deal with the workloads imposed during bilateral negotiations with EC officials and donor groups. This is compounded by frayed governance and information systems. Indeed, ongoing efforts to install and operate rudimentary information systems in Maghreb countries seem to have made little headway, even as demands for such information mount steadily. This highlights a policy issue that was not explicitly explored during the SEARCH project, but was reflected in the near-impossibility for researchers of gathering key national data and sub-national basic data at regional levels (where policy differences can matter a great deal). Rejecting the one-size-fits-all approach requires differences to be scoped and understood, but this has not been carried out in most ENCs. Much more

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\(^6\) See Appendix IV for Final Policy Conference Program
assistance and advice must be given ENCs to help them develop important data collection and management capacities.

The presentation of results from our Policy Impact Model (7.4 below) at the conference illustrated both the data collection system and policy institutions Turkey has succeeded in developing (TUBITAK, tepav, TOBB, etc.). This made it possible to demonstrate just how much its regions differ from one to the other in terms of policy response, enabling policies to be tailored accordingly. A presentation tracing the transformation that was set in train by Turkey’s 1980 policy reforms—including the urbanisation this triggered—demonstrated vividly how important these reforms have been. From level pegging in economic terms at the point of reform, Turkey has moved decisively ahead of Egypt. However, Turkey has been outpaced by South Korea, which began its programme of industrialisation and economic development from a similar base and at the same time—as the Turkish reform process slowed. Despite this failure to keep up with an Asian counterpart, Turkey’s experience with reforms and EU convergence deserves greater attention from ENC policymakers. The country and its regions can serve as an exemplar for how early reforms may be carried out and of their potential benefits.

7.3 Text-mined Policy Complementarities
Following on from the expert testing of policy concepts, the similarities or differences within and across the major policy groups, were evaluated in a text mining exercise, in which the frequency and connectedness of key words and terms embedded in policy statements was evaluated.

This testing of “connectedness” is done by assembling the texts of individual work packages 2-5 into a master file of all words found in the Policy Notes and Policy Brief texts. In the end, we had five files of “content words” for each work package 2-5, plus a single file of the sum of work packages 2-5.

We examined further policy-relevant connections by analysing a matrix of source documents according to the rank frequency of all unique and meaningful “content words”—which together number about 2,500—found in the full collection of 81 policy documents. This data base is one to which relatively conventional analytic approaches can be applied, in this case Principal Components Analysis (PCA). PCA detects patterns of co-occurring words or phrases across documents, such that each individual set of co-occurrences is classified as a distinct (orthogonal) “component”. Every component is identified by its set of co-occurring words—according to their strength of association—and the component is rated in terms of how much of the overall co-occurrence (variance) it represents. Finally, PCA permits one to determine which of the 81 documents are most closely associated with the underlying concepts embedded in each component. Taken together, one can better understand the connections between the various document types (e.g., trade vs. mobility) and the concepts embedded in each, thereby highlighting complementarities and overlaps.

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7 See Appendix II, “Text acquisition and analysis” for details.
8 This highly simplified account should be supplemented with a more authoritative and complete description of how PCA is performed and interpreted, e.g. (http://support.sas.com/publishing/pubcat/chaps/55129.pdf).
Applying PCA generated the following results: First, a series of six distinct components was extracted from the word frequency data, where components 1-4 provide the strongest evidence. These are depicted in the following graphic, which represents the numerical results visually. The size of each component circle is roughly proportional to the numerical amount of total co-occurrence (e.g., 8.310 for PC1 vs. 0.795 for PC6), while (in proportion in the diagram) width lines link the ovals associated with each important “content word” shared across several documents (e.g., PC1’s strongest connection is to “trade” oval=57.69). Positive value lines mean much higher than average shared co-occurrence, while negative lines indicate much less than average. We can also see that some important words are important elements of more than one component, either higher or lower than average, although each component consists of unique word, and therefore concept, combinations.
Principal Components with Eigenvalue (Standard Deviation^2) - the Cumulative Variance is 0.605
Value of edge is the word score
We also know which of 81 specific policy documents are associated most closely with each component, which means these documents are the ones most likely to provide complementary information about the useful combinations of policy terms. We focus on the first 10 and second 10 most closely associated documents (as classified by the SEARCH work package group, e.g., trade, etc. that produced them) to detect cross-policy complementarities.

The following table is organised into 6 major columns, one for each component. Within each component column is a measure of the strength of association for the strongest specific documents 1-10 and 11-20, ranked from top to bottom. Documents with 2, 3, 4 or 5 in the third position represent those focused on trade, mobility, knowledge and institutions, respectively. These are colour coded when viewed in digital formats. The lower portion of each component column summarises the number by type of documents in the most closely associated 1-10 ranked and the next most closely associated 11-20 ranked. Considering the most closely associated documents only, we see that PC1 is dominated by documents produced by the trade working papers, while PC4 is dominated by the mobility working group papers. PC2 and PC3 show an even spread across all four working groups, while PC5 and PC6 are more influenced by the knowledge and mobility work groups, respectively.
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What does this analysis reveal about policy complementarities overall? The easiest way to see this is to examine separately the complementary policy concepts for each of the components and the set of documents with which they are most closely associated. Looking at the components, starting from most and ending with least important, it can be seen trade drives the largest and most important set of policy complementarities, while various forms of innovation arise in four of the six policy components. Documents from Trade, Mobility/Migration or Knowledge dominate one or more components, but are absent in others, while Institutions do not dominate any component but are present in all of them.

Policy Component 1: Dominant Trade Concepts
Trade policy concepts clearly dominate this important component, followed closely by repeated mention of the European Union and the European Neighbourhood Policy. Integration and a focus on policy also feature in this component but are less significant. This combination of concepts is reinforced by noting that 9 of the 10 most closely associated documents originate from the trade working group, the sole exception being a single document from the institutions working group. This set clearly reflects trade as the dominant incentive driving initial efforts to implement ENP as an effective EU integration policy among neighbours, showing little interaction with other policy concepts.

Policy Component 2: Knowledge-based Innovation Concepts
The transmission of knowledge and innovation is an important policy objective, which obviously depends heavily upon mobility policies, but which remains wholly unrelated to trade. It is important to keep the clear distinction between the first two sets of policy concepts in mind when considering the possibility of complementarities. The overall sense of this set of policy concepts is reinforced by the clear majority of associated documents that originated with the knowledge diffusion and mobility working groups. The cluster of policies that associate with knowledge/innovation provide the opportunity to consider a number of new policies to help establish and support the European Research Neighbourhood.

Policy Component 3: Major ENP Concept
This component is defined more by what is not addressed by the document language than what is: once again the concepts embedded here are wholly unrelated to trade. In addition the words “growth” and “development” are unrelated to this component. The only two terms that keep re-occurring in this component are ENP and major, which by themselves do not reveal much. Consulting the frequency distribution of all co-occurrences of “major” and “ENP” among the 13,500 word pairs found across the 81 documents, the combined term “major ENP” arises 11 times, but no other word preceded by the word “major” occurs more than 3 times. Assuming the term “ENP” precedes other important terms of interest, the same frequency distribution finds seven two-word combinations in which ENP precedes another word five or more times in all documents: growth (which we already know is wholly unrelated), region, state, and undertaking (5 mentions each); south (6), east (8), and countries (140). Therefore, this concept component probably reinforces the major importance of ENP to the various geographies mentioned immediately above.

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9 The strong distinctions revealed here are further pursued in the policy model simulation tests discussed below.
Policy Component 4: Migration and Innovation
Concepts here overlap policy component 2 somewhat in its focus on innovation, although this component stresses migration (not mobility) and is wholly unrelated to knowledge acquisition or transmission. The innovative component is embodied in the human capital flows of migrants, which is wholly unrelated to “product” or “adoption” effects on innovation capacities. The component is dominated by selected documents produced by the mobility/migration working group, with none from the knowledge working group.

Policy Component 5: Innovation Adoption
This is the third policy component with a unique stress on innovation, this time focusing on innovation adoption. Research, knowledge or mobility sources of innovation do not feature. Documents originating in the knowledge and institutions work groups are most closely associated with this policy concept.

Policy Component 6: Mobility and Innovation
In contrast to policy component 4, innovation in policy component 6 is closely connected to mobility, not to migration. Nor is innovation associated here with the terms capital, quality or policy. Five of the top 10 associated documents originate in the mobility/migration working group, five other documents come from the knowledge or institutions work groups.

Each of the six policy components provides a working hypothesis about important complementarities among policy concepts examined in SEARCH documents. Further efforts to specify a portfolio of policy elements could start with any of the component documents of interest, proceeding next to detailed examination of the most closely associated documents for further clarification. As seen below, a subset of all related documents is sufficiently complementary to be included in two or more components. Further, there is no measureable connection between the documents that comprise PC1 and PC3 (mainly Trade/FDI) and those in PC2, PC4, PC5 and PC6 (mainly Innovation). These represent quite different and perhaps alternative policy approaches, a distinction we exploit further in the following section.
Principal Components with Eigenvectors - the Cumulative Variance is 0.605
Value of edge is the PC loading (documents)
7.4 Policy Impact Analysis using the Geographic Macro and Regional Turkey Model

Economic modelling makes it possible to simulate the likely impacts of different kinds of policies, providing a platform for comparing policy options. The Geographic Macro and Regional (GMR) modelling approach, previously applied to analyses of the impact of the EU’s Cohesion policy and Framework R&D Programme, at an EU-level, at a country level using the case of Hungary, and at a regional level, was applied to test some of the SEARCH policy recommendations.

Turkey was chosen for the impact analysis because of the availability and reliability of data to feed into the model. Though data collection for Turkey in not without shortcomings, it is of higher quality than other ENP countries (with the exception of Israel, which cannot be considered as a typical ENP country). While Turkey is an accession country, some of its economic, social and cultural features make it reasonably comparable to many of the ENP countries.


The SEARCH policy recommendations were grouped into two, forming the bases of two alternative scenarios of regional economic development, namely the Conservative scenario and the Technology development scenario. The Conservative development approach aims to strengthen existing patterns of trade and FDI structures, as well as migration and current labour markets, with a particular focus on regions of the least-able ENC countries. In contrast, the technology development scenario focuses more on the potential of ENC regions that has not yet been exploited, for example the scope for institutional development, labour mobility, technology adoption and the development of technological and innovation capabilities.

In the simulations, we ran the two scenarios separately for a selected Turkish region, to assess their likely impacts on regional GDP, national GDP and regional inequalities in Turkey. These results then provide the basis of a comparison of the effectiveness of the two sets of SEARCH policy options. The selected region is TR72 Kayseri-Sivas-Yozgat Region, which we refer to as the Kayseri Region. The map below shows its location.
The Kayseri Region is considered as representative of many ENP regions, providing the opportunity to test the following two policy approaches, as suggested by SEARCH Project findings:
- A Conservative scenario: ENP countries should intensify trade relationships with Central and Eastern Europe (CEE) regions, where competition is less fierce.
- A Technology development scenario: ENP countries should develop regional innovation infrastructures (human capital, R&D, international networking, etc.) that are needed to become more competitive in global markets.

Funding for the interventions in the simulations is based on the 2014-2020 budget of the Instrument for Pre Accession (IPA) of the EU. We assumed that the TR72 region achieves the same success rate in being awarded IPA finance for its future projects as in the previous planning period, which was about 15%. We therefore designed two SEARCH policy scenarios where different distributions of the same total IPA funding is assumed. In order to provide a context for the two SEARCH policy scenarios we added a third scenario in which we assumed that the distribution of the IPA budget across policy measures follows the same pattern as it did from 2007 - 2013. We call this scenario the Current IPA scenario. IPA projects were categorised into three classes: support for private investment, R&D funding, and the promotion of human resources development (education). The table below presents the different allocation of support for the whole period in the Kayseri region. In all the three scenarios we assumed an even distribution of financial support across each year of the 2014-2020 planning period.

In the Conservative scenario we assumed that the IPA budget is mainly used for supporting investment in traditional industries that are considered competitive in those member states joining the EU from 2007 onwards. Thus, we allocated the total budget to investment support. Based on suggestions in other SEARCH papers, in designing the Technology development scenario it was assumed the total IPA budget is allocated equally between the three categories considered: investment support, R&D funding and human resources development.

In addition to these regional policy measures we included other policy instruments in the scenarios. In the Conservative scenario we assumed the central government of Turkey takes steps to intensify trade with CEE EU countries by easing export regulations and also that a new highway is constructed to improve connections between the Kayseri region and the Black Sea port of Samsun, with the result that transport costs for products from the Kayseri region fall, increasing their competitiveness in CEE markets. It is assumed in the simulations that the new road is open from the beginning of 2018.

In the Technology development scenario, the set of financial instruments is extended by specific, innovation-related measures suggested by SEARCH studies. The first reflects policies targeting more successful participation in EU-funded research projects. We measure the quality of EU research networks by the ENQ (Ego Network Quality) index introduced by Sebestyén and Varga (2013). Higher values of this index reflect participation in higher quality networks, as measured by the number and initial knowledge of immediate research partners, their willingness to interact with each other, and the extent to which the immediate partners can help access novel knowledge by being connected to more distant partners in the whole EU research collaboration network. We
assumed that the Turkish Science & Technology policy and partnerships with the Horizon 2020 Programme are successful, increasing the ENQ index of the TR72 region by 10 percent over the seven-year time period.

The likely positive effects of remittances on human capital are also emphasised in some of the SEARCH project results. We assumed that a 1 percent increase in incomes from remittances increases the share of remittances spent on children’s education by 6.4 percent. In our scenario, policy to promote remittances successfully increases income from this source in the TR72 region by 10 percent over the seven year time period. We also assume that the Central government of Turkey finances a highway to better connect the Kayseri region to the core EU markets for its technology-based products, and that as a result transportation costs of products from Kayseri declines, increases their competitiveness in Western markets. It is assumed in the simulations that the new highway opens at the beginning of 2018.

As a benchmark, we first calculated the likely impacts at the regional level of a policy that paralleled the distribution of the IPA budget across the three main categories seen in the 2007-2013 planning period. Figure 1 presents scenario results on regional GDP. The values are percentage differences between GDP calculated following the Current IPA scenario and the GDP assumed in the case of no intervention (i.e., the baseline scenario). The red line depicts the impact of policy over time. Interventions are equally distributed across the years of the planning period. The first year a small impact is observed is 2015. Starting with this year, the impact on regional GDP increases until it peaks in 2021 and 2022, at about 0.12 percent. After 2022 the impact declines until it eventually flattens out after 2028 (not shown in the Figure). This long-term impact reflects changes induced by policy actions in the production structure of the regional economy. A higher stock of capital, some increase in the regional knowledge base and more educated people, bring regional output to a higher level.

Figure 1: The effect of the Current IPA scenario on TR72 GDP
Figure 2 presents the results of the Conservative scenario. It is assumed that the total IPA budget is allocated to investment support in traditional industries. As shown in the Figure the highest impact of investment support, as denoted by the dotted green line, is estimated for 2022 at a value of about 0.045 percent. Following policy suggestions in the SEARCH project, we also assumed that the Central government of Turkey successfully introduces policy measures to increase export demand. As indicated by the top dashed green line in the Figure, a two percent increase in exports will likely increase the peak impact in 2022 to about 0.075 percent. Improving accessibility to the Black Sea port in Samsun will start to increase regional GDP in 2022. As the Figure shows, the highway will increase the impact of export promotion policies over time. The peak total impact of all the policies included in the Conservative scenario is about 0.075, estimated for the year 2022.

![Percentage differences between scenario and baseline regional GDP](chart.png)

**Figure 2: The effect of the Conservative scenario on TR72 GDP**

Figure 3 depicts simulation results of the Technology development scenario. Investment support paired with R&D funding has a relatively minor impact compared to impacts observed in the previous two scenarios. The peak year is 2021 with an increase in regional GDP of about 0.0025 percent, as shown by the blue dotted line. However, it seems policies that aim to improve Horizon 2020 participation help bring new knowledge into the TR72 region, and with this new knowledge the utilisation of the R&D budget becomes more efficient, as depicted by the blue dashed line. As indicated in Table 3, one third of the IPA budget is allocated to human capital development. It seems that this policy is one of the most effective knowledge-based policies for the TR72 region. With investments in education, the peak impact in 2022 increases to 0.40 percent. According to the simulations, the 10 percent increase in income from remittances in the TR72 region over the planning period does not have meaningful impact on human capital and regional GDP. Also, improving accessibility by constructing a new highway does not seem to improve the GDP impact of knowledge based policies over the period under study.
In Figure 4 we compare the impacts of the three scenarios on regional GDP, national GDP and on regional inequalities. As before, the Current IPA scenario results are marked by the red lines, the Conservative scenario impacts by the green lines and the Technology scenario effects by blue lines. The Figure indicates that the Conservative scenario is not as effective as the Current IPA scenario. That is to say, pure investment support, even if paired with export promotion, does not seem to be more effective than the current policy for spending of the regional IPA budget. Figure 4 suggests that even in the Kayseri region, technology development seems to be a realistic option for policy. R&D and investment support, paired with better positioning in EU knowledge networks and investments in human capital could transform Kayseri into a more successful region of Turkey in the longer run. National-level impacts are also presented in Figure 4. The Technology development scenario results in the highest impact on both Turkey’s GDP and on regional cohesion.

The results suggest that in ENC regions where some potential already exists, the support of technological development via policies such as the promotion of innovation, R&D, human capital and international knowledge transfers is extremely important, decreasing regional inequalities and increasing growth at the regional and national levels.
Figure 4: Comparison of the effects of the three scenarios on regional GDP, national GDP and interregional inequalities
8. Concluding remarks: Advice and suggestions concerning use of the Final Policy Guide

This Policy Guide is intended to document the sources and evidence that lie behind the various policy inferences that arise from the SEARCH project. As such, it is likely to be of greatest service to policy officers and analysts in the various regional, national and EU organisations charged with implementing aspects of the ENP. The breadth of the SEARCH project findings found expression in 77 policy options that were extracted from over 100 working papers, Policy Notes, and Policy Briefs. These are submitted for full consideration by ENC, EU member states and EC officials in their ongoing recalibration of ENP policy approaches. This Guide is accompanied by a SEARCH project Public Policy Report that includes all the major recommendations, providing a “quick read” overview.

A series of internal reviews by SEARCH project members winnowed 77 policy options down to 39 that reaffirmed important lessons or presented novel or provocative ideas worthy of further consideration. At this point, the SEARCH Advisory Committee, along with invited ENC policy experts, provided valuable insights on how much these 39 might benefit ENC regions, how well they fit ENC circumstances, and how easily they might be implemented in ENC regions. Of these, 14 were singled out as being of the greatest potential relevance. From this 14 the following Top Five was selected:

1. The EU should factor regional differences in the innovation capacity of Neighbourhood Countries when formulating its policies.

2. The EU should make it more attractive for migrants to make remittances by reducing transfer fees and double taxation.

3. The European Neighbourhood Policy should aim to encourage the development of improved infrastructure for making electronic money transfers.

4. The EU should build channels for knowledge to diffuse within and between the European Neighbourhood Countries and the EU.

5. Increase technical assistance and investments in Neighbourhood Countries to promote the development of an innovation-friendly environment

Building on the distinctions found between broad policy portfolios that reflect traditional trade-oriented versus innovation/knowledge-oriented approaches, results from a regional growth simulation model reveal an important lesson: innovation/knowledge-oriented policies provide a much larger GDP/capita impact per expenditure unit and more equal interregional impacts than do trade-oriented policies for a typical ENC district.

We have assembled in this report a considerable body of evidence-based policy findings, as envisioned in the original SEARCH proposal. This is illustrated in the following graphic.10

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10Taken from SEARCH DELIVERABLE 6.1 GUIDELINES FOR REPORTING WP2-WP5 POLICY-RELEVANT RESEARCH DETAILS
Now the SEARCH project has been completed, the opportunity for ENP officials to apply the policy findings is at hand. The results provide highly nuanced guidance to the circumstances and conditions about which ENP officials need to be informed when weighing policy options. Each of the 77 policy inferences can be traced back to the underlying research base. As always, local circumstances must be taken into account—to the extent that information and expert advice is available—in deciding upon further policy considerations. In doing so, it is recommended that consideration be given to the following three points.

First, a considerable simplification of the process depends on knowing that broad knowledge/innovation-based policies: 1. score highest among external ENC officials and advisory board members, and 2. yield the largest and most widely-shared benefits when compared with traditional trade-based policies in a typical ENC district. The default policy option should therefore stress knowledge/innovation policies. Each of the 77 policies has been associated with major knowledge/innovation or traditional trade-based policy options (or both), as shown in Appendix V.

Second, while there are clear advantages to pursuing the knowledge-innovation policy option in ENC regions in line with the typical example evaluated by our policy impact simulation model, that model also showed a ten-fold increase in impact when applied in large modern urban regions, such as Istanbul. But in countries that lack large or modern urban regions or have many regions lacking the resources available in the test case, the argument for a more traditional trade-oriented policy option gains ground. Taken together, policy makers should consider a two-speed
approach: stress knowledge-innovation policies in typical and metropolitan regions, but consider giving greater weight to traditional trade-oriented policies in less well-developed regions. A quick review shows many of the individual policies can be applied to both major policy options.

Third, further simplification is provided by ranking how well 39 key policies fit regional circumstances, would benefit a particular region, and their ease of implementation. While these scores were shown in graphs above to illustrate major differences, we recombine them with major policy options in the following matrix. Here, individual policies with the best fit and benefits are listed in the lower right given cells, i.e. higher scores are best, each identified by its number and accompanying implementation score. All but one of the 15 policies in this “best” cell apply to the knowledge/innovation policy option, and most also apply to the traditional trade-oriented policy option. There are many high impact individual policies available for either major option. Policies of least perceived value are shown in red in the upper left cell, with others of intermediate value scattered between. The 38 unscored policies are also available for consideration, as outlined in the text above and in Appendix V, when drawing up a mix of policy elements that are suited to circumstances faced in ENCs and their regions.

We expect the findings and information available in this report are likely to:

- **Broaden** the scope of possible evidence-based policies available to ENP policy makers;
- Stimulate use of major strategic policy clusters as a means of framing policy choices;
- **Improve** the chances that the fit, benefit and implementation potential of policies are considered;
- **Inform** a rethink and reassessment of ENP by newly elected EU parliament and ENC officials
- **Enable** ENCs to improve their negotiating positions
- **Help define** the subsequent Horizon 2020 research agenda
### Choice Matrix of Individual Scored Policies:
Categorized by Fit and Benefit with applicability to Trade (T) or Innovative (I) Policy Options

#### BENEFIT SCORES
(Policy number with Implementation Score)
- T = Trade and FDI Policy
- I = Technology and Innovation

<table>
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<th>( \leq 3.75 )</th>
<th>( 3.75 - 4.25 )</th>
<th>( &gt; 4.25 )</th>
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<td>4.9 (2.8) I</td>
<td>2.9 (4.6) T I</td>
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<td>3.75 – 4.25</td>
<td>2.11 (3.8) T I</td>
<td>2.1 (3.4) I</td>
<td>2.4 (3.7) I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; 4.25</td>
<td>2.7 (4.1) I</td>
<td>3.2 (3.6) I</td>
<td>3.5 (3.6) I</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

11 Policy number keyed to Appendix V, „List of SEARCH Policy Inferences and Sources“.
9. Deviations from original proposal
Several aspects of the procedures by which policies were tested differed from methods laid out in the original proposal, and constitute important methodological contributions of the research in their own right. These are: (1) changes in the procedure by which policy inferences were evaluated by regional policy experts and advisory board members, (2) extension of analysis of policy content of SEARCH outputs to include text mining methods, and (3) testing of policy recommendations and inferences as a central objective of the Final Policy Conference and the inclusion of these evaluations in this report and in the SEARCH Public Policy Guide.

1. Changes in the procedure by which policy inferences are evaluated within the SEARCH Project (modification of Task 6.5)
Under Task 6.5 in the SEARCH Project Quality Plan it is stated that “(…) a consensus elicitation procedure will be conducted with IEMed, ICBSS, TUBITAK and Advisory Board members, based on the Delphi method or similar process, which is a technique for the elicitation and convergence of opinions with the object of obtaining semi-to-fully consensual views by a panel of experts (…)”. The shortcomings of the Delphi method in reaching our project objectives became obvious mid-way in the project as the first Policy Notes and Policy Briefs were produced, and as the stark differences between the policy contexts and ENP requirements in various ENCs rose to the fore. Instead of a need for convergence of opinions on policy inferences, it became more important to investigate divergence, understand the reasons behind divergent views, and evaluate in detail specific dimensions of each policy such as their suitability for country contexts and the likelihood for their effective implementation. In order to collect the views of experts on these issues, we designed a targeted online questionnaire survey to test a sub-sample of policy inferences. The sub-sample of policy inferences was selected using a pilot study with our ENC regional policy expert and SEARCH Project partner IEMed. Following the pilot study, both the sub-sample of inferences and the three main dimensions (fit, benefit and ease of implementation) were decided upon. The software LimeSurvey was chosen for the design and execution of the online questionnaire survey because it fit our requirements and it was the standard software used in WU Vienna and we could rely upon technical support from the University.

Experts were selected to participate in the survey with the direct involvement of our regional partners IEMed (ENC South) and ICBSS (ENC East) who provided us with a list of contacts. Emails were sent to the contacts in three stages, the first asking them to participate in the survey, the second reminding them to participate if they had not already done so, and in the third stage they were asked to participate in the survey again in addition to being provided with the information and invitation to the Final Policy Conference in Istanbul where the results of the survey would be presented and discussed.

2. Extension of analytic techniques to text mining (extension of Task 6.5)
In addition to the procedures to collect and analyse policy text as set out in the original proposal, text mining was applied to the text bodies to examine them more deeply and comprehensively from an additional viewpoint. As already stated in this report, the SEARCH Project produced a very large body of research and policy recommendations. Such large bodies of text documents lend themselves reliably to text mining (which, as numerical data analyses, mostly improves with more data). The text mining analyses were carried out in close collaboration with text mining experts in the University of Pecs, a SEARCH Project partner.
3. *Inclusion of Final Policy Conference inputs (extension of Task 6.5)*

A further extension of procedures within Task 6.5 was the structuring of the Final SEARCH Policy Conference around the thematic policy areas of the SEARCH Project (see Appendix IV for full conference programme) and the collection of insights gained during the conference for further evaluation of policy inferences by regional experts. These evaluations were integrated both in this report and in the SEARCH Public Policy Guide (with permission of the Project Officer).
APPENDICES

Appendix I: Template for Policy Notes and Policy Briefs
The contents of the Policy Notes addendum below consist of three main parts: 1. Objectives of research re. policy, 2. Scientific/Research methods, and 3. Policy value-added. Parts 1. and 2. can be completed as soon as the research design is complete and work is underway, while part 3. requires research results. In total, this should require about 2-3 pages of text. Each section will also help contribute to the preparation of various Policy Brief sections, as indicated below.

1. Objectives of Research re. Policy
Provide 1+ paragraph(s) summary of the principal policy issue(s) that this SEARCH document or task addresses. Mention what may be known or presently controversial about the policy issue(s), its importance by level (EU to local), and its relation to the ENP policy framework. We need to know how this task element could contribute to an overall understanding of ENP policy potentials. (later useful for preparing Policy Brief Introduction (p.1) and Objectives and Methodology (p. 4) sections)

2. Scientific/Research Methods
Provide a 1+ page discussion of the research design you have selected and how well-suited it is to understanding the policy research objectives listed in 1. (above). Please include: a. source(s) of evidence, “evidence hierarchy” and policy relevance of the evidence you will analyse in your research, b. analytic methods or models you will employ and their capacity to generate policy inferences, and c. theoretical or conceptual framework you have adopted to guide the research. We want to know how well-suited you think the research results might be as policy-relevant findings. (later useful for preparing Policy Brief Introduction (p.1) and Objectives and Methodology (p. 4) sections)

3. Policy Value-added
Provide a 1+ page summary of the findings that have policy relevance, particularly those that affect policy issues mentioned in 1. (above). Include in your discussion findings that confirm or challenge existing ideas about these policy issues, including key citations about existing views. Mention findings that may imply new or novel policy possibilities, or that uncover major unrecognized questions. Indicate the degree to which findings can be generalized, or if their applicability might be limited by specific geography, institutions or circumstance. If you have ideas about policy recommendations you would like to mention, please include them as well. (later useful for preparing Policy Brief Evidence and Analysis (p.2) and Policy Recommendations (p. 3) sections)

Please attach this completed template as the final appendix to the working paper, project report or deliverable of policy relevance. If editing feedback on parts of the addendum would be helpful at an early stage, please forward drafts to the WP6 project team.
Facilitating factors include:
- Existing traditions that PTA can build on, i.e. commissions involving participatory elements, adult education, direct democracy, consultation;
- Existing practices of accountability and openness;
- Coordination with responsible policy-making authorities and departments;
- Combinations of various methods (e.g., surveys, emails, plays, consensus conferences);
- Involvement of the wider social and political context in the organisation of PTA and dissemination of its results;
- Involvement of antagonistic groups in the PTA.

Constraining factors include:
- When a topic is not perceived as political at all because it is only framed as a scientific issue—excluding or postponing e.g. questions of collective risk, ethics, human rights, politics and economics—or considered as a matter of individual choice;
- Case-by-case decision-making on individual clinical trials, which undermines an understanding of xenotransplantation as a fundamentally political issue;
- When the public does not consider itself to be a legitimate actor vis-à-vis policy-makers and experts;
- Traditions of paternalism, neo-corporatism and a strong and exclusive links between elites from science and the civil service that exclude the public;
- Lack of infrastructure and funding.

Illustrative PBs from EC
- be sure to elaborate all PB elements
- stress unique policy situations or contexts
- avoid technical model, coefficient, variable discussion
- discuss „factor“ effects or influences
- distinguish clearly pro vs. con

Using Template and Guide for PBs

1. Following the revised Policy Brief template is required. Please note that it supplies the length and structure a Policy Brief should possess.

2. A short guide to writing good Policy Briefs is highly recommended. The first few pages provide some useful overviews, but Annexes 1 & 2 provide the most useful insights and valuable details.

The stress throughout this guide is to design a narrative or story-line that links an original ENP concern with method-derived evidence in support of one or more policy inferences that might lead to action.

What is not useful is a simple inventory of findings and another of policy inferences for several loosely related policy domains, where the reader must somehow understand all the missing connections and relationships. This type PB would need to be revised.
Appendix II: Text acquisition and analysis

Aim
Text mining was also used to examine whether SEARCH Project *Working Papers* had achieved the project objective of a policy focus. This analysis involved the preparation of a text corpus and querying it using basic descriptive text mining such as word frequency and word ranking.

Method
Word patterns in SEARCH Working Papers were investigated by creating a benchmark against which to compare the word patterns. As a benchmark, two sets of ten most-cited published academic papers on the main topic area for Work package 2 (“Trade Flows and localisation choices”) and Work package 3 (“People mobility and human capital”) were used. Only these two work packages were selected for benchmark comparisons because both trade and migration are older fields for which terminology is relatively stabilised and less diffuse than the topics investigated in Work package 3 (“Technological activities and innovation diffusion in the EU and interactions with neighbouring regions”) and Work package 4 (“Institutional environment”) for which results generated were not considered as valid.

Data and analysis
The data set was built in a series of stages. The first stage in creating the text corpus was to select the documents for analysis from the SEARCH Project and to find and choose the most cited academic papers as the benchmark text. In total, 42 SEARCH working papers were selected. 19 from work package 2, and 23 from work package 3, which included all the working papers which had been available up to that point in time. For the benchmark text, a total of 20 scientific publications were selected from the ISI Web of Knowledge database. The most cited scientific publications were searched using the terms “trade” and “migration”, generating more than 10,000 results, from which the top ten articles were selected. In the second stage, the text had to be pre-processed or “cleaned”. All superfluous text was removed, leaving only the title, abstract and body text.

This was input into the NVivo program and “sets” of data were created to enable results to be generated on individual groups of files and comparisons made using word frequency analysis. Word frequency analysis was run on each set, and a cross-comparison made between the sets of working papers generated in Work package 2 and 3, and in the most cited articles on trade and migration.
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</tr>
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Appendix III. Survey Methods

The loss of time occasioned by the delayed start of the SEARCH project eliminated the possibility of recursive rounds of review required for the modified Delphi process initially proposed. We have therefore modified the procedure by designing an online questionnaire survey for the elicitation of expert opinions on individual policy inferences. The policy expert scoring method is described in section 7.1 of this report. This Appendix describes the process of respondent selection and data collection.

We used the freely available software program Lime Survey for the creation of the digital version of the questionnaire. The individual questions were pilot tested with our institutional partners IEMED and ICBSS, experts on ENC policy environments. Survey respondents were carefully selected experts on the ENC South and ENC East from the SEARCH Advisory Board, and experts suggested by IEMED and ICBSS. Invitations to participate in the survey were sent by ICBSS and IEMED, and these were followed up with two rounds of emails. Survey responses were collected within a period of six weeks, after which the survey was closed. The results were analysed using descriptive statistics. Survey respondents were invited to participate in the Final SEARCH Policy Conference in Istanbul where a selection of the survey results was presented.
Appendix IV. Final Policy Conference Programme

How can the European Neighbourhood Policy strengthen integration between the European Union and Neighbourhood Countries?

Exploring the policy options for the European Neighbourhood Policy

SEARCH PROJECT
Nº 668934 - SSH-2010.22.1 VII FP, EU

Final Policy Conference
Venue: The Crown Park Hotel Motel
(Nazım Erten Sok. No: 13 34175, Merter, Istanbul, Turkey)

2nd June 2014

09:00  Registration of participants

09:30  Opening Session

Yasemin ASLAN, TUBITAK, Director of STI Policy Department
Jordi Surinyach, UB-AQR, University of Barcelona, and Coordinator of the SEARCH project
Yuri Borgeaud-Prebil, SEARCH Officer at the European Commission

10:00  Special Round Table 1 European Union – Neighbouring Countries: how to promote business and financial cooperation?

Moderator: Nuala Moran, Freelance Science Writer and Editor

- Torek Farhadi, Programme Coordinator, Enhancing Arab Capacity for Trade (EnACT), International Trade Centre (ITC)
- Dirk Vantyghem, Director International Affairs, EUROCHAMBRES - The Association of European Chambers of Commerce and Industry

11:00  Coffee break

11:30  Policies to increase the benefits trade and FDI between the EU and Neighbouring Countries

Moderator: Edward Bergman, WU, Institute of Regional and Environmental Economy and SEARCH researcher

- Dimitris Kallionis, UTH, University of Thessaly and SEARCH researcher
- Necmettin Kaymaz, Senior Project Director, The Republic of Turkey Prime Ministry Investment Support and Promotion Agency - EPAT
- Jussi Närvi, European External Action Service of the European Commission and SEARCH Advisory Board member
- Oussama Dahmani, Project Coordinator, Euromed Invest, ANIMA Investment Network
- Debate
13:00  Lunch

14:00  Policies to improve migration and people mobility between EU and Neighbouring Countries
Moderator: Jordi Surinach, UB-AQR and Coordinator of the SEARCH project
- Raul Ramos, UB-AQR, University of Barcelona and SEARCH researcher
- Ahmet Ileriyyen, Koç University, Director of Migration Research Center (MiReKoc)
- Sergiu Celaç, Former Foreign Minister of Romania, Senior Adviser, National Center for Sustainable Development and SEARCH Advisory Board member
- Ummuhan Bardak, Senior Labour Market Specialist, ETF operations, European Training Foundation
- Debate

15:30  Coffee break

16:00  Policies Supporting knowledge flows, technology and innovation between EU and Neighbouring Countries
Moderator: Edward Bergman, WU, Institute of Regional and Environmental Economy and SEARCH researcher
- Stefano Usai, CRENCo, University of Cagliari and SEARCH researcher
- Esen Çağlar, The Economic Policy Research Foundation of Turkey - TSEAV
- Iuri Bazaral, Head of Economics Department, National University of “Kyiv-Mohyla Academy” and SEARCH Advisory Board member
- Danny Shefer, Urban and Regional Economics, Center for Urban and Regional Studies, Technion-Israel Institute of Technology and SEARCH Advisory Board member
- Debate

17:30  Closing Session – Day 1

3rd June 2014

09:00  Comparative economic impact assessment of SEARCH ENP policy suggestions with the GMR-Turkey model
Moderator: Edward Bergman, WU, Institute of Regional and Environmental Economy and SEARCH researcher
- Attila Varga, GKK, University of Pécs and SEARCH researcher
  Discussant: Alpay Filliztekin, Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences, Sabanci University

10:00  Special Round Table 2: European Union instruments and cooperation frameworks with the neighbouring countries
Moderator: Nuala Moran, Freelance Science Writer and Editor
- Representative of the EIB, European Investment Bank
- Javier Albarracin, Director of Socioeconomic Development Department, European Institute of the Mediterranean
11:00  **Coffee break**

11:30  **Improving the institutional environment in ENCs**  
*Moderator: Tanja Sincio, WU, Institute of Regional and Environmental Economy and SEARCH researcher*

- **Riccardo Crescenzi**, LSE, London School of Economics and SEARCH researcher
- **Kamilo Yulssel Gürdal**, Expert, The Republic of Turkey Ministry of EU Affairs
- **Sana Jelassi**, Gender adviser United Nations General Assembly Resolution and SEARCH Advisory Board member
- **Representative of the IICPSD**, Istanbul International Center for Private Sector in Development
- **Debate**

13:00  **Guest Speaker**  
*Moderator: Senén Florensa, President, European Institute of the Mediterranean*

**Habib Ben Yahia**, Secretary General of the Arab Maghreb Union, UMA

13:40  **Closing Session – Day 2**

13:45  **Lunch**

15:00  **General Search Assembly (for SEARCH members only)**

16:30  **Closing Session - End of SEARCH Meeting**
Appendix V. List of SEARCH policy inferences and sources

Introduction
The policy inferences from the SEARCH Project were sourced from the research evidence gathered throughout the duration of the project and reported in SEARCH Working Papers, Policy Notes and Policy Briefs. SEARCH Working Papers are documents that are long and theoretically and empirically oriented. The Policy Notes are short documents based on templates developed in the SEARCH Project. Policy Briefs are based on official reporting guidelines for European Commission purposes. Policies that were scored by regional experts are shown in bold font and apply to Trade (*) and/or Innovation (#) policy clusters.

1. Trade and FDI Policies

1.1. *When setting conditions and trade concessions for its least able ENC trade partners, the EU should consider their specific domestic and trade circumstances. (A.1)\textsuperscript{12}

Sources and research evidence:

\textsuperscript{12} The alphanumerical identifiers were used in the questionnaire survey for these policy inferences.
1.2. *EU trade policies should focus ENC trade on recent EU accession countries rather than on the core EU15 countries. (A.2)

Sources and research evidence:

1.3. *The EU should support ENC trade with the newest EU members with carefully designed ENPI measures that promote growth in both trading regions. (A.3)

Sources and research evidence:

1.4. *Policy aimed at improving and speeding up the industrial diversification process in the short term should focus on favouring ENC sectors most similar to ENC exports. (A.4)

Sources and research evidence:

1.5. **EU policy-makers should consider increasing technical assistance and investments to ENCs for long-term improvements in the quality of institutions that support firm emergence and firm growth. (A.5)

Sources and research evidence:

1.7. #*The EU is advised to continue promoting ENC reforms with the full expectation that FDI and internationalisation by EU firms will follow. (A.7)\nSources and research evidence:\nPinna AM. (2013) Is the EU the best trade partner for its neighbors? *European Policy Note 2.02*. Sharing Knowledge Assets: InteRegionally Cohesive NeigHbourhoods (SEARCH) Project.\nPinna AM. (2013) Is the EU the best trade partner for its neighbors? *SEARCH Working Paper 2.02*. Sharing Knowledge Assets: InteRegionally Cohesive NeigHbourhoods (SEARCH) Project.


1.10. *Research findings that demonstrate strong prospects for future growth from EU-based FDI should be included in relevant materials and discussions between EU and ENC negotiators. (A.10)

Sources and research evidence:

1.11. #*The risk of increasing regional disparities gives an important role to the ENP to support actions that will reduce spatial disparities and asymmetries in the countries of the EU neighbourhood. (A.11)

Sources and research evidence:

1.12. #*ENPI and related program supports should not be promoted broadly, but must take account of the specific assets of key regions (at national as well as sub-national levels), the quality of local infrastructures, capabilities, and the quality of regional institutions. (A.12)

Sources and research evidence:

2. Mobility and Migration Policies

2.1. #Policies should be directed at promoting inter-regional and international competition for highly-skilled labour, and at reducing institutional barriers to highly-skilled labour flows especially between the EU and ENCs. (B.1)

Sources and research evidence:
2.2. Policies should support the participation of highly skilled workers in both EU and European Neighbourhood Country research networks. (B.3)

Sources and research evidence:


2.3. Policies aimed at supporting high-skilled worker mobility from ENCs should focus on three measures: (1) making recruitment procedures more transparent, (2) improving the portability of social security provision internationally, and (3) reducing differences in international taxation. (B.2)

Sources and research evidence:


2.4. #A programme should be developed to assess professional qualifications of ENC migrants, and to provide informal training to immigrants to improve skills transferability to the new labour market. (B.4)
Sources and research evidence:

2.5. #The EU should consider supporting ENCs in their efforts to attract high skilled workers to ENC capital cities.
Sources and research evidence:

2.6. #Institutional barriers to the mobility of high-skilled individuals between the European Neighbourhood Countries and EU countries should be reduced.
Sources and research evidence:
2.7. #ENP policies aimed at encouraging the mobility of high-skilled workers need to take into consideration regional capacities to give returns to such mobility.
Sources and research evidence:

2.8. #ENP measures should include clear and transparent information on labour market institutions in EU countries, so that potential migrants from Neighbouring Countries are well-informed prior to choosing destination countries.
Sources and research evidence:

2.9. #ENP policy-makers need to take into consideration the interactions caused by labour market institutions and migration policies.
Sources and research evidence:

2.10. #ENP migration policies need to take into consideration the different impacts they have on migrants from Eastern Europe, the Middle East, and North Africa.
Sources and research evidence:

2.11. #ENP migration policies need to take into account the dynamic effects of business cycle asymmetries on push and pull factors of migration.
Sources and research evidence:

2.12. **The EU should consider directing policies to improve the educational level of ENC immigrants. (B.5)**
Sources and research evidence:

2.13. **Both EU and ENCs would benefit from learning to understand specific fears of its population regarding immigrants, and to base suitable pro-immigrant policies on this knowledge. (B.6)**
Sources and research evidence:

2.14. **The EU should consider developing policies to support temporary migration from European Neighbouring Countries through temporary work visas. (B.7)**
Sources and research evidence:

2.15. **The EU should support temporary migration through dual citizenship. (B.8)**
Sources and research evidence:
2.16. *European Neighbourhood Policy should encourage improved electronic money transfer infrastructures for migrants. (B.9)*

Sources and research evidence:


2.17. *European Neighbourhood Policy needs to reduce barriers to remittances by reducing monetary transfer costs such as fees and double taxation. (B.10)*


2.18. *The EU should encourage migrants to make larger but fewer remittances rather than smaller and more frequent money transfers. (B.11)*


3. Technology and Innovation Policies

3.1. *The ENP should support the channels through which knowledge diffuses by formulating policies for: (1) the promotion of a mutual understanding of cultures and languages and (2) a balanced mobility of students between the EU and ENCs, both in the academic and the industrial spheres. (C.1)*

Sources and research evidence:

3.2. #The ENP should support cooperation between the EU and ENCs in the formulation of policies for intellectual property rights regulation. (C.2)

Sources and research evidence:

3.3. #The ENP should support the generation and spread of knowledge flows within and between the EU and ENCs with instruments focused on specific actors and groups such as universities, research institutes, and specific sectors and firms. (C.3)

Sources and research evidence:

3.4. #The ENP should support countries central for innovation in the EU (such as Germany and France) when creating innovation linkages between EU and ENCs. (C.4)

Sources and research evidence:
3.5. #The ENP needs to acknowledge the interdependencies between external technology adoption and R&D collaboration by implementing policies that support both.
Sources and research evidence:


3.6. #Policy-makers should extend participation in EU research funding programmes to public research institutions in ENCs.
Sources and research evidence:


3.7. #In order to augment innovation capacities within the EU and the ENCs, policy mechanisms of the ENP should support the creation of linkages between EU, ENC and global actors.
Sources and research evidence:


3.8. #*The ENP should support the implementation of actions aimed at increasing the endowments of the labour force in ENCs. (C.5)*
Sources and research evidence:


3.9. #The ENP should encourage the reduction of legal constraints to innovation such as rules for trade in scientific materials, IPRs and licensing.
Sources and research evidence:
3.10. #It is recommended that policy stakeholders in the EU and NCs assess and advance support structures for STI cooperation between the EU and ENCs by providing information and consultancy services.
Sources and research evidence:

3.11. #The EU should consider setting up training courses on innovation management and entrepreneurship within academic or innovation related institutions in ENCs. (C.6)
Sources and research evidence:

3.12. #The EU should consider supporting mutual learning activities which address legislative, tax and IPR issues and help to identify good practices, and barriers and supports to innovation in these areas.
Sources and research evidence:
3.13. #The EU should consider extending its innovation policy instruments such as twinning activities and technology platforms to ENCs.
Sources and research evidence:

3.14. #EU innovation support to ENCs should include joint training activities in the management of science, support learning of different languages in university courses, joint mobility programmes for scientists, and encourage international co-supervision of PhD theses.
Sources and research evidence:

3.15. #The EU should consider supporting Francophone through Massive Open Online Courses (MOOC) to facilitate innovation collaboration between the EU and NCs.
Sources and research evidence:
3.16. Technoparks and incubators are innovation instruments which require different conditions for their effectiveness. Policy makers should recognise these differences and support the implementation of these policies only where such specific conditions exist.

Sources and research evidence:


3.17. The ENP should consider facilitating international capital transactions between ENCs and EU countries as a measure for supporting innovation.

Sources and research evidence:


3.18. ENP measures should support FDI policies that bring innovative firms to ENCs.

Sources and research evidence:


3.19. The ENP should take account of regional differences in ENC innovation capacities in the formulation of its policies. (C.7)

Sources and research evidence:


3.20. #*The ENP should design policies to reduce risk and uncertainty in firm alliances between EU and ENCs by supporting ENCs in making markets more open and competitive, and their institutions more democratic, efficient and transparent.

Sources and research evidence:

3.21. *The ENP should include measures to stimulate exports in the short run by focusing on innovative firms in ENCs with a level of productivity above a certain threshold, because these firms have the highest chance of success in foreign markets.

Sources and research evidence:

3.22: #*EU countries should consider measures for strengthening social and institutional capital in ENCs such as for example democratic reform, protection of human rights, political and civil liberties, competitive elections, freedom of organization and freedom of expression, and the fight against corruption in ENCs.

Sources and research evidence:
3.23. #The data collected under the CIS survey could be improved by:

- Expanding the survey to ENCs.
- Including more quantitative information and data at the macro level.
- Eliminating the subjectivity in some of its existing questions.
- EUROSTAT should provide a technical annex on how the macro data is collected starting from the micro data.
- A question should be added about the importance of innovation in the activities of the firm.
- The CIS should incorporate questions on the geographical origin of the technologies adopted by firms.

Sources and research evidence:


4. Institutional and Social Capital Policies

4.1. **EU policy measures under the ENP should support the formation of institutional capacities and sound governance in ENCs. (D.1)**

Sources and research evidence:


4.2. **The EU should not delay its pressures on reform processes in ENCs.**

Sources and research evidence:


4.3. **In countries such as the Ukraine and Moldova reform programmes supported by the European Neighbourhood Policy should focus as much on informal institutions as on formal institutions. (D.9)**

Sources and research evidence:


4.4. **The ENP needs to support political authorities in ENCs to invest in value orientations that contribute to the development of social capital, such as strengthening the rule of law, improving transparency, and discouraging rent-seeking and free-riding.**

Sources and research evidence:


4.5. **ENP measures should focus on supporting a cooperative attitude and restoration of confidence in politicians to be achieved in ENCs by increasing: (1) public participation, (2) transparency and (3) accountability in political decision-making. (D.2)**

Sources and research evidence:


4.6. **The European Neighbourhood Policy should promote school curricula that build capacity for and promote positive attitudes toward innovation.** (D.3)

Sources and research evidence:


4.7. **EU policies should support the formation of vertical networks between organisations in EU Neighbouring Countries.**

Sources and research evidence:


4.8. **Policies arising from the ENP in support of innovation need to take into account diversity in firm competencies in ENCs.**

Sources and research evidence:


4.9. **The EU should consider strengthening existing support mechanisms for knowledge transfer in ENCs.**

Sources and research evidence:


4.10. *EU policies should be adjusted to the particular characteristics of each country.*
Sources and research evidence:

4.11. *The EU should place emphasis on the improvement of legal compliance of countries as well as their institutional capacity.*
Sources and research evidence:

4.12. *In both low tech and high tech industry contexts, the EU is advised to support collaboration between actors with similar competencies.*
Sources and research evidence:

4.13. *In high tech industries, the EU is advised to foster collaboration between culturally diverse actors.*
Sources and research evidence:
4.14. #*The EU should cooperate with countries of the former Soviet Union and North Africa to improve governance quality in these regions. 

Sources and research evidence:


4.15. #*EU policy-makers should consider supporting Ukraine in the discussion, amendment and implementation of draft laws of 2009 which emphasise: (1) the investment in education and implementation of the Bologna Agreement, (2) investment in citizenship and the development of civil society.

Sources and research evidence:


4.16. #*To stimulate entrepreneurship in the small firm sector in the EU neighbourhood, policy makers need to address issues that undermine trust relationships such as a legacy of ethnic tensions, rent-seeking clans or social networks of the former nomenklatura elites that reinforce the political connectedness between the large firm sector and the political elite. (D.4)

Sources and research evidence:


4.17. *The EU should consider supporting educational reform policies in the Ukraine to address the skills mismatch by updating curricula and improving efficiency of secondary vocational schools. (D.8)

Sources and research evidence:


4.18. *The EU should consider supporting the Ukraine in lessening skills mismatch in the Ukrainian labour market with specific policies for: (1) retraining workers, (2) encouraging firms to retrain workers in-house, (3) investment in and regulation of educational reforms, (4) improvement of conditions for women workers by public provision of childcare such as nursery and kindergarten, (5) supporting employers to take on younger skilled workers through job subsidies and internships, and (6) improving skills forecasting for future labour market requirements.
Sources and research evidence:

4.19. *The EU should offer a much more comprehensive and generous set of incentives in order to reinforce the mechanisms of positive conditionality and overcome veto players in the NCs.
Sources and research evidence:

4.20. *Using trade incentives to influence the formation of democracy and human rights in European Neighbouring Countries should be re-oriented towards reform of trade and regulatory practices rather than to purely political reforms. (D.5)
Sources and research evidence:
4.21. #The EU should do more to establish enhanced cooperative, closer institutional linkages and networks between the EU technocracy and the technocracies of the various NCs.

Sources and research evidence:

4.22. *The EU should continue its implementation of bilateral action plans which take into account the different starting points and characteristics of each NC.*

Sources and research evidence:

4.23. #It is suggested the possibility of repealing or modifying the ‘safeguard clause’ for IPR is explored. (D.6)

NB: Presently, all bilateral agreements between the EU and NCs include a ‘safeguard clause’ whereby restrictions on trade can be imposed on the ground of protecting IPR

Sources and research evidence:
4.24. #Policies should shift the focus of bi-lateral agreements on intellectual property rights protection to become more directly relevant to inter-state trade; these include, above all, coordination of judicial procedures and enforcement mechanisms in European Neighbouring Countries. (D.7)

Sources and research evidence:


Appendix VI: List of sources


COM 303, 2001: Joint Communication to the European Parliament, the Council, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions: A new response to a changing Neighbourhood, Commission of the European Communities


Pikalova, A. & Korobeynikova, M. 2013. Assessment of EU-EECSA and EU-Russia research cooperation under the EU Framework Programmes for Research & Development. European Policy Note 4.27. Sharing Knowledge Assets: InteRegionally Cohesive NeighBourhoods (SEARCH) Project


Appendix VII: List of SEARCH participants

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• Mr. Sergiu Celac, Former Foreign Minister of Romania, Senior Adviser, National Center for Sustainable Development, Bucharest, Romania.
• Mr. Ivan Bortnik, former Deputy Minister of Science, Chairman of Board of the Russian Foundation of Assistance to Small Innovative Enterprises, Russia.
• Mr. Norbert Pap, Associate Professor, Head of Department of Political Geography and Regional Development, University of Pécs, Hungary.
• Mr. Ernst Aichinger, Country Representative for Austrian Federal Ministry for European and International Affairs, Head of Department for Scientific and Technical Cooperation, Austria.
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