

ERA-NET Cofund Smart Urban Futures

**Smart Urban Green (SMART-U-GREEN):  
Governing conflicting perspectives on transformations  
in the urban-rural continuum**

**Work Package (WP) 1 report**

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## **Project summary**

Urban landscapes witness major transformations that affect urban landscape quality as well as the quality of life. Some transformations are desirable, such as a transition to urban sustainability, some are inevitable, because of major changes in economy or culture. Transformations in urban landscapes come with intractable controversies, uncertainties and complexities, involving multiple actors, interests and rapidly changing advocacy coalitions. But they also stimulate the bottom-up emergence of alternative ideas, practices and networks that confront urban planning regimes with the challenge to adopt more organic, collaborative and transformative forms of governance. In line with the European Landscape Convention (CoE 2000), Smart-U-Green aims at the co-creation of knowledge on new options for governance taking into account conflicting perspectives on urban landscape quality and the need to synthesize expert and lay knowledge. Smart-U-Green will focus on the greening of urban landscapes, in three urban regions in the Netherlands, Italy and France, to, (1) analyze conflicting perspectives on urban landscape quality, (2) analyze and evaluate local policy-making using sustainability indicators of urban landscape quality, and (3) develop and explore innovative options for governance to be operationalised in experimental area-development strategies. Complementary case studies will be done in urban regions in Croatia, Belarus and the Russian Federation.

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## 1. Key messages

- We propose to take the perspective of transition theory to describe the dynamics, agency and actor networks towards a vision of an integrative landscape governance of the future.
- Dealing with landscape change (e.g. observation, assessment, protection, development) is a cross-cutting theme. Its governance still tends to be distributed across diverse authorities and administrative silos, which often do not collaborate or often not even explicitly deal with landscape aspects.
- This report identifies a lack of transversal collaboration across spatial scales, across sectors and societal subsystems as a serious shortcoming of the existing approaches to landscape governance. This prevents an integrated envisioning and co-steering of landscapes as defined in the ELC to further evolve on local and regional level.
- We identify adaptive planning, urban living labs and joint fact-finding as more recent approaches to support integrated landscape governance. A shared guiding idea behind these approaches is that planning needs to move from a prescriptive activity to a process of learning and collaborative action among different urban actors. This 'move' can be conceptualized as a transition pathway for the existing spatial planning regimes.
- Based on transition theory, the Smart-U-Green project will describe the conditions for niche-regime interactions challenging the current landscape governance regime (or: regime of landscape management/planning). More specifically, we seek for ways to alter the existing coalitions of actors together with their given, immanent power to co-develop landscapes in Europe.
- Major challenges for the governance of urban landscape qualities were identified on the national scale level. Similar challenges across the Netherlands, Italy, France and Croatia are the challenging dynamics of urbanization and ongoing growth of settlement areas into cities' hinterlands driven by socio-economic and demographic changes. Climate change related adaptation challenges as well as threats to ecosystems and in particular on biodiversity by intensive agriculture are as well mentioned across the countries. In addition, all countries report a lack of addressing and prioritizing these landscape challenges in the current ways of landscape governance.
- This report describes the differing regional challenges in six European regions based on the socio-spatial, historical and natural characteristics of the regions as well as their dynamics of growth, stagnation or shrinkage.
- The ideas of an integrated governance approach to tackle concrete issues of landscape changes, as described in the European Landscape Convention (ELC), remain predominantly absent in the legislatures of the considered European countries.

- To a certain extent, the definition of the landscape concept offered by the ELC has received some uptake and recognition in the studied countries. For example, in the Netherlands, for the first time, the ELC is partly taken up as one of the guiding principles in the new Environment and Planning Act (EPA) (in Dutch 'Omgevingswet'), which was recently approved by both chambers of the Dutch parliament.
- Participation and consultation are officially recognized as relevant elements of governance processes about landscape changes, however, their actual inclusiveness, meaningfulness, impact, and uptake into later decision-making often remain intransparent and sparse.
- The Appendix of this report also contains a summary of the current status of landscape governance in France, Italy, the Netherlands, Croatia and Russian Federation. These summaries focus on the existing policy frameworks, regulations and used instruments by which landscape issues are currently governed.

## 2. Introduction, scope and approach

Smart-U-Green studies the transformations affecting the urban landscapes in European countries and case regions and, more specifically, ways to govern these transformations. The projects' first work package (WP1) has three main objectives. An additional objective was added during the course of the project work:

- 1) Identifying stakeholders at the international, national and local level.
- 2) Documenting experiences with implementing the European Landscape Convention (ELC).
- 3) Comparing national and local regulatory frameworks as elements of landscape governance.
- 4) Discussing and identifying a theoretical framework for the governance of landscape transformation.

The context for Smart-U-Green is to a large extent provided by the ELC. The project team also investigated into how far and in which way parts of the convention have been taken up in regulations, policy documents and practices in the partner countries that have ratified it, and to what extent the spirit of the ELC is reflected in spatial policies in countries that have or have not (yet) ratified it.

The approach foreseen for WP1 focuses on a literature and document analysis, complemented with a series of several expert interviews. However, the project partners have conducted more interviews than anticipated in the project proposal, in early preparation for the regional case studies. In doing this, the project has made a start in building a stakeholder network to be further explored in WPs 2, 3 and 4. In order to identify the key stakeholders related to landscape development in urban contexts, we have conducted a stakeholder analysis in two steps. First, we consulted the current scientific literature on landscape change and decision-making in landscape governance. Based on the insights, we conducted a series of 49 expert interviews. The team developed a guideline for structured interviews, decided upon during the second project workshop in Ascoli Piceno in October 2017. This guideline contained open and closed questions (see Appendix 3) addressing:

- 1) the main issues and developments in the governance of urban landscape quality at (inter) national and urban region level,
- 2) the decision-making procedures and involvement of agencies and stakeholders in the various partner countries
- 3) the value of stakeholder and citizen participation in urban landscape governance and the role of local knowledge
- 4) the implementation and uptake of the ELC
- 5) the identification of new, relevant documents and stakeholders.

Next to the stakeholder analysis, the project team also realized the need to elaborate on the key concepts and theories being essential in the course of this study. This report is structured as follows: chapter 3 discusses fundamental theories and concepts in the context of governing landscape trans-

formations. Then, this report addresses the main challenges in the governance of urban landscape quality from the national (chapter 4) and urban regions' (chapter 5) perspectives. Chapter 6 reports on stakeholder views as regards to the value of public participation. Chapter 7 reports on how the partner countries and regions deal with topics of the ELC. Information on regulatory frameworks and the stakeholder identification for the urban regions under study can be found in Appendix 1 and 2 of this document.

### 3. Theoretical framework: governing the transformation of urban landscapes

The project is developed around the notion of "landscape" as promoted by the European Landscape Convention (ELC). With the notion of landscape, the ELC refers in article 1 to *"an area as perceived by people, whose character is the result of the action and interaction of natural and human factors"* (Council of Europe (CoE), 2000, p. 9). Thus, the landscape is an essential cultural element. For better or worse, it is the mirror of a society, and forces to look at it, both, in its entirety and in its different components. The landscape is a synthetic vision, capable of bringing together the physical and environmental characteristics of places, with the interpretations, the emotions, and the expectations of human beings. To understand and intervene into a landscape asks for differentiating the synthetic vision of the landscape (ideally addressed first to understand or to intervene) from designing interventions in its different parts.

The personal, subjective interpretation of the landscape is linked to a collective landscape vision of a population as a whole. Landscape can therefore be considered as a common good based on the diverse interpretations that the individual perceptions generate, which then may lead to a collective, shared vision. Without such subjective and collective interpretations, a landscape does not exist (Sargolini, 2013). If landscape is conceived as the outcome of human-nature interactions, whose transformations depend on natural and human factors; the actions and interventions for the transformation towards sustainable landscapes cannot address the landscape in its entirety, but some of its single (separate) components that (co-) determine the landscape itself.

#### **Landscape quality**

*(The) "Landscape quality objective" means, for a specific landscape, the formulation by the competent public authorities of the aspirations of the public with regard to the landscape features of their surroundings"* (Article 1c, ELC, Council of Europe, 2000, p.10).

The concept of 'landscape' not only refers to the physical characteristics of an area, but also to the culture of its inhabitants and its economic and administrative features. As such, landscape is part of the collective identity and history of people (Proshansky et al. 1983; Kianicka et al. 2006; Debarbieux 2005; Sargolini 2013; Sopina and Bojanić Obad Šćitaroci 2015). The landscape is a boundary object defined through several disciplines, universes of reference and different worldviews (Star & Griesemer 1989; Star 2010; Noucher et al. 2012; Bojanić Obad Šćitaroci 2018). It is an object of attention or development that has an interpretative flexibility, as an invisible infrastructure that



carries conventions, standards and practices (Trompette & Vinck, 2009). From this perspective, human actions, their motives and values influence what people perceive and the ways in which they use and change their environment over time.

In turn, landscape transformations influence the practices and perceptions of the living environment (Raffestin & Lawrence 1990; Berque 1990). This is why the landscape constitutes a relevant guideline, trace and matrix, at the interface of the perception, the organization and the preservation of a biophysical and living environment (Sargolini 2005). From this point of view, ecological and landscape qualities are linked (Sargolini 2015). They refer to an environmental complexity, intangible and materialized at the same time. But, this complexity requires reconciling the different and separated ways to conceptualize and govern the landscape.

One way refers to the aesthetic, associative and sensitive perspective on landscape— based on landscape perception (Sopina and Bojanić Obad Šćitaroci 2015; Sopina and Bojanić Obad Šćitaroci 2019). It dominated the cultural heritage regulations for a long period (Corbin 2001; Roger 1995) and it is always an active, distant perception of our environment. If the attractiveness for rural landscapes can be explained by the role of agriculture in for example in French history (Buijs, Pedroli & Luginbühl 2006), similarly, its new aesthetic is a result from contemporary lifestyles (Donadieu 2003). During the 1990s the common image of landscape changed significantly, and nature replaced cultivated nature in the common conscious (Buijs, Pedroli & Luginbühl 2006; Sargolini 2010).

A second way is an objective geomorphological and social view, evolving in the fields of landscape geography and landscape ecology, mostly linked to rural settlements and adaptations to physical conditions (Deffontaines 1998; Bertrand 2002). Landscape is seen as a local resource in this community (Gumuchian & Pecqueur 2007). It functions also as an element of individual, social, and place identity (Di Méo 2004). Here, landscape transformations can be perceived as threats or as opportunities for communities and the local economy, and they have to be managed both towards their ecological and socio-economic planning goals.

A third way emerged in urban areas, during the 1960's. An ordinary landscape, also referred to as 'townscape', was linked to an attractive vision of urban spaces, with social interactions and human scale living spaces (Pousin 2007; Sargolini 2015). The aesthetic quality and the legibility (Lynch 1969) of urban landscape improved the design of social spaces, seen as self-experimented and received spaces (Lefebvre 1974). The urban landscape is present as a vital means of achieving a better quality of life (Bojanić Obad Šćitaroci 2018). This urban landscape conception includes more green and 'wild' spaces (Aggeri 2010), yet remained dissociated from the rural landscape (Da Cunha 2009). Urban landscape became a geographical object, as a perceived overall physiognomy (Michel 2007) or was defined as an object to improve environmental quality in cities (Blanc & Glaton 2005). However, between urban and rural landscapes, the periurban spaces, where a majority of inhabitants live in several countries, never had the quality and agility of urban life nor the aesthetic of the rural landscapes (Mancebo & Salles 2014). "Landscape quality objectives are meant to increase public awareness of the landscape. These objectives need to act as a guide for planning an urbanscape" (Bojanić Obad Šćitaroci 2018, p 349).

### **The emergence of landscapes policies**

Landscape has observed an increasing political, social and cultural weight in debates, practices and rhetorical constructions concerning the quality of life and the future hopes of contemporary societies. The engagement and policy attempts to tackle the ongoing loss of bio-diversity launched

with the United Nations conference in Rio de Janeiro 1992, has continued to broaden its horizons to embrace the cultural and, therefore, landscape implications of development trends of areas, focusing attention on changes – and challenges - of contemporary urban landscapes.

This convergence of interests and concerns is evident at several levels. At the global level, bodies such as the International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN), for example, continues to call attention to the role that landscape policies play in order to improve the effectiveness of nature conservation policies. Biodiversity is part of a wide ecological horizon, which includes humans in natural dynamics. Where multifunctional and negotiated management have been implemented (e.g. with National Forestry Departments, Regional Nature Parks) these interventions have helped to mitigate degradations of areas recognized for their landscape or ecological value. Likewise other approaches aimed at promoting landscape policies with solid ecological underpinnings, as for example presented by the field of Landscape Ecology.

With the year 2000 and the publication of the ELC, an outstanding and explicit shift could be observed concerning the understanding and conceptualization of landscape (policy). The ELC text addresses landscape policies as *“an expression by the competent Public authorities of general principles, strategies and guidelines that permit the taking of specific measures aimed at the protection, management and planning of landscapes”* (ELC, Art. 1b, Council of Europe 2000, p. 9)

The ELC recommendations are different from previous approaches to conservation and protection policies. The ELC states the obligation of recognising the landscape values of the entire territory, as well as adopting diversified protection, management and planning measures. From all these viewpoints – and, clearly, in contrast with the most traditional control and protection practices of the past – it is recognised that the principle of protection cannot be applied only to single “pieces” of natural-cultural heritage of great value, detached from their context. In other words, territorial assets cannot be divided into parts to be conserved and parts to be left at the mercy of transformation pressures.

This new landscape paradigm suggests the need to look beyond the individual objects present in a socio-spatial context (i.e. an area) in order to perceive their dynamics and relationships. This is not a problem of scale but, on the contrary, a challenge crossing all spatial scales, between entities variously located in the territory. Secondly, it is a dynamic challenge over time, between events and entities that have occurred at various points in time of the territory. Thirdly it is a challenge of social diversification and stratification between different subjects, social groups and various stakeholders (Sargolini 2012; Gambino 2012) in their landscape perception and interpretations (Sopina and Bojanić Obad Šćitaroci 2015; Sopina and Bojanić Obad Šćitaroci 2019).

Considering these three dimensions, the territory can be considered as a “network of networks” (cultural, social, ecological, economic, historical, a.o.). Territory is appropriated by social actors, it is rational and functional, that can be minted, owned, administered, but territory is also affective, emerging through the interaction with humans: for example the values and identifications addressed and related to the territory (Bonnemaison et al. 1997; Muis, 2011). Monnet (2010) introduces the notion of territoriality to express the idea of an appropriated territory (i.e. the capacity of an actor to practice a skill in space and the collective representations of actors from this territory). In this context, territorialisation is an action founded on a system of values to produce a territory (Vannier, 2009). Territories have an uncertain characteristic because of the inherent dynamics of socio-spatial and socio-temporal practices. So we need to take into account how social actors live their territory in a circular and intertwined relation between materiality of space, its potentials and the system of

values attributed. In the context of the ELC, the revitalization of the local dimension has seen significant support, because it is in the local dimension that landscapes are (co-)created, with specific dynamics and cross-scale processes that are explicitly linked to the perceptions, expectations, and practices of the inhabitants and other local landscape actors.

### **Challenges to an integrated approach for urban landscapes**

Based on the multi-dimensionality of landscape (quality) as incorporated in the ELC, we derive the need for an integrated approach in the governance of urban landscapes. Such an integrated approach raises two critical and still unresolved questions.

The first question relates to the conceptual level, whether this integrated approach to landscapes, although recognizing changes from the past, is still open for transformations in the future. In other words, how would the landscape paradigm relate to the landscape impacts of societal transitions? The second question, which immediately follows from the first, is who (i.e. which actors) based on which the legitimacies (legal regulations, knowledge, experience, skills) takes decisions, which transformations are desirable (leading towards sustainability) in terms of their landscape impacts; and based on which shared criteria will these decisions be taken? Smart-U-Green will provide insights for answering these questions throughout the project. For now, we attempt to clarify these below.

Diverse scientific disciplines have suggested schemes for assessing the sustainability of landscapes (e.g. Musacchio 2009). No principles or arguments in the discussion about desirable changes are free from values and subjectivity. A primary illustration is the (political) choice for the demarcation of a landscape or urban region. By changing the level of scale, a new perspective on landscape qualities can emerge, as in the example of the Dutch Deltametropol (introduced in the government vision of 2000). This government vision does no longer consider the West of the Netherlands as densely populated region but as a sparsely populated metropolis.<sup>1</sup> The metropolitan areas Amsterdam and Rotterdam-The Hague and Utrecht include five million people, who have five times more space than the over 8 million people in London.

Obviously, political and economic interests have, over time, brought (un-)desirable landscape transformations, which have affected historical notions of space and territory. The mostly cited example is the dynamic of urban sprawl. Through intertwined social, economic, technical and cultural transformations today's urban areas have either no boundaries or fuzzy ones. Therefore, classifying an "urban dimension" of landscapes in Europe is challenged by the fact that the current urban/metropolitan structures are no longer composed just of urban centres and peripheries, but of a patchwork of urban fringes with an increasingly dense and continuous conurbation shaping the remaining 'empty' urban spaces.

This fuzzy urban dimension, which is referred to as *Città Diffusa* (Secchi 2002; Grosjean 2010), *Zwischenstadt* (Sieverts 1997), *Ville Emergente* (Dubois-Taine 1998) and *Scattered City* (Basilico 2008) implies a profound difference with the historical city, which was for its primary survival strongly based on the relationship with its own "area of reference", deriving not only material conditions, but also very important cultural and aesthetic features from it. This project makes use of the notion of the urban-rural continuum (Nilsson and Nielssen 2013; Mancebo 2014a) to understand the dual impact of urbanization processes on urban landscapes and the "area of reference" of the people

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<sup>1</sup> [http://deltametropol.nl/v1/pages/archief/in\\_de\\_media/01\\_020.php](http://deltametropol.nl/v1/pages/archief/in_de_media/01_020.php) and <https://www.natuurnet.nl/thema/vijfdenota.pdf>, also cited in Hajer (2011: 32).

living there: when the traditional urban area expands into the former hinterland, becoming connected to and clustering with 'other' urban areas, the 'rural' areas become on the one hand remote for many urban residents, but on the other hand, the urban area (re)introduces 'rural' areas within urban boundaries.

The notion of urban-rural continuum, originally introduced already by Dewey and Pahl in the 60s (Dewey 1960; Pahl 1966), rather than urban-rural dynamics is reassuring as it implies, that something will always remain throughout different types of landscape patterns. Yet, the urban-rural continuum is not in equilibrium, as landscape transformations are produced by societal changes in a variety of domains: shifts in the economy lead to the phasing out of traditional industries and, elsewhere, the emergence of new (economic) activities; changing consumer behavior leads to the disappearance of traditional downtown shopping centers, the energy transition shows an explosive increase of solar and wind, creating urban landscapes that have never existed before.

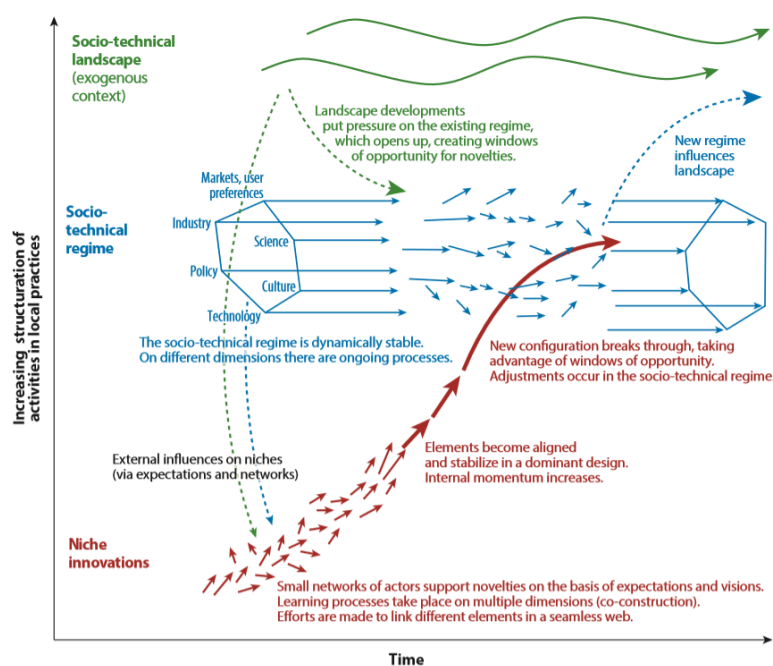
### **Urban landscapes and the sustainability transitions perspective**

The Smart-U-Green project studies the transformations affecting urban landscapes and, more specifically, (options for) the governance of these transformations in the context of today's grand societal challenges. These challenges particularly manifest in urban landscapes (Alberti 2017), and triggering urban sustainability transitions has been proposed as one way to address persistent and complex problems such as climate change, resource depletion, economic inequalities and landscape degradation (Frantzeskaki et al. 2017; Loorbach & Shiroyama 2016). *Transitions* are complex, unstructured, and non-linear processes of shifting from one dynamic system equilibrium to another. A transition involves the long-term process of disruptive societal change over decades. *Sustainability transitions* refer to particularly those large-scale disruptive changes that are deemed necessary to solve the grand societal challenges (Loorbach et al. 2017; Grin et al 2010).

Understanding how transformative processes unfold, which stakeholders contribute to these changes and how these stakeholders facilitate pathways of spatial development are of paramount importance for achieving the sustainability goals set for urban areas within the United Nations SDG's and within the New Urban Agenda (e.g. UN Habitat, 2016). In order to influence landscape transitions towards sustainability, experimental (transition) governance has been proposed, for example in the context of climate change and urban transformation in general (Bulkeley & Castán Broto 2013; Evans 2016). This novel mode of governance is supposed to provide steering capacities to better navigate with the long-term dynamics of transition processes and to embrace the inherent complexities and plurality of actor interests. Sustainability transitions in economy, society and ecology are in part unpredictable and unmanageable as they disrupt understandings, cultures, structures and the economic fabric in regions and beyond. Transitions lead to tensions, conflicts but also to social innovation and opportunities to co-create future pathways. Given the uncertainties connected to the idea of navigating sustainability transitions for urban landscapes, the literature, nevertheless, provides different frameworks and guiding principles that provide orientation in (landscape) transitions.

Key to the transition theory, which originated from studies focusing on national scale levels, are the three interrelated analytical concepts: socio-technical or socio-institutional *landscape*, *regime* and *niche* (Hodson et al 2017). Firstly, regimes represent the institutional structuring of tangible socio-technical or socio-ecological systems; the intangible rules, shared cognitive routines, regulations and

standards which structure but do not fully determine practices (Hodson et al. 2017). Regimes emerge over time through structuration processes between regime elements and also as a response to exogenous landscape pressures and interactions with niche-innovations. Secondly, niches are ‘protected spaces’, where radical innovations can evolve. Thirdly, socio-technical or socio-institutional landscapes refer to broader exogenous contexts, which often change slowly (e.g., demographics, climate change, macro-economics), but can also occasionally change quickly (e.g., wars, shocks, economic recession, oil price fluctuations). The term landscape as used within the Multi-Level Perspective (MLP) theory should not be confused with the concept of landscape as established over decades from landscape architecture, spatial planning domains, or as used in the ELC. The following Figure 1 illustrates the three key analytical concepts and their interaction dynamics towards deep structural changes over time.



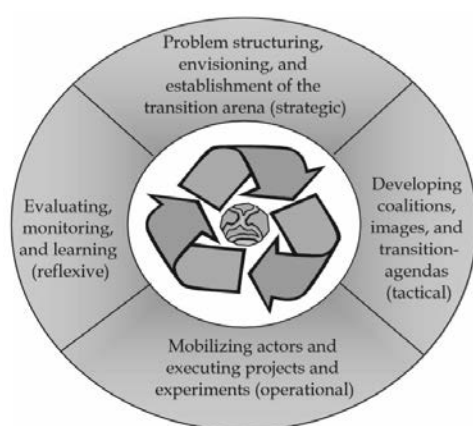
**Figure 1: The Multi-Level Perspective theory transition management cycle (Loorbach 2010)**

In order to navigate within transition processes, Loorbach and colleagues proposed Transition Management (Loorbach 2010) as a governance framework. Based on the multi-level understanding of the MLP and embedded in theories of complex, adaptive societal systems, governance with transition management can make use for the following principles:

The dynamics of a system offer feasible and non-feasible means for navigating and require a solid system understanding and system analysis, which are an essential precondition for steering the process management. This implies that content (e.g. of the urban landscape quality issue at stake) and process are inseparable (Loorbach 2010). Transition Management (TM) requires long-term thinking (at least 25 years) as a time horizon that helps shaping short-term policy in the context of persistent societal problems. This asks back (from a future vision to the status-quo) and forecasting (from status-quo into the future). Scenario thinking is important in order to set short-term goals based on long-term visions and goals.

The complexity of a societal system is at odds with the formulation of specific objectives and blueprint plans. This implies that objectives should be formulated flexible and adjustable at the system level. While navigating through system change, the structure and order of the system are also changing, and so the defined set of objectives may change too (Loorbach 2010). Immediate and effective intervention is possible as in both desirable and undesirable crisis situations to be steered towards a new attractor (e.g. a shared future vision for a particular spatial context). Such steering attempts call for creating space for agents to build up alternative regimes. Innovative agents with a certain distance from the regime can effectively create new regimes in a protected niche environment. However, navigating from “outside” of a societal system is not promising: structures, actors, and practices can adapt and suggest that these need to be directed from “within.” Loorbach (2010) emphasized the focus on (social) learning from and about diverse actor perspectives and a variety of future development options as an essential precondition for change. In order to allow for this type of learning to emerge, participation from and interaction between stakeholders is a necessary basis towards building up support for policies but also to engage actors in restructuring landscape challenges and solutions through social learning. Consequently, acknowledging the above described principles, Transition Management was developed as a practical management framework.

Figure 2 illustrates the four key phases in Transition Management starting from problem structuring, a thorough system analysis and a visioning process. This requires the establishment of a strategic transition arena, in which frontrunners and other innovative urban agents find the space to create alternative visions and pathways for future development. The second phase then addresses a tactical level with the development of new actor coalitions, novel images and with formulating a transition agenda as a basis for adaptive implementation and interventions. In phase three, short-term experimentation and interventions are conducted with mobilized actors and implemented projects in order to create visibility and tangibility of possible solutions today, which are linked to the long-term visions. Phase four emphasizes the reflexive learning and monitoring component, which runs in parallel to all other phases and should become an ongoing endeavor.



**Figure 2: The transition management cycle (Loorbach 2010)** Transition governance of urban landscapes

In the second point of the preamble, the ELC states the cardinal objective for the European continent: "*(...) to achieve sustainable development based on a balanced and harmonious relationship between social needs, economic activity, and the environment*" (ELC, Preamble). In



previous international documents that have favored the spread of concepts and practices of sustainable development, the landscape has not received much consideration. In both Agenda 21 and the Aalborg Charter, references to environmental themes are frequent but the landscape is not mentioned. The ELC expresses the conviction that the quality of European landscapes and the quality of life of European populations are an integral element of those landscapes. These elements are co-determined by the close interrelationship between economic, social, and cultural aspects that have settled over time and in space. Furthermore, these interrelationships are strongly rooted in the specifics of each landscape. This serves as a possible nexus for discussing different approaches, the different components of nature and culture, subjective and objective aspects, and material and immaterial elements, even within the goal of sustainable development. In this sense, the landscape is meant as an indicator of sustainability, a sort of "interface between humans and nature", a "litmus paper" for the effects that human activities produce on natural components of the planet (water, land, air, flora and fauna), affecting their quantity, quality, and distribution, as well as the cultural value of the territory. In this perspective, integrated and transition focused landscape governance can inspire a broad, multidimensional change in the natural and constructed environments. In pursuing this, urban sustainability coincides with the sustainability of the urban landscape overall (Dinep and Schwab 2010).

The current processes of planning and managing the development of urban landscapes share the intent to address sustainability challenges. At the same time, current planning approaches are criticized for still ignoring the integration of interventions and effects among different (spatial) scales ('transversality') and sectors ('cross-sectorial'), while also often observing path dependencies among the involved actors and their actual agency towards decision making in landscape planning (van Assche et al 2012; Truffer et al. 2010). Recent literature on landscape research suggests that creating sustainable landscapes is more successful when local communities feel ownership in their future environment (Opdam et al 2018). Hence, new ways of governing and intervening in urban landscape dynamics not only need to acknowledge the plurality of views and local problem ownership but also alternative forms of facilitating new social relations (Nevens et al., 2013).

As a response, experimentation in urban landscapes as a means of governance for sustainability transitions has been advocated by transition scholars (Wolfram and Frantzeskaki 2016; Sengers and Raven 2015) and geography scholars (Castán Broto and Bulkeley 2014), exploring how incorporating new forms of urban governance may increase the sustainability of urban development. Experimentation can refer to different meanings. In the context of governance for sustainability transitions it entails multiple actors collaboratively and creatively trialing new ways of organizing, doing, relating and in this way, generating alternative (forms of) innovative solutions with the potential to address contemporary urban (landscape) challenges (Frantzeskaki et al. 2018). To date, these actors from different contexts (e.g. private sector, knowledge organizations, public administration, civil society) involved in developing urban landscape futures do not automatically meet, understand and cooperate with each other. They still engage within different societal subsystems, institutional settings and spatial contexts. It is this disconnection among transition elements and among relevant urban actors that has been identified as a major hampering factor towards leveraging sustainability transitions in cities (Wittmayer, 2018). It describes manifestations of how within a regime adaptations are impeded.

The lack of transversality across spatial scales and across sectors and societal subsystems prevents an integrated envisioning and co-steering of landscapes as defined in the ELC to further evolve on local

and regional level. Based on transition theory, as outlined above, the project aims to describe the conditions for niche-regime interactions challenging the current landscape governance regime (or regime of landscape management/planning). More specifically, we seek for ways to alter the existing coalitions of actors together with their given, immanent power to co-develop landscapes (e.g. the coalition urban developers and civil servants in planning departments of cities and regions). In addition, we aim at describing the platforms and spaces, in which transversality and cross-sectoral thinking and doing with respect to landscape governance in the light of the ELC can further emerge. In general, the term governance has been used to distinguish current attempts of multi-actor steering of societal developments from traditional top-down government.

The term 'governance' in this project is not restricted to (local) government but applies to *all* stakeholders involved. However, it is important to realize that multi-actor governance can take on different forms. The governance of urban landscapes is a multi-dimensional and complex process of diverse interacting factors. Envisioning and influencing such landscape transformations by spatial planning is a contested multi-actor process per se. In theory, enabling the participation of these diverse actors in co-creating the urban landscape is seen as a democratic obligation in most European countries. Within their existing planning policies, participation is often foreseen to generate legitimacy for the later decision-making by societal consultation and inclusion. However, the degree, type and actual uptake of participatory consultations varies substantially between countries but also within single countries. Identifying the key stakeholder for inclusive deliberations on urban landscapes therefore builds an important fundament for new forms of landscape governance.

For Smart-U-Green the recommendable form of governance would, in line with the literature from transition studies and political economy, be a form of co-production involving both private and public actors, established actors as well as newcomers. Co-production would involve policy-oriented learning (Hisschemoller and Hoppe 1995), which is featured by problem structuring: the identification, articulation, confrontation and where possible integration of diverse viewpoints. Basically, we identify three interrelated challenges for such an approach in practice: firstly, we (1) observe *the persistence of sector oriented policies*. Secondly, we find a persistent (2) *conflict between top-down and bottom-up approaches to urban landscapes*. Thirdly, we observe (3) *structural power relations within landscape governance* as a challenge that relates to what we can refer to as 'the political economy' of urban landscapes.

### **Challenge 1: The persistence of sector oriented policies ('Lack of integration')**

The ELC intends to overcome the separation that still exists between landscape, nature conservation policies, territorial development, spatial planning policies, and other approaches. In Italy, for example, different legal sources and frameworks favour the separation of institutional competencies and responsibilities that in different ways may affect urban and peri-urban assets. The basic laws seem to ignore each other; and the same can be said of the control and guidance for activities of the respective ministries, for example of the Environment, of cultural and landscape assets, of infrastructure development, and of economic development. An equally broad scission can also be observed at European level where the competencies of the Europe Union do not embrace the landscape as a whole, which is instead addressed independently by the Council of Europe with the ELC from the year 2000.



In France, the conceptions of landscape have been governed by separated policies as well: nature conservancy, prerogative of the Ministry of Nature and Environment, urban development, prerogative of the Department of Public Works, and rural development, prerogative of the Ministry of Agriculture. The last two were the most powerful ministries during the 60s and 70s (Charvot, 2003). For the DATAR, Delegation for Regional Planning and Regional Attractiveness, which aims at improving landscape quality by reconciling aesthetics, resources and eco-development, appears as a lever to increase the value of rural territories (Chabasson 1992; Chapuis 2001) and to balance the urban sprawl. The different conceptions of landscape converged around recreative values, but mainly in preserved or touristic natural areas or rural areas. Progressively, the aesthetic regulation has been related to social and ecological meanings. An ordinary landscape, associated to the living environment of people, emerged through the preservation of common objects, since Landscape Act (1993). Now, more than the ELC, the Grenelle Act (2008-2009) and the recent Recovery of Biodiversity, Nature and Landscapes Act (2016) introduced a complex role for landscape in urban planning. Behind the diversity of landscape concepts, the goals are to improve an ecological functionality, ecosystem services and the quality of life. The difficulty is to connect aesthetic qualities, daily uses and economic valuation.

Clearly, a segregated organization of the policy domain can be held in part responsible for a lack of knowledge considered for decision-making. How do these observations relate to relevant social and political theories? We hereby think of theories that try to explain (the lack of) efficiency of public policies, or theories aiming at increased rationality of government action: an operational science for decision-making and implementation of decisions. However, human action is rarely rational, which, amongst others, Pareto (1917-19) explains by pointing to instincts, passions (residues according to Pareto). Logical actions are means to ends, but a lot of actions are illogical because they are driven by customs, superstition, reflexes or they conduct to effects unthought. In front of this illogical actions, humans give justifications. With the neo-liberal turning point the sociology of organizations (Crozier and Friedberg, 1977) also highlighted the dysfunctions of state action, the lack of rationality of the public decisions and the difficulties of the administration to implement the decisions taken. Moreover, these authors point to the limited capacity of the State to solve societal problems it claims to address as well the limited rationality of the actors themselves

State becomes a more or less wobbly assembly of public policies more or less well adjusted to the complex real world challenges and whose rationality is more than problematic. Public policies aren't given, but an analytical definition constructed by the different actors. They are the product of social actors and their interactions, and a category applied and told by actors. Hence, they can be subjected to transformative attempts to change the current regimes of landscape planning.

## **Challenge 2: Top-down versus bottom-up and the disregard of practical knowledge**

When considering the ongoing conflict between proponents of a top-down and bottom-up approach in policy-making, Hajer (2011) seeks a compromise with his concept of the 'energetic society'. The question central in the essay is how to mobilise the modern 'energetic society', featured by a mass of autonomous, articulate citizens, in favor of sustainability. Hajer cites the 'battle' over New York City planning between Robert Moses and Jane Jacobs over half a century ago. Hajer strongly sympathizes with Jacob's participatory approach, but he also admires Moses' attention for structure. Hence, he argues for a balance between the two paradigms that have contrasted for over 50 years. Hajer suggests other forms of lighter development, which allow for a greater inclusion of citizen initiatives

(Hajer 2011). However, government will remain in charge of setting the broader goals and values. In the end, the question remains what is new in the 21st planning model for the energetic society? Two elements are interesting in evaluating Hajer's approach to the governance of urban landscape quality. First, there is no mentioning of the value of practical, tacit knowledge of citizens and the fact that they are in a disadvantaged position vis-a-vis to the still dominant knowledge for example of urban planners. Second, and related to this, there is the idea that state planning will remain necessary, because of the specific task of government to protect the more vulnerable in society. When it comes to sustainability, it is the government who knows what needs to be done and the energetic society needs to be persuaded to do so.

There is a wide recognition that local knowledge is critical in addressing issues of urban landscape quality. Since they are often unaware of specific local conditions, planners need to benefit from practical knowledge at local level (Schön, 1983). Local citizens are often the ones who know the real rather than the administrative boundaries of a territory, however, collaboration between planners and locals is easily undermined because of lack of trust. Lack of trust on the side of planners and governments easily provokes or strengthens lack of trust on the side of local communities.

### **Challenge 3: The political economy of landscape governance**

Both challenges addressed so far relate to a third challenge, namely the structural power differences in landscape governance. We refer to the power relationship and processes as the political economy of landscape governance. Basically, landscape governance is considered a multi-actor process, where diverse types of parties, or stakeholder groups, participate. Among the most prominent ones are government agencies and elected officials operating at various administrative scales, but, in the cases considered in the Smart-U-Green project context, mostly local authorities. The second stakeholder group includes market parties, who are driven by economic profit maximization such as real estate development companies. As a third group, we point to citizen initiatives defending particular (small) group interests. In contrast to lobbies influencing policies, government is supposed to act in the public interest and, therefore, weighs and finds a trade-off between specific demands. In reality, though, government agencies have also particular interests, and so have municipalities. Drawing upon the economic theory of bureaucracy (Downs, 1967) we may argue that municipalities, like other bureaucracies have an interest in maintaining themselves, in growing bigger and in achieving their goals against lowest cost. Creating opportunities for project development is a vital asset for municipalities. It creates economic activity, it increases their number of inhabitants and provides them with income. Municipalities tend to increase their income and keep their expenses at the minimum.

We may expect that municipalities, in seeking expansion, will find their natural allies in the development and the (local) construction sector, who are dependent on government contracts and spatial plans. Since bureaucracies tend to avoid risks and aim at reaching their goals against lowest cost, we can imagine that they will normally rely on a network of companies they know and trust, as they have worked with them before. This leads to the hypothesis that there is a natural alliance between municipalities and (local) developers in achieving economic prosperity. In fact, their collaboration is all supposed to be done for the public good, as it creates jobs, houses and - indirectly- public spaces that increase the attractiveness of a territory. For similar reasons, bottom-up initiatives confront municipalities with a dilemma. On the one hand, citizens are voters and bottom-up initiatives have a good image, so they cannot easily be denied. On the other hand, the initiatives do not increase municipality's income. Instead, many initiatives ask for support. In short, since they make the agencies' lives

more complex, we do expect to find much less alliances between urban authorities and their citizenry, but rather an ambivalent relationship.

What would this observation mean for the dynamics in sustainability transitions of urban landscapes, which suggest a more diversified urban space with more focus on green and blue spaces as a beneficial development pathway? Our suggestion is that transition governance needs be featured by growing alliances between the urban and regional authorities (e.g. municipalities) and their citizenry and less intense interactions between the authorities and the development and construction sector. The chances for this to happen grow to the extent that urban regions are facing abnormal circumstances, such as facing shrinkage instead of growth. Under these conditions, agencies may better understand the value of broadening their scope, confronting themselves with new knowledge and engaging in policy oriented learning.

In a sense, the perspective described here dovetails with a pessimist Marxist conception of growing connectivity between the State and (factions of) the private sector, as has been suggested by theories on state-monopolist-capitalism. However, what follows from the economic theories of bureaucracy is that bureaucracies act in conformity with their public responsibility, whereas the Marxist approach would stress the intransparent and undemocratic decision-making caused by the interwovenness of public and private interests. Ironically, whereas organization theorists like Crozier and Friedberg (1977), point at the irrationality of government behaviour, for Downs (1967), bureaucratic behaviour is completely rational.

In summary, the analysis of landscape policies faces three major challenges, that we can highlight and explain by pointing to different, to a large extent, conflicting, perspectives in social science. Our hypothesis is that the compliance with ELC aims and objectives will imply tensions and conflicts with current practices in landscape governance. Smart-U-Green addresses these tensions and conflicts at local level (taking into account interactions between higher and local levels), and asks how the barriers for compliance with the ELC are legitimated. Smart-U-Green will thereby focus on the emergence of citizen initiatives that intent to address and alter the system constraints and to reshape local objectives.

### **Participatory involvement of different actors in landscape governance**

The current scientific literature delivers a precise picture of the set of relevant stakeholders within the existing landscape development regime. In a transdisciplinary case study on sustainable landscape development in Switzerland, Stauffacher et al. (2008) presented a framework for stakeholder involvement including representatives from the public sector (e.g. civil servants for economic promotion, agriculture & forestry, environmental protection, cultural heritage and tourism), mayors from involved communities, farmers and local business representatives for the private sector, and different representatives from the public at large.

In order to tackle spatial transformation dynamics in the peri-urban landscape, von Wirth et al. (2014) involved actors from diverse public authorities representing from different levels (federal, regional, communal), actors representing public transport and other utility organizations, small and medium sized enterprises, scientists from different research disciplines, offices for landscape architecture and at a later stage citizen representative in a transdisciplinary research project. As a third example, Kusters and colleagues (2017) described principles for facilitating multi-stakeholder platforms in the context of integrated landscape initiatives as a governance vehicle. Such initiatives

address diverse landscape components (e.g., agricultural land, natural forests, tree plantations, rivers, and settlements), and are designed around procedures of multi-stakeholder involvement.

Central to such integrated landscape initiatives is the aim to facilitate the co-design of strategies for the landscape development by public, private, and civil society actors. All three examples chosen from the literature illustrate the plurality and diversity of relevant stakeholders in landscape development. Such a diversity of stakeholders from different societal sectors is known from cross-sector concepts of inclusive innovation systems, also referred to as triple helix or quadruple helix models (McAdam & Debackere, 2018). For example, in the context of regional innovation ecosystems, the quadruple helix model suggests to connect actors from the private sector, public sector/government, academia, and civil society. However, facilitating knowledge generation and deliberative decision-making processes among large groups of divergent actors remain an ambivalent challenge. Providing procedural guidance on the appropriate selection and inclusion of stakeholders, the fair distribution of articulating interests and demands, the fruitful knowledge exchange and integration, as well as the legitimacy of collectively generated ideas and strategies remain subject to controversial aspects of any participatory, multi-actor process

The private sector summarizes all commercial activities such as farming, industry, and from the service sector. With academia, we refer to all types of knowledge organizations with a main purpose to generate and exchange (scientific) knowledge about landscape governance with actors from other societal domains. The public sector subsumes all state functions and services with respect to landscape development, be it actors from municipal planning units to national ministers for the environment. Finally, with civil society, primarily refers to the public at large in different roles, be it as engaged citizens, house owner, or citizens formally organized in NGO's or other groups representing civil society interests.

When considering the literature of sustainability transitions in general, and the theoretical work on transition management and strategic niche management it appears useful to introduce the actor categories of 'frontrunners' and 'urban niche pioneers' here. Identifying persons or groups as frontrunner or urban pioneers refers to their shown commitment of doing and organizing urban life differently. In transition theory, frontrunners are seen as actors with a concerted commitment to be a first mover in bringing radically new ways of doing, thinking and organizing into practice. In the context of local urban transitions, the notion of frontrunners was recently conceptualized as "inhabitants and professionals who are passionate about and active in the neighborhood, feel the urgency for change, have new ideas and/or think about or engage in creative actions" (Wittmeyer et al. 2018, p. 194) Activities run by frontrunners and urban pioneers are often different from the accepted mainstream. For example, the early adopters and pioneers in vertical urban farming started as local grassroots initiatives and social entrepreneurs in cities. Such pioneering actors, who organize in form of innovative start-ups, local grassroots organizations and social enterprises were identified as playing an important role in transformation processes (Loorbach 2010, Raven et al. 2010).

The role of such frontrunners in the context of landscape governance is understudied as of today. While frontrunning activities in inner city areas found acceleration platforms such as "Impact Hubs" and "Urban Living Labs" for experimenting with local solutions for urban sustainability challenges (see e.g. von Wirth et al. 2018), the activities in the peri-urban areas and with respect to landscape challenges receive less attention. Within the Smart-U-Green project a participatory integrated assessment (Cuppen 2010; Hisschemoller & Cuppen 2015) will give due attention to (1) the involvement of stakeholders representing the largest variety of perspectives on (green) urban

landscape quality and (2) an open dialogue, which deviates from 'normal' conditions in that stakeholders representing marginal viewpoints and stakeholders representing more mainstream viewpoints have equal weight in the process. The focus on articulating 'marginal' perspectives is justified by the observation that marginal, less articulated viewpoints are more likely to turn out innovative rather than mainstream viewpoints (Dunn 2001: 425). The combination of empirical research into actual conflicts and conflicting perspectives with participatory integrated assessment allows Smart-U-Green to gain a more comprehensive understanding of transition issues than multi-disciplinary research schemes on urban planning can.

## **Recent approaches to integrated landscape governance**

### ***Adaptive planning***

One of the tools for integrating and distributing environmental benefits is adaptive planning (Isgren et al., 2017). One key idea of adaptive planning is that when too much emphasis is put in problem identification and solution, it usually ends in unintended negative outcomes (Verweij, Thompson, 2007). As a matter of consequence, the planning of urban landscapes should be less about how to find solutions to pre-determined problems, than understanding the dynamics that give rise to desirable and undesirable phenomena: planning has to move from a prescriptive activity to a process of learning. It entails a collaborative process engaging communities, professionals and other stakeholders with urban planners. Urban labs, joint fact-finding and public forums may help fostering synergistic urban lifestyles that are desirable, attainable, maintainable and reproducible— realizing what is usually called "meta design planning" (Justus, Taylor, 2011). However — as part of adaptive planning — collaborative action is anything but obvious. The greatest and more general difficulty is a lack of legitimacy for the process itself and for its outcomes (Lang et al., 2012): when trying to generate knowledge for collective action, the process and its outcomes often interfere with legitimized procedures and official politics (Scholz, 2010).

### ***Urban living labs and joint fact-finding***

*Urban living labs* (ULL) are critical public opinion spheres to find solutions and establish collaborations within cities. They define a setting where collaboration, co-creation, experimentation and learning can take place (Mancebo, 2017, Puerari et al. 2018) between different actors from diverse societal spheres (e.g. Civil Society, Private Sector, Academia, Public Sector). ULL can fulfil a useful function as trialing and learning platforms for urban sustainability challenges. Co-creation in ULL enables cross-sectoral reflection and envisioning of solutions. With respect to ULL operations, some guidelines principles are important:

aligning agendas of stakeholders by articulating and discussing the aspirations and purposes of the collective organization (according to the diversity of participants). This procedural aspect aims at being receptive to alternative problem framings, methods and outcomes (with being open to failure and other than predefined solutions). Secondly, putting in place physical platforms for discussions and experimentations appears to be a promising ULL characteristic (a neutral meeting place for an active participation). There is a necessity to re-evaluate continuously the agenda and actor expectations. ULL promise to foster the involvement among a plurality of partners with different perspectives, knowledge and influences (including marginal perspectives). Strategically anchoring participation in the lab operations is seen as an important approach to pursue. This includes

empowering participants to initiate or operate their own processes within the ULL context and sharing of responsibilities and control. Furthermore, creating visibility for the experimental projects and tests within the urban fabric appears to be central. Building the ULL organization by defining a common sustainability vision, objectives, target groups, resources and cost of operations was found as a success factor (Evans & Karvonen 2014). Learning is to be set center stage by looking at each process and activity as an opportunity to collaboratively learn about specific sustainability challenges. This also includes providing the space for failure and maximizing the learning by identifying learning goals among participants and reflecting as well as evaluating the learning process. Finally, ULL can increase their contributions to public value by monitoring their activities and achievements and by continuously disseminating lessons learnt through storytelling, cooperating with network partners by establishing opportunities for the uptake of experiments in different places and in policies as well as finding business models of how to continuously operate the ULL (von Wirth et al. 2018).

*Joint fact-finding* is a strategy for resolving factual disputes that are at the heart of scientific controversies. All stakeholders are engaged in an analytic discussion in order to facilitate agreement among them. Such debates integrate scientific and technical information into a decision-making process (McCreary et al. 2001). The consensus building includes two parts. The first part is information gathering and a negotiating process. In order to succeed with consensus building in joint fact-finding, six steps were identified as being crucial (Susskind et al. 2007). A convenor initiates a possible consensus building process by asking a neutral party to conduct a stakeholder assessment. Through this assessment, the neutral party identifies stakeholders and assesses their interests, capacities, and potential for reaching consensus-based agreements. The convenor and the stakeholders determine whether or not to proceed with a consensus building process. If they do decide to proceed, they come to an agreement on stakeholder representatives, define rules, an agenda, a timeline and select a facilitator. The parties engage in a process of deliberation in which they create value by generating options or packages for mutual gain. The parties distribute the value that was created by forming recommendations or proposals for agreement. They promote consensus agreements where possible, and enable near-consensus alternatives when full consensus is not possible. Appropriate parties are charged with the responsibility for follow-up on the agreement reached. This includes responsibilities for implementation, monitoring, and providing opportunities for stakeholders to revisit and revise their agreements as necessary during the implementation phase.

In joint fact-finding, experts and non-experts have both an important role during all phases. That means, the collection and use of scientific and technical informations for decision-making processes become more transparent; as do the inputs for implementing decisions. Consequently, joint fact-finding informs actors in processes of institutional decision-making by focusing on the most relevant scientific and technical informations, by reducing frictions, and by building an agreement based on knowledge. All these practices provide attempts to answer the criticism of functionalism in urban planning (Dreyfus, 1976): a rationalized planning that gives full power to the project manager (e.g. the architect and real estate developer) and the land owner (e.g. the State, the farmer). The criticism addresses a currently segmented, technicized, bureaucratized and hierarchical organization of urban planning – occurring in a system of stable actors. The critique is brought up against a stable system of actors that control the licence (qualification) required for a mandate to develop space and take decisions on behalf of other societal actors and their values and attitudes. Aiming at a radical

transformation of these criticized structures creates uncertainties. That means, transformative attempts must also incorporate trust-(re)building and making legitimacies of new approaches strongly apparent.

In this context the notion of user management is relevant, which refers to the field of urban studies rather than urban planning. The user manager is an actor that allows to position the user of urban space in the heart of urban thinking. This involves taking into account the needs and expectations of different users (e.g. citizens, business, tourists) during the process of developing an urban project. In this way, a user manager can contribute to creating co-ownership of the project, long-term costs are controlled by efficient development and confidence is restored to the actors of urban production. One way of operationalizing this in practice is the idea to analyze the differentiated uses of city areas according to temporalities and socio-cultural groups. For urban authorities, this is another way of informing state programs for city dwellers, services and urban cycles. It aims recognizing the user expertise to establish respect for each stakeholder within a project context. The calling for the position of urban user management is a political endeavour. It aims at defending a democratic approach to city making (Gehl, 2013). However, the notion of "management" can refer to the fact of driving safe behavior ("insured risks"). However, here the aim is to restore the balance between mastery and non-mastery, letting uncertainty and risk expression evolve in order to have a flourishing rich urban life of diversity.



## 4. Main challenges in the governance of urban landscape quality: national perspectives

### Netherlands

In general, landscape challenges in the Netherlands can be described as the constant dilemma between protection and (economic) development. The development pressure on land to become developed is particularly intense in the given topographic and socio-economic context of the Netherlands. As an already densely populated country with a slightly growing economy, the urban agglomerations particularly in the West of the country (Randstad) are growing and make accessible land an increasingly scarce resource. This general trend of urbanization has implications for the built densities within the existing settlement areas but particularly for the growth at the fringes of the cities, where urban infrastructures grow into their hinterlands. On the other hand there also do exist cities and regions, which are declining in population size and are facing different types of landscape development risks and opportunities. Accordingly, the key (governance) challenges for the state of Dutch landscapes are summarized as follows:

1. *Governance challenges*: the governance of urban landscapes in the Netherlands has evolved over the last decades away from a more top-down, centralized decision-making process, to a decentralized procedure of combining regulatory (co-)steering by state actors with multiple interests from other actors with an increasingly important role of spatial visions that aim at providing long-term orientations. However, the actual procedures of landscape transformation and the attempts to influence these developments vary significantly between different localities in the Netherlands.

In general, the recent steps towards further decentralizing and deregulating planning decisions with the new Environmental Planning Act (EPA) have also led to new challenges for landscapes in the Netherlands. Landscape experts currently observe a vacuum of actual responsibility emerging as part of the shift of these state responsibilities from the national to the provincial and municipal level. The new EPA regulations have already passed the legislative process, yet, their implementation into practice is supposed to start in 2019. This leads to the current situation that public servants in the national administration already refer to the shifted responsibilities towards the provincial administration, while on the level of provinces, some of the capacities have not yet been built up to deal with landscape and spatial planning issues.

This also reflects the very nature of the landscape challenges themselves, as they do not simply occur within municipal boundaries for example. Instead, landscape issues do occur on broader scales, often on a regional scale level, which is nested between, neither relating to one municipality only, nor to a whole province. This leads to a second governance challenge concerning the exchange and collaboration between the involved municipalities and province(s). Their diversity of development interests and their variety of available capacities to deal with landscape issues often still defines the level of priority that is given to landscape topics on the political agendas. Among the key landscape related challenges in the Netherlands are:



2. *Urbanization*: there is an uninterrupted trend of urban expansion at the fringes of the larger Dutch agglomerations (in the Randstad in particular). Cities still grow in terms of sealed surface areas into their hinterland, which leads to an increase in grey and red landscape types versus agricultural and green land use types. Despite a growing awareness about the unwanted consequences of urban sprawling, there exists a continuous pressure on the availability of land for further urban development. Instead of consequently planning for further densified cities, growing within their existing settlement boundaries, there are still many actors promoting urban growth into the countryside (be it from local representatives from a community or representative from federal ministries). There is not yet a clear densification strategy for urban areas in place that prevents the pressure of urban expansion onto other landscape types at the fringes of the Dutch cities.

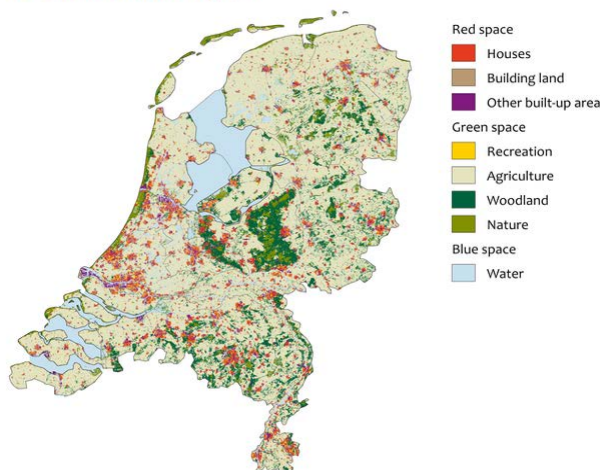
3. *Climate Change adaptation*: The Netherlands, similar to many other countries, is also vulnerable to climate change. Among the climate change related risks and vulnerabilities in the Netherlands, the Dutch government identified focuses mainly on flood protection, freshwater supply, and spatial adaptation to urban flooding as well as adaptation measures against urban heat stress. These challenges are for example addressed in the new Delta Program, by which the the Dutch Government has made an important governance step towards national climate-resilience (Ligtvoet et al. 2015). However, the program's adaptation strategy does not cover all the risks and opportunities for the Netherlands in relation to climate change. For example, more attention is needed for the impact of climate change on the Dutch economy, population and nature. When referring to nature, the aspects of soil depletion in peat pasture areas or the soil salinization with negative consequences for agricultural production demand further attention with strong implications for the state of the Dutch landscapes in the future.

4. *Energy landscapes*: the demand for a further increase in energy production from renewable sources (e.g. wind, solar power) will have major impacts on the landscapes in the Netherlands. As part of the Dutch following up to comply with international agreements for the reduction of Green House Gas emissions, a further substantial increase in capacities for renewable energy production is an indispensable trajectory. However, a substantial increase in new energy production plants has implications for the respective locations. For example, larger on-shore wind power plants and solar panels have to be considered in terms of their landscape impacts. Local communities often do feel threatened by energy infrastructure projects in proximate locations. Research shows that persons' place attachment and the fear of losing value (e.g. cultural, natural, or of nearby real estate) often expresses in resistance and opposition. Yet, by demonstrating the local benefits, persons' place attachment can also express as an enabling capacity for more deployment of more renewable energy technologies as part of an innovative local development process (Devine-Wright 2011). The inclusion of diverse stakeholders, for example in decision processes about the positioning of wind turbines or the transformation of agricultural land into space for solar panels, is becoming a central part of the implementation procedures. Moreover, land used for energy generation is (at least partly) withdrawn from other forms of land use (such as agriculture). Competing land uses will continuously remain in the core of the landscape challenges in the Netherlands.

5. *Intensive Agriculture*: agricultural land use is still the dominating landscape type in the Netherlands. However, the land use shows considerable variation between the Dutch provinces. In the provinces of the Randstad - Noord-Holland, Zuid-Holland and Utrecht - there is a dominant focus on housing, work and recreation land uses, whereas the provinces Groningen, Friesland and Drenthe are characterized by a high proportion of agriculture, while Zeeland and Overijssel also show more than

70% of land is still used for agricultural purposes. Yet, agricultural land use nowadays is intensive and brings about its own landscape challenges with a general decline of land quality and loss of biodiversity. Firstly, this was driven by processes of land consolidation and intensification of farm structures over the last decades. Small farm structures transformed into large farms with high input and industrial management practices. Natural and semi-natural elements, such as hedges, ditches and tree patches were decimated (PBL 2018). Intensification and consolidation of agricultural practices had an ongoing negative effect on biodiversity, both inside and outside the agricultural areas as they often manifested in monocultures in combination with an intense use of herbicides and pesticides by farmers.

Land use in the Netherlands, 2012



**Figure 3:** Land use in the Netherlands in the year 2012 (latest available overview data),  
Ref.: Environmental Data Compendium, Government of the Netherlands, accessed: April 2018

## 6. Urban sprawl and demand for affordable housing

Despite significant local and regional differences, several peri-urban regions in the Netherlands are characterized by land consuming settlement development with lower utilization densities compared to more central city location. Spatial patterns have been studied in the scientific literature intensively in the context of debates around urban sprawling. Urban sprawl in the Netherlands is associated with diverse, unwanted environmental effects, such as the loss of agricultural land and green spaces, fragmented land-use, and an increase in site distances, which in turn, impacts on commuting and transportation demands, currently still resulting in higher energy consumptions and traffic emissions compared to inner-city commuting. The expansion of urban space at its fringes (e.g. with commercial areas) poses further threats to the local quality of life by substantial changes to the cultural and aesthetic landscape values (von Wirth et al. 2014).

Another pressing issue of urban landscapes in the Netherlands is the demand for affordable housing. With urban populations expected to further grow over the next two decades in the major agglomerations within the Randstad, land and the availability of parcels to be developed will become an even more scarce resource; and the pressure on prices for real estate is expected to grow further. That means, developing new residential areas, in particular for affordable and well accessible housing in cities remains an important challenge. It is challenging because the land ownership is diversified, market mechanisms and land speculation are still common practices and the set of instruments for public actors to intervene ask for advancements (e.g. this could happen with new public funds to

purchase land in urban areas, stricter rules for densification, defining pre-emptive rights for public actors in certain urban areas). The aforementioned challenges of urban areas are important to tackle because the availability of qualitative and affordable housing and public space within the cities (co-)determines the development pressure onto areas in the urban hinterland, where space might still be available at lower purchase prices, yet coming with the societal costs described by the urban sprawl effects above.

#### *7. Providing enough green and blue landscape spaces in cities under densification*

Urban transformation in the Randstad cities of the Netherlands is driven by economic and population growth. For example, strong growth regions are found in both the northern and southern wings of the Randstad. The northern wing includes Greater Amsterdam and the surrounding Zaanstreek and Flevoland. The Utrecht region is also expected to achieve growth of almost 10% up to 2025. The southern wing of the Randstad includes the The Hague agglomeration and the adjacent Delft and Westland regions. Clear growth is also expected in the regions surrounding the city of Rotterdam (Greater Rijnmond, and the eastern and south-eastern parts of South Holland) (de Jong & van Duin 2012). This includes the case region of Drechtsteden, which in recent years remained unchanged in population or showed moderate declines. The expected population and economic growth in these regions presents many opportunities for the cities and their suburban surroundings, for example, to make more effective use of its underused spaces and to upgrade sustainable buildings and infrastructures (OECD 2017). However, it also generates challenges in how to balance among different uses for land within the urban areas – be it for housing, industry, green and blue spaces, infrastructure, agriculture, and others. Strategic planning documents in the particular cities often do already foresee urban expansion and environmental sustainability as mutually reinforcing goals. These are often intended to become realized with increasing the housing density within the existing settlement areas, transforming mono-functional areas into mixed-use (residential and commercial) developments, further improving regional public transport, increasing the quality of public spaces, protecting and investing into green spaces for recreation, and preparing for a post-fossil era with all public utilities in the municipalities (OECD 2017). Defining these goals and measures, however, does not automatically lead to their immediate implementation. Instead, land use in growing urban areas remains a contested issue and the diversified land ownership structures and revenue oriented market mechanisms make land a particular scarce resource in expanding urban areas. Most likely, the aforementioned measures are not enough in order to lead to a significant protection of green spaces within cities and a reduction of converting agricultural land into residential areas and built infrastructures. One entry point for deeper structural changes is the existing planning regime.

### **Italy**

Territorial diversity and landscape complexity is a peculiarity of Italy. In fact, the territorial system is characterised by a small number of metropolitan areas and a huge number of medium, small, and very small urban settlements, place in contexts of high environmental and landscape quality. If one looks at the territory at a wide scale, there is a spontaneous development that involves different cities within the same territory, in a continuous combination with nature, environments, and cultural heritage of great value. Challenges in urban policies and their integration rely on these cultural, territorial, demographic, social and urban settlement diversities and interactions. To date urban and peri-urban development in Italy presents complex problems and the tools necessary to face these challenges must be identified. The quality of the landscape is invoked as a strategic objective of territorial

governance that requires a strong alliance among nature conservation policies, landscape policies, and other sectoral policies, within a framework that is still uncertain and characterized by various critical aspects (Gambino and Peano, 2015). The landscape appears on different scales as an additional aspect in policies, plans, and interventions, but conflicts exist with the difficulty of the post-landscape planning period: an incomplete integration of the landscape in policies and territorial and sector planning, the continued lack of identification of public and private subjects responsible for management and activation, as well as the absence of appropriate financial resources for its implementation (Voghera, 2018). The principal key challenges for the state of Italy landscapes are summarized as follows:

#### *Socio-economic transitions and urban development*

Among the main drivers of the socio-economic transition which also challenges the Italian landscape qualities are:

- Demographic changes (such as aging population, reduction in number of inhabitants, intense suburbanization);
- Economic crises (which has – and still is- changed territorial assets, production settlement, population distribution, economic geography, etc...);
- Welfare crisis (which has led to a slowdown in the ratio between economic growth, employment, and social progress and caused a large portion of the urban population to be excluded from the job market or forced to fall back on low-qualified and underpaid positions);
- Economic segregation (whereby the poor are becoming even poorer and disparities are increasing within cities).

Serious inequalities can be observed in terms of available housing, educational quality, unemployment, and the difficulty or inability to access some primary services (health, transport, etc.); spatial segregation, which has led to the aggravation of ghettoization, pushing socially marginalized groups (most of time foreigners and non-eu citizens) into peripheral and most degraded areas; the progression of urban expansion, partially blocked by the economic crisis, which, through the spread of low-density settlements constitutes the main threat to sustainable territorial development (since public services are more expensive and difficult to guarantee, natural resources are subject to overuse and pressure, public transport networks are insufficient, and the dependence on private transport is growing, with consequent increase in traffic and pollution).

Urban degradation is one of the aspects that most affect the quality of life in cities and, more generally, the quality of the urban landscape (Cocci Grifoni, D'Onofrio and Sargolini, 2018). It is very difficult to say with certainty whether the phenomenon of degradation in urban areas is an independent phenomenon or whether it is closely linked to other external factors, such as the decline in average per-capita income levels, the crisis in economic-productive sectors, the ineffectiveness of urban plans and policies, or even in relation to specific sectoral policies. But there is a general agreement that, over time, urban degradation has become one of the elements contributing to widespread social malaise, with consequences for the safety and security of populations.

### *Environmental resources and territorial risks*

The loss of biodiversity and damages to ecosystems caused by uncontrolled urban expansion and intense agriculture practices are some of the major challenges in Italy. Other priority environmental issues include urban air pollution, soil and water management, waste management, nature and landscape conservation, climate change, transport management, and protection of coastal areas and the marine environment (Cocci Grifoni, D'Onofrio and Sargolini, 2018). Measures to cope with hydrogeological risks (flooding, landslides, and earthquakes) imply large central budget outlays, due to the fact that there are very few preventive actions, compared to emergency interventions.

Italian environmental policies largely fall under EU environmental legislation. With respect to air pollution and climate change, Italy is pushing initiatives designed to reduce black carbon emissions, particularly in the transportation sector and renewable energy production. According to a report from the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD 2013), Italy is also currently looking to push forward with a number of water conservation initiatives, including the evolution of the legal and institutional framework, reforming the water supply systems, and improving water management and risk prevention. With respect to these challenges, a growing number of urgent needs are emerging, such as to limit urban settlement expansion, also finding new synergies between the city and country (agricultural parks, social gardens, river parks, etc.) and to increase environmental comfort within cities, through the improvement of the green networks and infrastructures in cities (adaptation to climate change and related climate discomfort, quality of the air, quality of the water, quality of the soil, waste management, sustainable solution for energy production, ...). Moreover, plannings address the extension of green urban and peri-urban areas to contrast soil impermeabilization and prevent hydrogeological risks and to contrast the abandonment and degradation of commercial and productive areas in urban and peri-urban areas in order to promote the increase of functional mix and social integration in cities. This shall lead to the creation of a reactive, inclusive economy (and society) that is capable of contrasting social conflicts and social inequalities and to promote socioeconomic, cultural, ethnic, and generational diversity as a source of innovation, social resilience and resistance to globalization processes. In addition, this is also meant to fight energy waste with better housing, a wider use of sustainable solutions, more attractive public open spaces, and more sustainable, inclusive, and healthy forms of mobility, in respect to the environment by incrementing the use of sustainable and renewable energy systems.

### *Priorities in governance and landscape development.*

With the above framework, it is evident that a change of approach is needed in the planning system and in decision making processes, to transform threats into opportunities, starting with the progressive integration of policies that can allow some particularly important objectives to be reached. These include: i) the need to guarantee substantial multilevel and inter-sectoral approach, in order to face the growing complexity of urban and peri-urban landscapes, putting coherence between initiatives with territorial worth and local interventions. Each challenge, whether social, economic, or environmental, is not addressed only at the neighbourhood level, but should also be projected to a wider territorial context. It is necessary to focus on complementarity between sectoral policies at the large scale (i.e. on the level of large urban and metropolitan areas), and the social and cultural approaches that foresee the involvement and responsibility of citizens on the local level; ii) the need to ensure dialogue and cooperation between the territorial and administrative levels, as well as between sectors affected by urban development. It is necessary to overcome the tension among differ-

ent interests and reach a compromise among contrasting objectives and diverging models of development; iii) the need to overcome conservation “tout court”, in favour of a much more integrated conservation, planning, and management strategies and actions; iv) the need to practice an original predictive capacity (draft scenarios), which is destined to become particularly important for managing transitions, overcoming conflicts and contradictions among the various planning objectives, and developing a better understanding of reality, the feasibility of transformations, and the possibility of effectively reaching the established objectives; v) the need for social participation in landscape management processes because transition to sustainability and quality of landscape are not only in plans and programmes, but also on implementation actions, people behaviours and community awareness; vi) the need for institutional and social flexibility to adapt policies, projects, and actions to processes of socio-economic and landscape innovation (also with the activation of synergy between local public and private resources).

## France

At the national level (for collective representations and political agenda), the main challenges are related to climate change and biodiversity, but not the landscape. In fact, landscape ecology articulates (after a zoom on protected areas) agriculture activities and biodiversity with the green corridors for a systemic operation. So actors involved in landscape issues think that landscape is for everybody and mix a diversity of functions: agricultural activities, economic purpose, recreational uses, tourism, housing and mobility. Specific challenges of transformations of landscape in urban-rural continuum are linked to this diversity. However, the conception of landscape such as a staging of nature features is still operating in policies in order to preserve the politic balance between actors. For instance, in public spaces, social issues of renewing facades aren't questioned (the spectacular prime). Nevertheless, understanding landscape as a social construction indicates relationships between actors and landscape (and nature); so the living environment where interact sensitive world, changing of spaces and ecologic features (Luginbühl, 2007). So, a polluted landscape can be beautiful if we don't take into account ecologic features. Landscape isn't environment, but they are intrinsically linked.

The specific issues linked to sustainable transition are related to the use of phytosanitary products (and quality of soils and water), the climate change, the management of waste, the turn towards sustainable energy, the biodiversity, the urban sprawl and organic culture. All these issues are in interaction, and with issues of ecology, governance and socio-economy (whose mobility). With an overall outlook, fighting climate change is a way to enhance biodiversity. Scientists observe a wealth of plant and animal species in the mountainous regions (+5.4 since 10 years, which is important in the inhospitable areas) because of the global warming pushing the species towards their last refuges and which can harm the native species of the summits (potential extinguishment debt). In the world, each year, nearly 200 million tonnes of carbon are removed from the atmosphere and transported by rivers to the oceans, thus contributing to the fight against climate change but dams threaten this balance: hydropower causes the extinction of some species, displaces communities and contributes to climate change (rejection of carbon dioxide in the air). Fighting climate change and enhancing biodiversity is also linked with the uses of a less meaty diet and reduction of food waste, and the pollution by fine particles in urban centers and by industry, planes, etc.

Enhancing the biodiversity is at political agenda but the Twitter video from President Macron on biodiversity failed because of an overall point of view (it works when focus is on an animal or species). Biodiversity is linked to issues of overfishing (including deep-sea fishing); fighting light pollution which contributes to the disappearance of species (insects, birds, bats, fish ...), because of dazzling

effects that disrupt migrations, reproduction, relationships between prey and predators; problems of hunting with hounds.

Nevertheless, landscape is becoming an object to enhance biodiversity. With this outlook, landscape is a way to enhance dialogue between stakeholders and communication about sustainable transition. The issue is to communicate the good practices to citizens and to train farmers towards another way to produce. However, this outlook needs to increase knowledge about landscapes and its features, that's made in France with photographic landscape atlas. Linked with landscape observatories, the atlas allows to analyze dynamics of landscape transformations in a territory at a local scale defined by inter-municipality or urban planning department (CAUE). This is at the beginning because of the problematic of indexing pictures and the problematic of analyzing data (because of the number of pictures). Three elements are highlighted: materiality, sense of belonging to a territory and collective representations. Landscape designers share this knowledge with elected and inhabitants in order to share perceptions about landscape and to increase quality of landscapes. Enhancing quality of life in sustainable towns with a diversity of functions (living, working, studying, fun...) and without regulation is the actual turning point. A territory is selected by Ministry to receive a subsidy and an administrative help in order to protect and transform landscapes, before the registration of these modifications in the urban planning documents.

Increasing the quality of life is related to the greening of urban areas and preservation of biodiversity. For instance, the northern part of Grand Reims is poor in vegetal and animal biodiversity due to agribusiness. In fact, agribusiness contributes to soil contamination. Some lands (and drinking water) are polluted by viticulture, by hydrocarbons for agribusiness and by shelling of the army (especially in the former military base 112). Hydrocarbons and nitrogen fertilization are part of climate change. The use of phytosanitary products leads to health issues (Parkinson's disease, Prostate cancer, Hematopoietic cancers), pollution issues (soil and water), biodiversity (more than 75 % loss of insect biomass in 27 years, and 30 % of the populations of birds). But the cleanup of soils depends on the projects allocated to these kind of lands (according to public authorities): a golf course doesn't need to clean the land contrary to a building (and its foundations). Moreover, a better management of wild waste is considered. For example, the plain of 300 hectares in the department of Yvelines is covered by waste from travel camps and traffic by companies (lands abandoned because of contaminated wastewater from the capital city for a century), so State wants to plant a wide forest (370 hectares) in the Val d'Oise and to create a regional green belt (tree can resist to pollution and urbanization). Locally, some mayors from the department of Oise who are looking for the origin of wild waste deposition and return them to the owners, in order to modify behaviors; but this means also controlling waste of companies dumped in the seas.

Consequently, greening (the idea to replant trees) allows to treat water by using plants. Another kind of pollution is related to infrastructures of sustainable energy and its impacts on aesthetic point of view, such as a project of a wind turbine park or the installation of solar panels. Citizens disagree these projects because of visual, noise and light pollution: a contradiction between sustainable production of energy and preservation of landscape identity. Nowadays, challenges are related to the communication of the government about the storage of the nuclear waste (solution of the Burial currently) because of long term risks of fire, proliferation of the radioactivity; enhancing offshore wind; prohibition in 2040 of vehicles running on diesel energy; volition of zero carbon to 2050 in the city of Paris. Through these issues, an economic purpose is clearly visible. For instance, labelling UNESCO allow to preserve landscape as a heritage. But winemakers in Grand Reims saw behind labelling an economic interest for tourism and quality of products. In order to preserve lands, their image and

because of the awareness of customers, profession is modifying its practices towards an approach of excellence. Widely, economic operators note the need to develop a circular bio-economy with sustainable projects. For instance, biomass production is able to be increased for a production of energy by methanisor. The issue is, here, the articulation between agribusiness (production) and industrial poles (transformation and valorization of resources), then with a local consumption. Nowadays, environmental and development issues are linked. Paradoxically, urban planning always divides the city and the countryside. The inner cities tend to be densified and to welcome the naturalness, to be more sustainable for its inhabitants. The peri-urban and rural areas, with natural and agricultural open spaces, tend to contain the overthrow of the city and preserve a “rural” landscape, which is no more the landscape produced by farmers. For inhabitants, this rural landscape is a living environment. This environment has very different attributes according to the people who live there. This landscape is the experience we have, an exit in the reality (Besse, 2009), as it is part of ecosystemic services. Landscape management appears as a vector of new articulations between built and unbuilt environments, still separated in urban planning. The French contemporary landscape is the product of conflicts between urban sprawl versus preservation, and densification versus open space (Chéry, 2010; Poulot, 2008). At a local level, municipalities and territorial authorities promote studies of landscape by urban agencies (landscape atlas for 62 % of national territory in 2007 and landscape studies for 90 % of the territory).

Specific operations allow to treat the staging of public spaces: traffic roundabout are articulated with enhancing hedges (following consolidation operations). Landscape atlas are a way to articulate all local studies and to do a global report. Institutional actors of sustainable development directorate and urban directorate (at national, regional and inter-municipalities scales) collaborate for the elaboration of the Regional Ecological Consistency Layout (SRCE); and with municipalities and urban agencies to draw up the territorial coherence layout (SCoT) and the local urban plan (PLU) which define the areas to protect and the ecological corridors (restrictions with the green and blue frame). For instance, SRCE of Grand Reims is a legal obligation with the volition to preserve green and blue frame (wet areas, greening, viticulture and issues of deforestation). These collaborations between directorates and actors are about land property and land uses, such as the economic operation Alliance Sens et Economie which collaborates with municipality of Courcy about the property of the land (a part of the former military base 112) for the Micro Town 112. They are big issues. Lands neglected during 20-30 years become farmer lands (they don't keep status of urbanized lands because farmers need to construct projects on a long term and networks cost a lot). Juridic issues are about networks of water, waste and electric; and the management of shared spaces such as roads. Networks are a skill of the urban community but areas are private, so this needs the articulation between the municipalities concerned. These lead to issues of property taxes and of subventions to restore the buildings. At a local scale, financial interests imply that landscape designers artificialize public spaces because their remuneration is linked to the percentage of the costs (and mineral is more expensive than plants). In fact, we produced things without thinking about the spatial structure and its qualities or defaults.

For planning, the main issue is the consumption of land that is artificialized. For urban sprawl, deforestation is easier (despite strong regulations) than taking lands to economic operators such as wine-makers (with all the authorizations and economic issues). More than half of the wetlands have disappeared in one century: land degradation is the leading cause of extinction of animal and plant species, of climate change (deforestation and hard to capt carbon) and we need to review urbanization in the face of floods (permeability of soils). There is a process of low density of buildings in the rural



lands and a frantic growth with high human density: increasing urbanization is parallel to increasing demographic population. So urban spaces are extended and have a lower density than during the former century (Antoni, Youssoufi, 2007; Jaret et al., 2009) because of the increasing account of households, the economic inaccessibility for living in city centers, and the idealization of life in countryside and house with garden.

Historically, municipalities developed old city centers during 1960-70's, then a big development occurred during 1980-90's and an urban sprawl that creates value on urbanized lands (but value is able to change: from urbanized area to farming); towards a sustainable development now. The protocol of land sobriety is an agreement between Chamber of Agriculture and departmental territorial directorate to know how lands are used. So urban planning is developing with high density but this outlook doesn't fit to desires and economic abilities for people, to the demographic evolutions (suitable services with aging of the population in housing estates). However, real estate developers are dynamic to bring round younger customers. A solution - according to urban agency - is creating relay poles of services. In fact, landscape doesn't make project except when public authorities are involved such as for Regional Natural Parks or atlas.

Landscape policies are less efficient than sectorial policies (for agriculture or housing) and ordinary landscapes are abandoned to land market or agriculture rationalization, in front of designation like a heritage of some landscapes by authorities. After Second World War, social researchers analyze the spatial changing related to urbanization, industrialization and economic and demographic increasing. But the break between physical studies and social studies has made the landscape loose its status of central concept as an interaction between space, human activities and ecologic features. On the one hand, studies focus on morphological issues and, on the other hand, they focus on socioeconomic segregation in spaces. Urban landscape become an object after the book of S. Rimbart (1973) and the interest for public spaces in 1990's, according to Y. Luginbühl (2007).

In France, a national issue deals with the commercial and industrial areas on the outskirts of cities that consume a lot of agricultural lands due to political and financial balance of power (Mangin, 2004) and produce a specific landscape with the development of an "empire" of the hangar. In Grand Reims, the equipment rate per inhabitants is one of the highest in Europe. However, the artificialization is partly restrained because of the price of agricultural lands (farmers are powerful) and the development of density. Moreover, programming commercial and industrial areas takes a long time (for instance: 20-30 years for a road) and needs a strong urban function as locomotive for development (such as a railway station). In addition, practices are changing towards another kind of consumption such as electronic trade, deliveries, proximity Associations are fighting this consumption of lands: the shopping mall and amusement park Europa city is blocked by the administrative court (environmental impact investigation), the same thing happened about the pedestrianization of the banks of the Seine (right bank in Paris), and the ZAD (area to defend) in the area of the canceled project of airport near to the city of Nantes (issues of governance: creation of a community of life and innovations facing state repression).

This issue is linked to the housing desires (house with a garden and next to services) that encourages an urban sprawl, leading to urban pressure. The commercial and housing issues that consume and artificialize lands are related to mobilities. The development of individual vehicles, and then the highways allowed to develop territories by increasing accessibility between wide distances. However, commercial and industrial areas at the entrance of the cities lead to a traffic congestion, especially during rush hours. The entrance of city by trains are really mineral and dedicated to cars too. So commuting is a concrete issue for people living far away of their workplace, and especially for the

most precarious that live far away from city centers because of the price of the land. Moreover, with the economic difficulties, municipalities can't get around their town by a road, so collective transportation is developed in parallel with urban densification.

In order to fight this artificialization and to treat this continuum between urban and rural territories, landscape designers wrote books. Thus, thick fringes and vegetable belts are thought as a solution. However, implementing a green belt (according to public authorities and planners) cut both urban and rural areas. Another scenario is to intertwine the two areas, such as farming in a military base and around the airstrip. The question is about greening lands artificialized. In this way, some emerging practices are visible such as urban agriculture (like familiar gardens that became worker gardens following a unique model and community gardens in Reims), green rooftops, organic farming and proximity, or the development of associations of farmers (such as Symbiose Biodiversité) that implements vegetation in their landscapes in a coordinated way. These practices reveal a new relationship with rurality and with space, especially for new urban people and new landscape designers.

## **Croatia**

The Croatian landscape is characterized as an element of the national (spatial) identity and as an integral part of the perceived option. Various types of cultural and urban landscapes have been formed due to the specific historical development on the boundary between diverse physical (natural and anthropogenic), socio-economic (cultural), and symbolic (perceptive and associative) landscape dimensions. The Croatian landscapes, especially urban landscapes, have been considerably transformed over the last decades as a result of a construction industry development directly related to political, economic, social and property interests and requirements. However, this trend emerged without adequate managing capacities from planning experts and institutions.

### *Transition of physical (spatial) planning in Croatia*

At the beginning of the 1990s Croatia, as a new independent state, started transition from socialist to neoliberal framework. War damage, the introduction of parliamentary democracy, the strengthening of private property, the transition to a market economy, the new territorial organisation, the processes of European integration and globalisation all had the unpredictable consequence of a value-system crisis in physical planning, and a profound neglect of common and long-term interests in the space. Property title began to be equated with the absolute right over real estate without any respect for the ensuring or protection of public interests – which caused increase in number of illegal buildings and other operations in the space and neglect of requirements of common interests.

Pyramidal system of physical planning in Croatia, going from state level (strategies), to county level and local level of municipalities and cities, is in need for complex horizontal and vertical sectoral coordination which face enormous difficulties. In current conditions mutual unharmonisation between plans of different levels is present and large number of local selfgovernment units is unable to finance their own requirements for spatial plans. At the level of local self-government, there is no quality communal economy, land and spatial policy concerned with the social, economic, cultural and ecological values of the space. Physical plans of the municipalities and cities in most cases remain at the level of determining building zones and in a large number of cases the physical plans are ill-adapted to contemporary requirements. Building zone of the whole tends to spread along the existing asphalted roads, without enough concern being devoted to the planned construction of the necessary technical infrastructure.

In accordance with the provisions of the Physical Planning Law, spatial plans have been drawn up and adopted for all the counties. However, these plans have not been harmonised with sectoral development plans (for example of landscape, agriculture, forestry, tourism, mining, culture and roads – some are still missing) at the county level. Absence of or disunity among sectoral databases, geodetic plans that have not been brought up to date and a poor understanding of the interdependence of sectoral plans, make essential problems which are slow in coming, so there is even more delay in the handling of the complex relationships of physical planning (Kranjčević 2005).

#### *Formal protection and identification of Croatian landscape*

The level of expert activity in recognition, evaluation and protection of landscape has been inadequate so far because of an increased interest in new building areas. No systematic identification of landscape types, i.e. landscape regionalization has been made in Croatia so far. In the Strategy of Physical Planning in Croatia, a landscape regionalization of the state territory has been carried out with regard to its natural features: relief, waters and vegetation, with cultural components of landscape left out.

Formal protection of landscape in Croatia is covered by four laws: Nature Protection Act, Environmental Protection Act, Act on the Protection and Preservation of Cultural Assets, and Physical Planning and Construction Act, which only partly include landscape.

#### *Major landscape challenges*

The general state of landscape in Croatia, observed at the level of the whole country, can be assessed as good, but in many areas landscape can be described as disturbed. The most attractive landscapes are also the most endangered with the expansion of urban areas, illegal construction and insufficient care of landscape characteristics and devastated environmental values of multiple Croatian localities. Tensions of landscape changes, defined in Physical Development Strategy of Croatia (\*\*\*2017a), can be divided in climate changes and anthropogenic influences. Result of climate change is significant transformation of space and devastating effects on individual ecosystems, landscapes and constructed structures. Anthropogenic influences: exploitation of fossil fuels, agriculture, illegal construction, skipped / abandoned areas (military, industrial, tourist), relation to cultural heritage, landscape and construction, waste management and exploitation of mineral raw materials result in significant and constant transformation of landscape. Urban Landscapes change rapidly due to intensive construction. Pressures on the landscape are big, and it can be expected to be even bigger, concerning development and spread of bigger cities in their surroundings, decay of small towns and rural areas, the formation of new tourist areas, construction of golf courses, large infrastructure interventions and construction of power plants from renewable energy sources.

#### *Priorities and Strategies in Spatial Development*

Spatial Development Strategy of Croatia (\*\*\*2017a) defines priorities in direction of spatial development on national level and means of implementation through concepts: affirmation of polycentric development, reducing the pace of depopulation, preservation of identity, use of geotrafic position benefits, sustainable development of economy and infrastructural systems, connection to Europe, integrated approach to spatial development planning and active adaptation to dynamic changes. Priorities in direction of spatial development on national level cover are:

sustainability of spatial organisation; preservation of place (space) identity; development of traffic connections; development of energy system; resilience – resistance to change; and improvement of urban-rural relations.

#### *Sustainability of spatial organisation*

Sustainability of spatial organisation includes optimizing the settlement system, harmonizing the development of cities and their functional regions in urban agglomeration, improving urban - rural relations, developing pleasant and settled cities through supporting the development of small and medium-sized cities, and improving the vitality and attractiveness of rural areas. Sustainability is particularly focused on development and use of the coastal area. Reduction of regional differences and sustainable planning of development-specific areas is achieved through reducing regional disparities, special interest in mountain areas and border areas, and through improving the availability of social infrastructure, accessibility of the transport infrastructure and improving equipment of communal infrastructure. Rational use of space covers infrastructure systems, construction sites, forests and forest land, efficient use, urban transformation, urban rehabilitation and temporary use.

#### *Preservation of place (space) identity*

Preservation of place (space) identity covers sustainable development of protected areas of nature and ecological network areas, preservation and sustainable use of cultural heritage, improving quality of construction and design of public space and affirmation of the characteristics and values of the landscape.

#### *Development of traffic connections*

Development of traffic systems includes road transport, rail traffic, river traffic, maritime traffic, air traffic, intermodal systems and engaging in the European transport network. Traffic connections also cover development of Infrastructure for Broadband Internet Access.

#### *Development of the energy system*

Development of the energy system covers increase and improvement of energy supply security, development of production, transmission, transport, storage, distribution and supply of energy, increase share of renewable energy sources: hydro power plants, small hydro power plants, wind energy, solar energy, geothermal energy, biomass, biogas and further connectivity to the EU and international energy networks.

#### *Resilience - Resistance to change*

Resistance to change covers adaptation to climate change, strengthening natural capital by planning the development of green infrastructure and increase of energy efficiency. Resilient sustainability includes sustainable waste management and sustainable management of mineral raw materials. Adapting to changes in business conditions and development of sustainable tourism enhance economic resilience.

### *Improvement of urban-rural relations*

Direction of spatial development towards polycentric spatial structures aims to preserve value of natural environments of large cities and identity of regions and smaller settlements, as well as tourist recognition and emission reduction of greenhouse gases (shorter transport food, efficient use of the community infrastructure). Result should be harmonious community development that does not erase the identity of regions and cities, and is focused to reduce the difference and to complement urban and rural economies.

Different interconnections link urban and rural areas across Europe, from peri-urban to peripheral rural regions. Interdependence of urban and rural needs to be appreciated through integrated management and planning based on a broad partnership. Today, when many countries have developed regional planning system (economic, social and spatial subsystems) with a specific regional policy and instruments for its implementation. Croatia is still developing these systems and in the meantime must strive for synergistic effect with coordination and integral planning of related parallel systems (\*\*2017a).

## 5. Main challenges in the governance of urban landscape quality: the urban regions

### Drechtsteden

Drechtsteden, an urban region between major waterways in the southeast of South-Holland province, faces various challenges. On the one hand, the region has suffered from the decline of traditional industries, such as shipbuilding and metalworking. The population is generally working class, there is little influx from abroad. There is a slight decline in population. On the other hand, the region faces the challenge of climate change adaptation, especially because of, by times, stormwater extremes and high water levels in the rivers surrounding the island. The region has adapted ambitious plans for facing economic decline, striving for a more mixed population (attracting the high educated) in order to prevent a decline in public services. The region neither has competence with respect to spatial issues, nor does it have an explicit competence in the realization of sustainability. Climate adaptation is primarily a task for the municipalities. Dordrecht, the largest municipality in the urban region and one of the oldest cities in the Netherlands, has developed an active climate adaptation policy and is involved in quite some international collaborative projects.

The region has defined an agenda of growth by 2030, which implies an increase of dwellings by 25.000 for the coming years, 30.000 jobs and a leap in accessibility and energy transition (Regio Drechtsteden 2017). This must all be realized within the existing urban settlement territory, instead of further developments in the rural areas. The quality of the non-urban landscape is considered as very high. Northwest of the region are the Mills of Kinderdijk, an UNESCO world heritage site, in the East begins the natural reserve area Biesbosch, a water rich area, part of the delta of the river Maas. As one interviewee mentioned: within 15 minutes cycling you are in the midst of green, this is a major quality of the area. The river is the main natural landscape feature, together with the green areas, but cycling at the shore, you don't see it. Therefore, we must unlock the peri-urban river landscape in order to make the region more attractive." (Stakeholder interview 1, NL)

For the city of Dordrecht with 55.000 dwellings at the moment, the building ambition means 14.000 new dwellings. Simultaneously, the city wants to increase its blue and green areas, on the one hand to realize its climate adaptation targets, on the other to improve urban landscape quality for attracting newcomers and the health of its current population. This is a very big challenge. As a strategy, the municipality has chosen to closely collaborate with citizen initiatives, of which there are many, especially community gardens and urban farming. The municipality has developed a specific method, called 'Dordt makes a move'. Everyone in a neighborhood has different ideas with respect to green. Their method focuses on giving direction in close collaboration with the neighborhood people. Health is an important issue. Hence, attention is given to playgrounds for making children come out of their houses and be active outside. The idea is to relate the green and blue strategy with poverty and health care issues.

The question arises as to whether, in the light of the economic ambitions, the ambitions related to green and blue are no more than greenwashing, and conflicts may emerge. In reply our interviewees say: "We have not built for over ten years. If we want to build, we need all parties to work with us. Dwellings will not be sold, if we will not at the same time improve the urban landscape. This is a

learning process for all of us." (Stakeholder interview 2, NL) As to whether this might lead to conflicts, is to be seen.

### **Marche Region: the urban region of Ancona**

Ancona is the main city of the "Medio-Adriatic" metropolitan area, which comprises 39 municipalities and a whole population of ca. 450.000 people. In particular, the urban region of Ancona – the Functional Urban Area (FUA) as it is defined by the Marche regional Authority – is an area of approximately 430 km<sup>2</sup>, which is composed of 13 contiguous small and medium-sized municipalities: Ancona, Sirolo, Osimo, Polverigi, Montemarciano, Monte San Vito, Offagna, Falconara Marittima, Numana, Chiaravalle, Agugliano, Camerata Picena, Camerano. They are arranged all around the city of Ancona, both along the coastline and towards the inland. A population of ca. 100.000 people live in the main town and more than 220.000 people inhabit the overall area. The urbanized land is 63 km<sup>2</sup> and the population density is nearly 520 per km<sup>2</sup>. The image of the landscape arises from the overlapping of different components: the metropolitan urban fabric, the polycentric matrix of the historical settlements, the valuable rural areas with a strong landscape identity, and the ecological green network. In this area there are two interesting and important aspects (Centanni, 2018):

i) The *morphological/historical factor*: due to its shape, the urban structure of Ancona holds a direct relationship with the countryside and the agricultural land that surrounds it. Therefore, the urban border is very ephemeral and difficult to read. On the one hand, parts of the country are wedged into the city; on the other hand, a large amount of the country is densely urbanized. This urban-rural relationship is, in reality, undefined, but it is rich with systems of interactions. All this occurs within a very complex morphological structure, which is not flat, but hilly and sometimes with very steep slopes;

ii) the *legislative factor*: half of the territory lies within the border of Monte Conero Regional Park and is therefore subject to specific regulations. The other half, the Western part, is not subject to any special legislation. The economic dynamics and the way how the city has shaped over time, have produced the typical patterns of the "Adriatic Diffuse Urbanization", which is permeated by a network of natural reserves, both actual and potential. Ancona is part of Unit 82 of the Ecological Regional Network and embodies two great challenges: how to connect the urban fabric with the continuous ecological system of the Regional Park of Monte Conero and how to favour, enable and sustain, especially along the coastline, the rooting and flourishing of species capable of thriving in an urban context. In this context, the most evident changes of the last century, both in terms of population and urban growth, occurred during the sixties and seventies. However, a continuous pressure over the land has been always exerted and is still present today (especially with reference to the suburban and rural areas), due to several reasons: first, immigration from foreign countries has offset the current negative rate in population growth and has implied new dynamics of "displacement/replacement" of people and, consequent urban changes and development; second, tourism - which is an important source of job and income, especially during summertime- has kept on increasing even despite the crisis; third, economic development has led to a continuous development of the city towards the south, with productive and commercial settlements. Besides, when considering the issue of planning and managing the urban-rural continuum, another interesting implication concerns the collaboration between the Monte Conero Regional Park's biodiversity conservation and protection needs, with the objectives of development, transformation, and growth of the city. In fact, the

conflict between conservation needs and economic interests has always been tough, there are clearly strong pressures on the park's ecosystems, and their management requires close collaboration among all interested subjects. For this reason, since its institution, the protected area has not been able to limit itself to a "defensive" function, but had to promote a change in models of local development (Perna, 2018). Today, the relations between the park and the city are increasingly strong and the rural-urban continuum is equally important within its borders.

#### *Ancona current programs and projects*

The system of governance in the City of Ancona is indicated within Ancona's governance directives for 2013–2018, which were approved by the City Council in 2013, and which go beyond the current legislative system, adopting a strategic approach. The system, which falls more generally under the strategic planning document, establishes the drafting of three tools that correspond to as many levels of territorial planning: i) the Development Plan for the metropolitan area of the mid-Adriatic (AMMA); ii) the Strategic Plan (SP) of Ancona; iii) the Urban Agenda (UA) of the City of Ancona. These are strictly interrelated, even if they maintain precise individual characteristics deriving from the fact that they are found in different phases of realization. The main challenges, and therefore the main objectives for the city of Ancona include: supporting production system and contrasting economic crisis through innovation-technology; improving logistic, sustainable transport systems, and accessibility, in and around the city; contrasting risk and natural hazards, improving the resilience of the territory; fostering a culturally oriented development factory; converting the city into a laboratory for urban regeneration and social inclusion; redistributing uses in the city centre and increasing functional and social mixité; regenerating the historical periphery (Archi, San Lazzaro, Pinocchio, Torrette, Collemarino quarters and the station); implementing urban regeneration projects of most degraded residential, commercial and productive peripheries (Vallemiano, Baraccola, ...); enhancing rural villages, also integrating new residential neighbourhoods in the urban-rural continuum; regenerating of the coastline; reinforcing the green ecological network in and outside the city, and the relationship with the Conero Regional Natural Park.

#### **Grand Reims**

The Grand Reims is an Urban Community —a local government gathering 143 municipalities— created on January 2017 in place of “Reims Métropole”, a former shorter and more urban intercommunity (Notre Act for a new territorial organization). This new institutional perimeter had increased the income gap between the city of Reims (40 % of social housing) and the suburbs, three times as high. After a demographic dip, the Grand Reims population is increasing again.

The Grand Reims area is divided into four landscapes (*Atlas des paysages*, 2001).

1. Eastbound, a “wet bow” (*Arc humide*) is a wooden wet area, with more and more cultivated and drained clearings. An open landscape co-exists with small wet wooded strips where the land is not cultivable. During the 1970s, large lakes were developed to avoid Seine's flooding. Another wet landscape was created over 10,000 hectares, with a significant ecological diversity and richness.
2. To the West, the “Western Plateaux” (Plateaux occidentaux) —whose the “Montagne de Reims” is part— are bordered by the cuesta of Ile-de-France. The hilly landscape is a succession of meadows, crops, vineyards on the slopes and woods on the top of the hills. It's the archetypal vineyard landscape, becoming more and more regular and geometric with mechanization.



3. On the middle, the "Chalky Champagne" (Champagne crayeuse) is an ancient, vast and flat agro-industrial plain. This one third of the Grand Reims area is an open fields landscape, where urban developments are constrained by a competitive agriculture, despite a lot of new urban development areas planned. Villages are attractive residential place. They have grown compactly, on the outskirts. The main peri-urban sprawl is due to the industrial estates, except on the edge of the agglomeration of Reims: 9% of the Grand Reims area is artificialized (2014).

4. The city of Reims is the only high-density urbanized area, with nearly 184,000 inhabitants, while the Grand Reims has 292,000 (AUDRR 2017). This roman and medieval town developed mainly during the 19th century with industries, champagne production and detached houses or garden cities on the outskirts. The old center and a large part of the city have been destructed during First World War bombings. After an "art deco" rebuilding, in the same urban structure, Reims expanded, from the 1960s, with social housing, in inner suburbs, and industrial or residential estates along major roads. The peri-urbanization exploded with the Paris-Strasbourg motorway (1976). Around Reims, the urbanization advances by irregular leapfrogs. More recently, Bezannes initiated an important tertiary development nearby the new TGV station, 8km far from Reims city center. The main urban challenges are the industrial or military wastelands and the recycling of old commercial activities areas, as Tiqueux or Murigny.

There are historical close links between Reims and its agro-industrial hinterland. In most villages, the agricultural organization expanded on a network of cooperatives (bank, insurance, social housing and sugar production). Agro-industrial cooperatives are now powerful international agro-food groups and the agro-industrial economy is diversifying into agro-resources and bio-economy around the Pomacle-Bazancourt Research & Development Center. The wine production's organization is more complex, with "Houses of Champagne", only 19 % of cooperatives, and more and more individual winemakers. Champagne economy is part of a touristic attractiveness.

The landscape protection and valuation follows these two agro-economic profiles. The vineyard landscape, associated to the "Houses of Champagne", has been designated, in 2016, as a UNESCO cultural World Heritage. Here landscape promotes touristic incomes. While cereal crop landscape changes are connected to the agribusiness evolutions. Some farmers proposed solutions against consumption of agricultural land, by illegally exploiting land to be built. This conflict resulted in an agreement —between the FDSEA (the main French farmers' union) and the Grand Reims developer Agencia— for a 3 years legal agricultural land exploitation. The *Terrasolis* initiative, created in 2017, on a former military air base site, is similar. *Terrasolis* is an innovative pole on agricultural resources to promote multifunctional agricultural systems. The goal is to create a high added value production that manages natural resources, landscapes and biological diversity, as well as territorial balance and employment. But agricultural short circuits are still underdeveloped. The recent evolutions, in landscape management, come from the Grenelle Acts, in 2008, and from the Recovery of Biodiversity, Nature and Landscapes Act, in 2016, which improve the landscape protection on an ecological point of view. Reims Urban Planning documents (PLU, 2016) and Grand Reims Territorial Coherence Plan (SCoT, 2016) promote a sustainable development through two main issues: containing urbanization and improving biodiversity. In Reims, a 17 km greenway along the canal, private and public gardens and parks, the recent renewal of places and publics spaces, etc. increase the quality of life and the urban green. The ecological network of species settlements is superimposed to the Local Urban Plan and to the mobility plan. In the Grand Reims area, the green and blue infrastructure Plan, linked to a Regional Ecological Coherence Plan (SRCE), defends an

ecological approach that supports: the open field agricultural landscape, including energy production; the improvement of leisure uses and the restoration of wetlands and forest biodiversity, in particular in the valleys (Suippe, Vesle and Ardre). The Reims Urban Planning documents (PLU) and the Grand Reims Territorial Coherence Plan (SCoT) attempt to consolidate green productive and livable landscapes, where the urbanization, as the agriculture, has to adapt to biologic functionalities.

## **Zagreb**

Zagreb urban region is very heterogeneous due to its landscape characteristics – the reason is diverse natural basis and specificity of anthropogenic appearance, functions, organization and associative features of space. Zagreb urban region covers landscapes of Pannonian and Subpannonian regions, which distinguish mountain, hill, hilly, lowland, river, natural, rural, urban and combined / mixed types.

Main landscape changes and challenges in Zagreb urban region are (\*\*\*2013):

*Urban expansion* is one of the biggest problems in preservation of landscape character and in sustainable development. Urban spread is shaped in: introduction of new landscape and urban patterns, fragmentation of built areas, loss of natural natural habitats, changes in structure and pattern of agricultural landscapes and most commonly the degradation of landscape features. Urban expansion occupies quality agricultural areas, while natural and agricultural spaces are transformed to various purposes: residential, commercial and others. Urban expansion generally leads to a decrease in agricultural areas, natural values, and causes visual degradation. Urban expansion creates agglomerations located between urban areas and villages, which differ from rural and urban patterns, their functions and other characteristics, and can't be classified in the former types of settlements of rural and urban features.

*The development and introduction of new building types of commercial and business buildings in areas of main entrances to urban areas.* Multi-storey residential buildings are an extension of residential areas with dominant type of single family houses, which with its location, scale and design distort the landscape features and historical patterns. New construction types often deviate from the urban, visual and ecological character of landscaping areas, regarding the incompatibility of scale, materials and external shaping because they do not respect inherited or other valuable urban patterns.

*Development of new contents in high-sensitivity and sensitive areas.*

*Infrastructure systems:* new traffic infrastructure, planned new highways and fast roads, development, growth and diffusion of lighting (light pollution), construction of transmission lines, telecommunication antenna etc. All of this takes great pressure and changes the landscape features of certain areas.

*Waste landfills and exploitation of mineral raw materials.*

*Sewerage, dam construction, retentions of waterflow and plans for hydro power plants on river Sava* and supporting infrastructure that will completely change water regime, condition and appearance of river landscape.

*Change in scale of traditional settlements,* lack of historical parts of urban and rural settlements, loss of local features in the peripheral villages such as wooden houses, hedges, garden plots and crabs, gravel and stone removal.

Abandoning traditional way of life: abandonment of traditional houses and settlements, and neglect of land cultivation.

*Relationship between the historical settlement and the landscape* is often interrupted due to the expansion of the new construction. New development is unmindful to the original settlement patterns and their connection with the landscape. Relations between settlements and landscapes are impoverished in terms of visuals, spatial symbols and signs and other landscape features.

*Changes in the way of agricultural production* that cause changes in the land division and forms of land use - structural and visual characteristics of the landscape.

*Development of large recreation and tourism zones* in areas of high degree of naturalness, which significantly change the ecological features of landscape.

The *effects of climate change* should be reduced through energy efficiency planning and designing; efficiency and use of renewable resources; adaptation to the consequences of climate change compared to the risks of flooding, earthquakes and land erosion.

## **Pskov**

What are compelling issues related to preserving and improving urban landscape quality?

- Construction of multi-stored blocks vs. development of green urban areas
- Construction of multi-stored blocks vs. urban planning and taking into account the view on the historical monuments and natural objects (this is taken into account only in the historical city center, not in the new city districts)
- Increasing of cars in the city, occupation of green spaces in the residential areas by parking places vs. improvement of existing green spaces in the residential areas
- Old landfill, which was closed only recently, is located near new developing residential areas
- Garazhi construction
- Fragmentation of green spaces (of green ways)

What are recent policy developments? That is not directly policy-developments, but in Pskov we have:

- Renewal of the neglected industrial areas (project of renovation of the thermal power plant in the Pskov city and creation of offices, exclusive residential houses and public space, see [http://www.studio44.ru/en/eng\\_ver/proekty/projects/project102/](http://www.studio44.ru/en/eng_ver/proekty/projects/project102/)) – the same is in Saint-Petersburg (New Holland, see <http://www.newhollandsp.ru/information/about-the-project/>)
- Reconstruction of some parks in the city center
- Development of public spaces in the urban forests (places for sport activities etc.)

Reconstruction and renovation activities are connected with the Hansa Festival, which is hosted by Pskov in 2019. There are also some initiatives, implemented by NGOs and other organizations in the city, and financed by Russian and European funds, which are linked with urban quality.

## 6. The value of public participation

### Netherlands

The existing urban planning regimes have adapted and transformed over time. In general, the awareness and formal acknowledgement of including different stakeholder interests into the decision-making processes about urban development has increased significantly. This means, in urban planning procedures within the Netherlands, all societal actors officially have the opportunity to be heard and be actively involved, with different direct and indirect, formalized and informal forms to do so. However, the actual participation of certain groups remains a challenge. For example, in many cases only few and often repeatedly the same actors do participate in urban land use planning deliberations.

This selective effect, often referred to as participation by 'the usual suspects', is still a key challenge to overcome in the future. Still, few selected groups dominate the participatory arenas. While well-educated and strong socio-economic milieus tend to engage intensively, in particular when transformations may occur in proximity to their living contexts, other societal groups remain often absent from participatory processes (e.g. migrant groups). Overcoming this socio-economic and cultural bias in local participation needs to be addressed, as the voices of those being mostly absent from public participation nowadays may add relevant perspectives to debates around local urban quality of life.

There are also quite positive experiences with participation and experiments with coproduction as regards the improvement of landscape quality (eg. Braaksma 2017). Braaksma reports that experiences with participation differ with the type of activity. Rural landscape development shows examples of public responsibilities carried out together with or exclusively by citizens, which also happens in Drechtsteden. In contrast, landscape protection often meets with public resistance. Given the variety of motives of individuals to engage in landscape quality matters, Braaksma recommends civil servants to focus on dialogue with citizens than currently happens (2017: 147).

### Italy

In Italy, the awareness and formal acknowledgement of including different stakeholder interests into the decision-making processes about urban development has increased significantly over time, as well as in other European countries, but this still remains a challenge. First of all, participatory processes vary a lot according to the scale of project and processes. There is a general agreement that the first element for public participation is certainly represented by free access to information regarding territorial transformations. This means the governance capacity of the institutions, seen as the capability of a public structure to provide information related to the territorial transformations underway and to actively share the choices. We see in many cases in the literature that when you involved people early in the process, they are more motivated because they see the still possible influence in the opinion framing and decision-making. On the other hand, there is a sort of untrust in Institutions that makes very difficult for some citizens and stakeholders to be interested in the early process of decision-making (when choices have not yet been taken) because they don't see their voices heard and they don't trust the process itself. However, when the decision has been defined, interested parties automatically increase, but in the same way, the margins for variation or modifica-

tion of the choices diminish, and conflicts may arise. In this sense, the potential of citizen participation in terms of “conflicts prevention” is widely recognized and sometimes this is the reason why participation procedures are persuaded. There should be a moment during the decision-making process, when the public administration involves and consults with local subjects in a free discussion, with all the options “open”, even with the possibility that no choices will be made.

However, local knowledge and community participation are still not seriously taken into account, and sometimes the participatory procedure is used as mere justification of governance choices. There is no national participation policy, and there is no minister responsible for it, neither a systematic approach to it. With the Constitutional Reform of 2001, regions, provinces and cities have gained responsibilities from the central government, which was a sign of significant decentralization of power. Some regions and cities have created an office of assessor with a duty to promote participation of citizens. Tuscany region, for example, has adopted a regional law dedicated to participation. This law defines who may participate in the process. It guarantees the participation and the methodology to be followed, which takes the form of public debates on key topics like environment and social issues, the provision of information to citizens and the communication of results; it recognises the need for educational activities for public administrators; it offers support for participative projects by citizens, enterprises and public stakeholders. In short, it introduces participation into the regular political decision-making process in the region. This participation, however, is not deliberative, its aim is to support shaping decisions, solving problems and possible conflicts. In this sense, the real risk is that this is transformed, more than into an obligation, into procedural compliance that must necessarily be carried out. Furthermore, it's still not easy to understand if this process manages to orient effectively political choices.

## **France**

French landscape transformations combine top-down regulation and bottom-up governance initiatives. The top-down regulation is based on an aesthetic heritage and on rural development, and had developed a local based approach to reconcile protection and development. In 1971, the Environmental Agency created a landscape oriented research center — called CNERP (Centre National d'Études et de Recherche sur le Paysage) — to train landscape specialists, mainly landscape architects, for regional administrations and developers. The CNERP became part of the Superior National School of Landscape of Versailles, in 1975. The second step was to monitor the landscapes changes and degradations, with photographic observatories involving institutional and local actors. Progressively, landscapes management tools have been developed such as "Regional Landscapes Atlas", on the Region Champagne-Ardenne scale, and "Landscapes Plans" at a local and inter-municipalities level. They make work together the main stakeholders: research centers, municipalities, regional authorities, Trade and Industry Department, Agriculture Department, Power Companies, associations, tourist office, project leaders, etc. The aim, for the Regional Landscapes Atlas, is to identify and recognize local landscapes. So part of these landscapes can be protected in Urban Local Plan. The Landscapes Plans' aim is to draft a project for landscapes management. Landscapes Plans require specific governance —hold by a steering and a technical committee— to decide with inhabitants, which landscapes protected or evolved, and how to make them evolve.

In the Grand Reims area, there is no Landscape Plan. As we have seen, about Grand Reims' main challenges, the agro-industrial lobby is powerful because of their economic role and because they are landowners. So, urban landscape changes management is part of an economic model. For instance,

an economic operator —TerraSolis— manages agricultural lands of an abandoned military base. Ten farmers —with the support of the FDNEA (farmers' union), the Agriculture Department and Grand Reims— have created an experimental farm. Terrasolis is a key actor of the governance of this project; ensuring farmers' income and coordinating an actor's network to involve in decision-making. Here, TerraSolis is boosting a national and local political view on agro-resources development. This governance doesn't involve all citizens' participation, only stakeholders that are part of the project.

At a national level, the landscape planning focuses on an overall territorial cohesion. On global landscape issues, there is a real collaboration between local and national institutions, through the DREAL (Regional Department of environment, planning and housing), which represents the state in each Region. The landscapes issues —aesthetic, economic or environmental— are part of the local urban planning regulation: SCoT (Territorial Coherence Plan) of the Grand Reims and PLU (Urban Planning Plan) of Reims. The SCoT is also a top-down governance tool because it arbitrates between competing economic, local or urban interests and debates. The debates and decision show that there is a gap between national objectives and local issues. Writing the SCoT of the Grand Reims took 15 years. The problem was to take into account the sustainable inputs from the Grenelle Act. Here, the landscape issue serves biodiversity or water management issues. To a better articulation between local and national issues, several initiatives exist. Network of urban planners (the FNAU) share good-practices. A landscape association with experts — The post-oil landscapes — helps political decision making. The Ministry of Ecological and Solidarity Transition develops projects with mayors to initiate local bottom-up projects. Each year, there is a "Landscape Plan" call for projects to promote a local sustainable project based on the landscape quality and produced with inhabitants.

All these initiative and incentives involve an active citizens' participation. In France, it is a legal obligation since the 1990s in urban and infrastructure development. But it is more an information process than a real public debate. There are hard political habits of representative democracy: elected people consider themselves as legitimate to decide for their community, because this community has elected them. However, there are another forms of inhabitants' involvements. Grand Reims has a Development Counsel, composed of civil society members, to debate on local governments projects and decisions; Grand Reims, also, connects with citizens through different events: Sustainable Development Week, each year; valorization of ecological innovations ("smart photovoltaic flower") or ecological educative initiatives; promoting a participative photographic landscapes atlas.

Increasing this kind of dialogue with citizens is a way to modify behaviors or to enhance awareness about biodiversity and climate change, instead for farmers. Terrasolis hosted the agricultural event Les Culturelles in 2017 (18,000 visitors). On their side, landscape designers develop mediation processes with inhabitants, through collective restitutions or design workshops where the drawing is facilitating the dialogue and the sharing of a common vision. Even economic operators or developers try to create partnerships and common interests (Les Grands Voisins in Paris). To the Northeast of Reims, Courcy —a 1000 inhabitants municipality— called on the cooperative society, Alliances Sens & Économie, to create a collaborative city, nearby the village. The plan is shaped by aggregating and including people and enterprises initiatives. This inclusive creative process is similar to a community garden process, which is the most open form to create social relationships, but it needs a management to survive at a long-term.

The landscape is a medium for dialogue or to express implicit conflicts. So, landscape issues help to connect actors, scales and objects. While many emerging initiatives encompass actors in local politics, specifically, urban agriculture shows that understanding and planning practices change over

time. This change involves learning processes, in which co-creation experiences function as proactive tools for better access and distribution of environmental benefits.

## **Croatia**

Stakeholders involved in governance of urban landscape quality include urban managers, policy makers, profession, general and interested public, which do not constitute a homogeneous group(s).

The job of urban managers and policy makers is to decide, which pathways the city should take and what the desired outcomes should be. This is done through official spatial planning documentation and governmentally approved official protective legislation. Many city and state offices are making strategic decisions about the most sustainable urban form in any given circumstance, and seeing it through to completion.

Governance of urban landscape quality is complicated by the fact that participants involved to defend their views and interests do not constitute a homogenous group. Citizen initiatives for urban landscape quality may be opposed by other citizens, claiming that these projects undermine the identity of their neighborhood. Stakeholders, which can be categorized into "policy", "business", "NGOs", "science" and the like, choose representatives within themselves for a stakeholder dialogue. In case of a typical urban-planning controversy where, to use spatial planning jargon "yellow" (built) and "green" oppose each other, this approach will certainly help to articulate adversarial points of view.

Non-governmental actors are involved in the governance of urban landscape quality formally and in actual practice. In conflicting perspectives on urban landscape quality one must certainly avoid making assumptions about the specific motives, interests, and knowledge level of participants. This does not imply that "NGOs" (or any other actors), in raising their voices, necessarily have the public good in mind rather than self-interest. Participants led by specific interests may also have valuable knowledge to offer. The observation that perspectives articulate both values and factual observations, contrasts with the broadly shared notion that participation is especially relevant for articulating people's values, whereas experts have the specific task of providing decision-makers with the right information.

## 7. Implementing the European Landscape Convention

The aforementioned landscape challenges are pressing issues prevailing in different geographical contexts all over Europe. At the same time, each landscape context brings about specific regional challenges depending on the particular socio-spatial environment. Tackling these and other major threads to landscape qualities and finding ways to deal with conflicting interests of land use in European landscapes were the reasons for deliberating and defining the European Landscape Convention (ELC). The convention has since then been ratified by 39 European countries. However, few European countries such as Austria, Germany and the Russian Federation have neither signed nor ratified the treaty. This chapter addresses the questions:

- *How seriously the ELC content is taken up in national and regional policies and landscape development today?*
- *Which barriers and hampering factors impede the enforcement and further implementation of aspects from the ELC?*

### Netherlands

The Dutch government has ratified the European Landscape Convention (ELC) in July 2005. However, its actual transfer into policies, instruments, and concrete action remains weak. In fact, several of the stakeholders interviewed had not even heard of the ELC. Dessing and Pedrolí (2013) suggested in 2013 that the Netherlands fails to comply with the ELC. They also point out that the ELC is a binding treaty, which means that in case of non-compliance, legal action against the Dutch state could be taken. In 2018, for the first time, the ELC is partly taken up as one of the guiding principles in the new Environment and Planning Act (EPA) (in Dutch 'Omgevingswet'). The EPA was recently approved by both chambers of the Dutch parliament. The expectation is that the EPA will take effect in 2021. By implementing the EPA, the government wants to combine and simplify the regulations for spatial projects and environmental laws. The new Act will replace 15 existing laws, including the Water Act, the Crisis & Recovery Act and the Spatial Planning Act. The Dutch environmental legislation currently consists of diverse laws and hundreds of regulations for land use, residential areas, infrastructure, the environment, nature and water. Each has its own starting point, different procedures and requirements. This makes the legislation too complex for diverse actors, be it public administration, planners, conservationists and other. One explicit aim is to ease project developments and reduce planning timescales with simplifying the planning procedures e.g. the construction of housing on former business parks, or the planning and construction of new wind farms.

The ELC is explicitly named in the EPA and aspects of (the already partly) happening involvement of citizens and the public will play a more prominent role in the future of landscape decision making in the Netherlands. At least, as it is foreseen in the EPA, which builds on three main principles: decentralization, deregulation, and active involvement of citizens. In the future implementation of the EPA, further aspects suggested by the ELC may become implemented such as the idea of landscape observatories, or observatory centers as tools in the service of a landscape policy, which are an important element named in the ELC (Article 6c). Considering the uptake of some ELC ideas in the new EPA may appear as an important step forward in the endeavor of landscape awareness and protec-



tion, however, the new policy design in the Dutch EPA also brings about pitfalls and current drawbacks for landscape governance in particular.

For example, the principle of decentralizing environmental and planning decision-making with the new EPA leads to a shift in responsibilities from the national level to the level of provinces and municipalities. In general, shifting responsibilities 'closer' to the actual socio-spatial contexts, where actual landscape changes occur and become perceivable is seen as a necessary and promising change in administrative regulations. However, it leads to a vacuum in responsibilities for landscape issues, as currently reported by landscape researchers and landscape NGO's in the Netherlands.

From the perspective of landscape researchers and landscape NGO's, the ELC is seen as a valuable description of how landscapes shall be understood and governed. However, a main critique addresses its broadness and non-binding status. It remains a blunt instrument, being not legally binding, without setting rules for incentives or punishments in terms of landscape development. Its character is understood as a recommendation. The conditions and aims it proposes can be convenient for regional and national policy maker. That means, during phases of developments, which coincide with recommendations made within the ELC, policy maker can easily argue that they acted according to the ELC. In contrast, when making development decisions conflicting with ELC principles, policy maker can easily ignore the ELC without risking further consequences. In that sense, the ELC can even be counterproductive with respect to reaching targets of protecting and acknowledging the values and (ecosystem) services of (green) landscapes. The ELC currently has no mandate to pressure the existing planning regime. It requires further activities of civil society organizations, NGO's and policy maker to argue and lobby for its further uptake in national policies and implementation in national, regional and local spatial planning schemes.

## **Italy**

In Italy the CEP constitutes a strong cultural reference, an open method of coordination, which proposes a model of governance for the construction of regulatory frameworks and for action, providing new principles and suggesting a common approach. The CEP is, in fact, a soft law, as it is based on 'voluntary' membership of States, defined through a long process of discussion and exchange of experiences. As Angioletta Voghera and Franco Zagari declared during the interview under WP1, in Italy the landscape is an essential cultural question. For better or worse it is the mirror of a society, but what is slowly being discovered is the importance of its social and economic reflexes and consequently also the political influence of its effects, which regard a large part of our life and for this reason should be given primary importance. In Italy, the quality of the landscape is invoked as a strategic objective of territorial governance that requires a strong alliance among nature policies and landscape policies in a framework that is still uncertain and characterized by various critical aspects. The landscape appears on different scales as an added dimension in policies, plans, and interventions, but conflicts with the difficulty of the post-landscape planning period: an incomplete integration of the landscape in policies and territorial and sector planning, the continued lack of identification of public and private subjects responsible for management and activation, as well as the absence of appropriate financial resources for its.

In fact, in Italy the ELC is mostly perceived as a cultural reference, rather than a regulation. There are many good practices and interesting references of implementing aspects of the ELC at the local scale, but these are strictly related to the sensitiveness and cultural background of practitioners, consultants, and policy-makers. ELC proposals are not consolidated into regular planning practice, where,

there is more attention given to the aspects of regulation and procedures, rather than to the definition of effective solutions for the quality of urban and peri-urban landscapes.

The ELC has been an important opportunity to extend actions and projects to the whole territory, even to those parts of low-quality conditions, emphasizing the theme of 'ordinary landscapes'. The ratification induced the Italian legislator to broaden the scope of the Landscape Regulation. The Cultural Heritage and Landscape Code (Legislative Decree n. 42, of January 22, 2004, subsequently amended by the Legislative Decree no. 157 of 2006 and the Legislative Decree no. 63 of 2008) is actually the most significant legislative instrument within the evolution of the Italian landscape legislation, following the signing of the ELC. In general, the Code seems to be inspired by the principles of the Convention. While confirming in the third section "Landscape Assets" as the contents of the previous law, it includes some innovations that specifically relate to the definition of the term "Landscape", the policies for the landscape protection and enhancement, and the extension of the landscape planning to the entire regional territory. It moves from a more prescriptive approach to a more proactive one. With the Code, certain provisions relating to consultation and participation of stakeholders in the landscape protection are also introduced. In fact, the Code has made major changes in the Italian landscape planning system, especially in relation to the issue of competencies and landscape protection and enhancement, but moving away from some assumptions that have guided the ELC. For example, it further emphasizes a separation between "landscape protection" and "landscape enhancement", through the attribution of the first to the exclusive competence of the State, and the second to the competence shared between the State and the Regions, which is generally difficult to practice and often uncertain about outcomes.

The Code also neglects an important innovation introduced by the Convention, which is strictly related to the definition of the landscape itself, i.e. the involvement of populations in decisions and implementation, ignoring the also recognized economic value of the landscape and its potential in terms of development and employment. Instead, the Code gives relief to the protection and landscape planning, without intervening in defining management guidelines. A critical aspect of the Code is therefore linked to agreements between the State and the Regions for drafting new landscape plans. On the one hand, they represent a missed opportunity in that they mainly refer to the protection of cultural and landscape goods, while they could have established more effective directions and criteria for territorial planning and enhancement. On the other hand, these agreements have contributed to lengthening the "gestation" of a few plans and to promoting a vision that in some cases tends to be "conservative" for the territory.

There is a general agreement on the fact that the plan is considered the place where the needs of different actors can be mixed with those of protection and conservation. It is desirable that the regional landscape planning activity is resumed, with major impacts also at the local scale. Confirming a more traditional approach, related to the value of rules and restrictions, the Code seems to mark a greater distance from a shared international position that support the need for integration between landscape preservation and sustainable spatial development, to be pursued especially at the local scale. It seems to prevail again the traditional approach to protection and conservation, instead of the proactive one. In this sense, we can say that the ELC still represents more a "cultural reference" for practitioners and policy-makers, rather than something that has actually turned into consolidated planning practice.

## France

France ratified the ELC on 2006, July 1st and inscribed it in its law on 2006, December 22. However, few actors, mainly national actors, are aware of ELC. At local levels, the ELC is not well known, masked by complex urban and environmental regulations. Only the spirit of the ELC is familiar, because ELC issues are integrated on sustainable goals, but in a general way.

At national level, France was an active actor to prefigure the ELC with, particularly, the geographer Yves Luginbühl and France was one of the first countries to sign the Convention.

Each year, as the 38 signatory countries, France participates to the European Workshops for the implementation of the ELC. The purpose is to share ideas, practices, experiences and achievements to implement the ELC, on a specific issue: local democracy, national policies, multifunctional landscapes, spatial planning, etc.

The French landscape policy is directly inspired by the ELC and aims to preserve and promote the quality and diversity of national landscapes, and to integrate landscape in planning approaches. It's essentially an incentive policy. The ambition is to develop the local landscapes knowledge, with Landscapes Observatories and Regional Landscape Atlas (Atlas des paysages régionaux); to frame landscape quality points by funding Landscape Plans (Plans Paysages), in Natural Regional Parks (Parc Naturels Régionaux) charter and in urban Planning Documents (SCoT); to promote landscape culture and know-how through annual National Landscape Award, Landscapes Day and Landscapes Spring.

In each Region, the Regional Department of Environment, Planning and Housing (DREAL) represent the State: It's a decentralized State Department. DREAL are the main relays to diffuse the ELC ambitions, with a local division in each Department, which is a privileged interlocutor for local governments or organizations. ELC receives a good press: nobody is against it. The local actors (urban agency, economic operators, municipalities) are more alert to sustainable transition or ecological issues (biodiversity, ecological corridors, water resources, soil sealing, city greening and land artificialization, ...), linked to the Grenelle Acts and the Recovery of Biodiversity, Nature and Landscapes Act. They are interested, above all around Reims, on agricultural economic issues (bio-economy, food short circuits). ELC points the need to strengthen the skills and knowledge of citizens. But consultation processes are not fluid. They are not essential for most stakeholders or they distrust them, especially in economic circles. In addition, some municipalities believe that the EU's recommendations are not applicable at their level, due to a lack of financial, technical or human resources. The main difficulties to implement the European Landscape Convention are link to the local democracy implementation.

## Croatia

Landscape protection is an important element of recognition and spatial identity of Croatia. The Republic of Croatia was among the first countries that signed and ratified (2002) the European Landscape Convention (ELC). However, the landscape issue is still not tackled holistically, according to the idea behind the European Landscape Convention. Besides the Act on the Ratification of the ELC, there is still no single law in Croatia that regulates the matter of landscape (Bilušić Dumbović and Obad Šćitaroci 2013). Current legal protection of the landscape is based on several laws, which result in different approaches to the landscape issue, each one in favor of the particular sectorial needs:

- Act on Protection and Preservation of Cultural Goods

- Nature Protection Act

- Physical Planning Act

## Environmental Protection Act

Landscape protection in Croatia is dealt with from the perspective of different “sectors” and several laws (Nature Protection Act, Environmental Protection Act, Act on the Protection and Preservation of Cultural Assets, and Physical Planning Act) within which landscape protection is differently interpreted (Bilušić Dumbović and Obad Šćitaroci 2013). By Nature Protection Act, landscapes are protected in the areas of National Parks, Nature Parks and Regional Parks. Environmental Protection Act presents landscape as a component of environment, ensuring integrated preservation of environmental (and therefore also landscape) quality, and conservation of biological and landscape diversity. Cultural landscapes, as a type of cultural heritage, are protected by Act on the Protection and Preservation of Cultural Assets. Although natural, cultural and historic urban landscapes are recognized as dimensions of UNESCO World Heritage (few significant Croatian landscapes are protected by UNESCO World Heritage List) only natural and cultural landscapes are present in Croatian legislative. While natural, environment and cultural heritage protection only partly include landscape, physical planning has been recognized as a common and integrative instrument of its protection (Bilušić Dumbović and Obad Šćitaroci 2013). In addition to legal protection of landscape, physical and urban planning documents have adopted an integral approach and have provided a considerable degree of protection (Dumbović Bilušić and Obad Šćitaroci 2007).

Several other legal frameworks such as the Forest Act, Water Act, Act on Regional Development, Agricultural Act, Act on Energy, Act on Roads, do not consider the landscape, but their implementation has an impact on it.. Other laws, whose application and execution strongly impact the appearance and state of the landscape, do not demonstrate any specific attitude towards landscape.

Although European Landscape Convention recognizes the importance of all landscapes and not just exceptional ones, everyday landscapes, which occupy the largest part of the territory of the state do not have the appropriate treatment within the landscape policy in relation to their decisive influence on the quality of life.

Each signatory of European Landscape Convention has been obliged to take necessary measures: to identify and classify landscapes, to assess them on the basis of professional evaluation criteria; to analyze the pressures transforming them and to observe and keep records of the changes. According to Dumbović Bilušić and Obad Šćitaroci (2013) there are no legal acts or regulations in Croatia, which determine in more detail the jurisdiction over or methods for the implementation of these requirements. Among all laws and provisions concerning landscape aspects in Croatia, not a single one takes an integral approach to landscape as it is described in the European Landscape Convention. They rather take into consideration particular landscape components. A positive exemption in the Croatian regulations is the Act on the Protection and Preservation of Cultural Property, which understands landscape as a testimony of human activity in a certain space and, as such, contains cultural and historical significance and determines its protection accordingly. However, the legal documentation does not contain protection measures and there is no requirement for the creation of Landscape Protection Plans. The shortcomings of other laws concerning landscape include a lack of recognition of landscape as an entity shaped by people’s activities in the natural environment. Consequently, the Physical Planning and Construction Act does not envisage any need for the creation of regulatory foundations for landscapes and the integration of landscape protection measures into any sort of physical planning documentation applicable on any administrative level.

**Russian Federation**

Russian Federation has neither signed nor ratified the ELC. Stakeholders are not aware about ELC.

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## 9. Appendix

### Appendix 1: Current status of landscape governance in France, Italy, the Netherlands, Croatia and Russian Federation

#### **The Netherlands (National and regional level)**

Landscape planning, or more general, spatial planning in the Netherlands is regulated within the Dutch Spatial Planning Act (WRO), which defines how the spatial plans of the state, provinces and municipalities are to become effective instruments. As an example, the municipal land-use plan is such a spatial instrument. Across spatial (and administrative) levels, the role of *spatial visions* receives increasing attention. Spatial planning decisions are made at the national, regional and local levels. Hence, spatial visions of the government, provinces and municipalities describe their expected spatial developments as well as how these developments shall be directed and implemented. Today, spatial visions are policy papers that have replaced the key planning decisions (of the government), the regional plans (of the provinces) and the structure plans (of the municipalities) (Dutch Ministry of the Interior, 2018). Spatial planning policy and its implementation follow the principle of decentralized decision-making. This means, spatial planning decisions should be, as far as possible, shaped at the municipal level. The Dutch municipalities are able to set appropriate regulations based on their knowledge of the local situation. However, this decentralized mandate also brings challenges for appropriate landscape governance. Landscapes refrain from ending at administrative (e.g. municipal) borders. Instead landscapes often do expand across different municipalities or boundaries of provinces. A decentralized and municipal focus of spatial planning then requires intense collaborations and knowledge exchange across municipal boundaries, when addressing landscape issues. Spatial and organizational intermediaries (such as regional planning organizations) may play a beneficial role then acting as platforms, where to define inter-municipal envisioning and planning of landscape aspects.

In the context of spatial planning, the national government of the Netherlands focuses on subjects that are of importance to the entire country, such as improving accessibility through major infrastructure projects. These national interests are set down in the Spatial Vision on Infrastructure & Spatial Planning (SVIR). The provinces apparently deal with provincial interests, for example, landscape management, urbanization and the preservation of green spaces. Provincial interests are set out in the provincial spatial visions. That means, following the Environment and Planning Act (EPA), the provinces will have a clear, formal responsibility for landscape matters in the Netherlands, in terms of envisioning, protecting and planning. However, this explicit role is rather new and interview partners reported about a lack of awareness and capacities at the provinces. In addition, concrete implementations (e.g. of a landscape protection program) need to be closely aligned with municipal interests and need to be embedded into municipal land-use plans. In the Netherlands, land-use plans are the key tool in spatial planning. Such plans set down where construction may take place (or not), what may be built, the size of the structure and what it may be used for. Land-use plans therefore

comprise of respective the rules and regulations for the area concerned and an illustration (planning map) that indicates and explains the various zones.

## Italy

### *Landscape governance and planning in Italy*

The Law of 29 June 1939, n. 1497 ("*Protection of natural beauties*") was the first attempt to stem the compromise of landscape and cultural heritage, but was extended only to marginal parts of the territory, those considered to be of greater value and sensitivity. Only later, after the post-war economic development and the great period of development between 40s and 80s, the protection of the landscape become the focus of attention and the need for more extensive areas of protection was felt. The Law of 8 August 1985, n. 431 (*Galasso - Disposizioni urgenti per la tutela delle zone di particolare interesse ambientale*). This law overturns the landscape vision introduced by 1497/39, extending the landscape vision to the territory. The innovation of the European Landscape Convention of 2000 drove us the sphere of "responsibility towards the landscape" (CoE 2000), but all of this is translated into planning at the local scale, not as an opportunity, but rather as a constraint.

In Italy, the ratification of the ELC induced the Legislator to broaden the scope of Landscape Regulation. The Cultural Heritage and Landscape Code (Legislative Decree n. 42, of January 22, 2004, subsequently amended by the Legislative Decree no. 157 of 2006 and the Legislative Decree no. 63 of 2008) is actually the most significant legislative instrument within the evolution of the Italian landscape legislation, following the signing of the European Landscape Convention. In general, the Code seems to be inspired by the principles of the Convention: while confirming in the third section "Landscape Assets" the contents of the previous law, it includes some innovations that specifically relate to the definition of the term "Landscape", the policies for the landscape protection and enhancement, and the extension of the landscape planning to the entire regional territory, from a more prescriptive approach, to a more proactive one. With the Code, certain provisions relating to consultation and participation of stakeholders in the landscape protection are also introduced. Specifically, it aims to:

- extend landscape protection and enhancement to the entire regional, and therefore national territory;
- coordinate the formulation of general landscape policies by the competent Ministry that must propose the general guidelines for landscape planning;
- provide that in the phase of approval of the landscape plans consultation and participation of all stakeholders are met;
- establish that the forecasts of the landscape plans should be: mandatory for planning instruments of municipalities, metropolitan cities and provinces; prevailing on differing provisions which may be contained in planning instruments and sector, including those of authorities managing protected areas.

Following this philosophy, the Code has made major changes in the Italian landscape planning system, especially in relation to the issue of competencies and landscape protection and enhancement, but moving away from some assumptions that have guided the European Landscape Convention. For example, it further emphasizes a separation between "landscape protection" and "landscape enhancement", through the attribution of the first to the exclusive competence of the State, and the second to the competence shared between the State and the Regions, which is generally difficult to

practice and often uncertain about outcomes. The Code also neglects an important innovation introduced by the Convention, which is strictly related to the definition of the landscape itself, i.e. the involvement of populations in decisions and implementation, ignoring the also recognized economic value of the landscape and its potential in terms of development and employment. Instead, the Code gives relief to the protection and landscape planning, without intervening in defining management guidelines. Confirming a more traditional approach, related to the value of rules and restrictions, the Code seems to mark a greater distance from a shared international position that supports the need for integration between landscape preservation and sustainable spatial development, to be pursued especially at the local scale. According to Peano (2011), in this way, “still seems to perpetuate the old Italian view that has always followed two parallel roads to protect the landscape: as the passive safeguard of cultural and landscape assets and the territorial development (e.g. urban planning). The obvious risk is to neglect marginal and degraded landscapes that invest a large part of Italy and for which recovery and revitalization require active policies, social and economic, to put them back inside the circuits of sustainable development. It is not coincidental, in this regard that the Code neglects, even in the definitions, the economic significance of the landscape, emphasizes instead by the Convention”. It seems to prevail again the traditional approach to protection and conservation, instead of the proactive one. In this sense, we can say that the European Landscape Convention represents more a “cultural reference” for practitioners and policy-makers, rather than something that has actually turned into law and consolidated practice.

This is also particularly true at the local level. The experiences that have occurred in recent years demonstrated the potential have effectively enriched a reflection on the importance of the landscape at the local scale, although attributed to the environment, which seems to be a common reference concerning the fields and methods of intervention in the organization of urban space. In particular, the proliferation of specific sectorial plans (e.g. transport, water, parks, businesses, rural development, etc.) represents, in fact, an attempt to address the complexity of the contemporary city. In this sense, it is possible to “read” the landscape within a high number of local planning experiences, best practices, that are often isolated and not consolidated for a diffused quality of the transformations.

## **France**

The 1970s are a turning point for taking into account environmental risks at international level (UNCED: organization of a summit every 10 years since 1972 in Stockholm). United Nations Environment Program and European Bern Convention come from this, with idea of sites’ heritage (Washington conference in 1965). Club of Rome has been founded in 1968 (Meadow Report, 1972: idea of zero growth) with scientists, economists, industrialists, civil servants. In France, term landscape is firstly used in 1945 for the protection of specific areas (creation of national parks in 1960 and regional nature parks in 1967). Ministry of Environment (created in 1971 for noise and industrial pollution) disarticulate questions of landscape from Ministry of Agriculture. In 1976, the protection of nature Act introduces environmental impact studies in case of major transformation of the natural environment and DATAR produces photographic atlases.

During 1980s and 1990s, environmental threats are taken into account with multilateral and integral approach (environmental resources and human actions, Brundtland report in 1987 and Global Charter for the nature that prefigures the Rio declaration). At European level, unique European Act (1982) includes protection of the environment and Maastricht Treaty (1992) gives so much importance to



environmental concerns and economic objectives: Convention for the protection of the architectural heritage in Europe (1985) and European Convention of archaeological heritage (1992). At national level, mountain Act (1985) and coastal Act (1986) define a balance between landscape protection and territorial development. Regulation is intensifying: fisheries Act (1984), aquatic environment Act (1992, 2006) and areas of ecological, faunistic and floristic interest (ZNIEFF created in 1982) which act inventors; landscape Act (1993) which encourages to the improvement of ordinary landscapes. Municipalities have the responsibility for compliance with environmental regulations in planning documents (risk prevention plans, Local Urban Plans) since 1983 (a responsibility reinforced by the environment protection Act, 1995). At regional level, 26 environmental services have been created in 1991 in order to improve environment knowledge, to define methods for planning, to manage and to protect natural environments.

The Rio Declaration (1992) encourages at rethinking economic growth towards liveable, equitable and sustainable growth (ecological footprint, green GDP, standards and certifications such as ISO 9001). This boosts the implementation of Agenda 21 in each territory for sustainable development with public participation; and declaration on forests, framework convention on climate change, convention on biological diversity, convention of United Nations fighting deforestation. Club of Budapest (1993) informally brings together creative people for a humanist ethic. The Kyoto Protocol (1997) sets the target of 5.2% for decreasing greenhouse gas emissions between 1990 and 2008-2012. Concept of “sustainable city” is introduced in Europe by the charter of Aalborg (1994) that is against the charter of Athens. In France, Barnier Act (1995) strengthens environmental protection and sets up national commissions for public debate in order to encourage public participation in large-scale urban projects.

During the 2000s, climate change and biodiversity are the focus: project for a world environment organization (abandoned following the 2007-2008 crisis). In 2000, the European Landscape Convention signed in Florence protects, manages and plans ordinary, rural and urban landscapes, while increasing cooperation between states. The international NGO CivilScape is created in order to promote and to modernize agricultural policy, as well as landscape quality objectives (landscape price by European Council); France ratified this convention in 2006. The landscape is considered according to its social utility (cultural, ecological, environmental and social interests, and resource for economic activity). Living environment is at the heart of the convention. In France, Voynet Act (1999) aims at harmonious, sustainable and participative development; with development councils at inter-municipalities level, and the regional layouts of planning, sustainable development and equality between territories; then with the ecological corridors. Local Agenda 21 are set up by decentralization laws (Chevènement Act, 1999; SRU Act, 2000; LOA Act, 1999; local democracy Act, 2002). Companies publish a report about their social and environmental responsibility since the new economic regulations Act (2001, following the green book of European commission). In 2000, the code of environment is set up, according to a non-overall approach dealing with physical environment, natural areas, fauna and flora, prevention of pollution, risks and nuisances, Antarctica (since 2003). However, several Acts make possible to control the uses of soils and their property: hunting Act (2000), forest Act (2001), agricultural Act (1999) which formalises the partnership between farmers and public authorities (territorial exploitation contracts for subsidies).

The fourth Earth Summit (Johannesburg, 2002) spurs a North-South partnership. The environmental liability directive (2004) establishes an obligation to repair damage to water, soils, species and natural settlements, but it doesn't take into account air pollution, oil pollution or nuclear accidents. At

European level, the framework convention of the European Council on the value of cultural heritage for society (2005) puts people and their values at the heart of cultural heritage. In France, soil conservation becomes a tool for rural planning (2005 Act reinforcing the role of the departments; agricultural orientation Act, 2006; ...). The development of rural territories modifies texts in a lot of codes (DTR Act, 2005). National strategy for sustainable development was set up in 2003: information, sustainable territorial actions, consumer empowerment, environmental protection, public commitments (health plan, sustainable public transport, environmental education, taxes). The environmental charter (2005) is a constitutional text with three principles that reinforce the notion of responsibility: prevention (impact studies), precaution (in case of irreversible damages), principle of polluter-payer. DIACT (2005) then DATAR (2009) pursues these objectives by accompanying the regions with a prospective vision.

In 2008, the Council of Europe proposes recommendations for implementing the European Landscape Convention: an overall approach of the territory, a fundamental role of knowledge, a promotion of information, a definition of strategies at administrative level, an integration of landscape features into territorial public policies (planning) and sectorial public policies, an improvement of public participation, objective qualities of the territory, and collaborations. The tools are: landscape plans, inclusion of landscape in sectorial public policies, shared charters, impact studies or evaluation of the impacts of urban projects, protection of sites, historical and cultural heritage, resources and funding, landscape informations and observatories, landscape reports. In France, the environmental Grenelle (2007) is a turning point, with the objectives of restoring biodiversity through the implementation of green and blue frames (the outlook is 2012), the regional layouts of ecological coherence, the reduction of greenhouse gas emissions (273 measures with a monitoring committee). Foundation for Biodiversity is created in 2008 and Grenelle I Act in 2009, with environmental objectives at national level and methods for sustainable urban developments (defined by Grenelle II Act, 2010).

The planning document (PADD) incorporates objectives to protect and restore the ecological continuities since 2008 in each Scot; the Urban Local Plan defines rules for protecting these areas and networks. Since the Grenelle, cooperation is increasing between institutional services, institutional scales, territorial organizations, citizens, and users of a territory (associations, experts, economic operators...). Some associations receive a five years qualification as privileged interlocutors of the public authorities (roles of lobby and legal vigilance). Standards and certifications are multiplying, specifically in the real estate sector, without taking into account the quality of use. The DREAL (regional level, since 2009) have the responsibility of landscape atlas (implemented at departmental level by DDT): identification of landscape units and evaluation of their evolution dynamics. Municipalities have ability for environmental policies (waste management, water purification, advertizing) and the ALUR Act (2014) encourages at the inter-municipal cooperation (EPCI). Since 2012, Ministry of ecological and solidarity transition has ability of energy, in addition to environmental policies (for transport and aquatic environments). NOTRe Act (2015) further decentralizes state powers to wider regions; they have to implement a regional layout of economic development of innovation and internationalization, and a regional biomass layout.

At international level, since the first conference of stakeholders on climate change (Berlin, 1995), COP 17 (Durban, 2011) introduces into force the green climate fund (COP 15, Copenhagen): payment on "climate debt" by industrialized countries, as well as avoiding legal vacuum after the validity of the Kyoto protocol. In the fifth Earth Summit (Rio+20, 2012), focus is on green economy. The international climate conference (Paris, 2015) encourages a multilateral commitment for limiting global

warming and for Agenda 2030 (reports on objectives of sustainable development). In France, the energy transition Act (2015) encourages a green growth with a circular economy and a better waste management. The reconquest of biodiversity, nature and landscape Act (2016) and the biodiversity plan (2018) encourage at the reduction of the negative impacts of human activities on their environment.

However, these environmental protections are evolving. This is the case with the revision of the coastal Act for reducing the 100-meters limit. The European Landscape Convention is relatively unfamiliar in France because of the regulatory yarrow and the lack of communication, but the “spirit of the law” is known (by DREAL, Chambers of Agriculture and DDT). The logic is incentive and not coercive. Local stakeholders of urban planning are aware of the challenges of sustainable transition, but not all convinced and public participation become public information. Thus, environmental protection (including biodiversity and actions against global warming) will be registered with Article 1 of the French Constitution, as a founding principle of the Republic. In fact, the success of multilateral collective management focuses on the classification of cultural heritage as World heritage (UNESCO).

## **Croatia**

Spatial planning documents represent an useful tool for:

- introducing landscape protection, management and planning policies into spatial, urban and sector planning using landscape quality objectives
- integrating new uses and built elements into the character of each landscape unit
- promoting a form of landscape governance based on participation and consensus.

The obstacles, however are financing the plans, property and legal relations, slow procedure of law-making - since each project requires individual approach and there is no universal solution. The legislative framework in Croatia is fully in line with *acquis communautaire* of EU. Specific conditions of landscape development and protection are resolved especially through the adoption and drafting of spatial plans. Landscape Study of the City of Zagreb (Phase 1: Strategic Guidelines for the Protection of Character Landscape of the City of Zagreb) is one of the expert backgrounds of the City of Zagreb Development Strategy for the period up to 2020 - ZagrebPlan 2020 (\*\*2017b). Its making is committed by domestic and international law and professional regulations. The main purpose of the Landscape Study is to recognise landscape character of the City of Zagreb. Landscapes characters and features are important elements of spatial identity, and their preservation has to be integrated into development plans. Therefore, strategic guidelines have to be based on diversity of recognized landscape types. In the preparation of spatial planning documentation and others sectoral activities, landscape specifics have to be protected to ensure the basic assumptions for the City of Zagreb Development Strategy.

Landscape typological division for the City of Zagreb was performed at the level of general landscape types, and on the basis of the assessment of the condition guidelines for preserving or improving landscape status. The importance of landscape is emphasized in future development of the City of Zagreb by protecting landscape diversity and raising awareness of the need to preserve the characteristics and landscape features. Six general landscape types / areas were established for the City of Zagreb: mountain landscape of Medvednica; hilly landscape of Medvednica; lowland urban landscape; river lowland landscape; lowland rural landscape of Zagreb; and the hilly landscape of the

Vukomeričke gorice. More detailed elaboration of general landscape types has identified twenty-five types of landscape or landscape areas.

The area of the City of Zagreb has been formed and continues to develop within a diverse range of geomorphologic structures and natural impacts that have influenced the formation of landscapes structures. Versatile landscape structures are created from natural and anthropogenic patterns, architectural forms, urban areas and agricultural use. Natural and relief forms represent one of the most recognizable features, that integrated with anthropogenic elements form different landscape types: mountainous and hilly slopes of Medvednica, lowland areas of the Sava River to a hilly part of the Vukomeričke gorice. Zagreb urban landscape is characterized by accentuated natural components and constructed structures formed during the long periods of historical development. The basic identity elements of the historic urban landscape of Zagreb are recognized within the areas of cultural and historical heritage as: the medieval structures of the Upper Town and Kaptol, the Lower Town bloc matrix of the 19th century, numerous working settlements created on the concept of garden city from the first half of the last century, and the quarters of a multi-story buildings of New Zagreb from the 60s and 70s of the last century. In addition to already protected cultural and natural values, urban area of Zagreb is full of less pronounced landscape. Everyday and ordinary landscapes, whose values are not recognized either protected, rapidly change and irretrievably disappear due to the high development pressures. Degraded landscape are recognised in the City of Zagreb, beside urban, suburban and peripheral everyday landscape.

Agglomeration of reduced urban and landscape quality are often the result of the lack of binding procedures between the urban and the natural, and the lack of tools for identifying and evaluating landscape features in spatial planning procedures. Measures and guidelines for protection and future spatial development are proposed, based on analysis and evaluation of the character of general landscape areas within their characteristics, conditions, sensitivity and overall value.

The future development of the City of Zagreb has to plan, to preserve and to improve the landscape character as an important element of urban identity. City of Zagreb has a large potential and resource for development, based on the landscape component. Adequate protection, management and planning of landscape can contribute to the quality of life in the City. The enduring diversity of the City of Zagreb is a great cultural and natural wealth that can be of interest for economic use (\*\*\*) (2015).

## **Russian Federation**

The overall framework for planning in Russia is set by the Urban Planning Code, which was enacted in 1998 (UPC-1998) with major amendments in 2004 (UPC-2004). UPC-1998 introduced the “rules for land-use and development”, providing comprehensive and legally-binding descriptions of permitted property uses through the city (UPC, 1998). In essence, their functionality was fairly similar to the functional zonings used in the USSR. The rules for Pskov were developed in 2003 and revised in 2013. This revision provided for mass transfers of peripheral and inner city land previously classified as green open spaces, recreational landscapes, and landscapes with objects of cultural heritage to land-use categories allowing residential and commercial development as well as cemeteries. From 1998 to 2003, the city lacked a framework for city development (except for a master plan concept adopted by the City Council in 2001). Technically, the General Master Plan of 1973 has not been used since the early 1990s, so the rules of 2003 marked the start of re-establishing urban planning in Pskov after a

decade of neglect. UPC-2004 defined the General Master Plan as the main strategic document directing city development for 25 years. The previous General Master Plan of Pskov was adopted in 1973 and maintained until 1998, but it was violated in many instances, including the development of multi-storey residential blocks next to the airport, violations of height restrictions near cultural heritage sites, and growing disproportions between population density and the availability of green open spaces. The most recent master plan was adopted in 2010 by the City Council (previous editions required the approval of the central government), and was supplemented with the revised “rules for land-use and development” in 2013. According to UPC-2004, drafts of general master plans and the “rules of land-use. ” are subject to public hearings (UPC, 2005). Established in Pskov in 2011 by the City Council, the Urban Planning Council serves as the formal platform for interactions between the planning community and the local government. Its core function is the review of strategic documents and regulations concerned with physical planning in Pskov. Although it has a permanent status, in reality, it convenes rather irregularly. This irregularity occurs partly because the function of the Urban Planning Council is almost entirely duplicated by the Research and Expert Council established back in the time of the USSR at the State Committee for Cultural Heritage of the Pskov Oblast’. Nearly every development in any area of Pskov can threaten objects of cultural heritage, and therefore, most planning documents are subject to review by the Research and Expert Council. UPC-2004 establishes that any decisions concerned with the use of urban space shall be subject to compulsory public hearings. This statute includes approval of General Master Plans and Rules for land-use and development, some instances of building permitting and renovation work, major modifications of approved building permits, and detailed territorial planning (UPC, 2005). The outcomes of public hearings are often ignored, and as a rule of thumb, the public cannot overrule any initiatives recognised by city government as important.

## Appendix 2

Table A1: List of interviews conducted in WP1

### Europe

Nr.	Date of interview	Name of interviewee	Organization/Role	Country
1	24.01.2018	Dr. Ulrike Wissen Hayek	Senior Scientist, European Landscape Research, ETH Zurich, PLUS research group	CH
2	05.02.2018	Dr. Meike Levin-Keitel	Research Scientist, Landscape Transformation, Leibniz-University Hannover	DE
3	04.03.2018	Dr. Markus Leibenath	Research Group Leader, Landscape change, IOER Dresden	DE

### Netherlands, including Drechtsteden

4	06.04.2018	Gerri-Jan van Heerwarden	Senior Beleidsmedewerker, Landschappen.nl	NL
5	29.03.2018	Ellen Kelder	Civil servant on urban development at Municipality of Dordrecht	NL
6	29.03.2018	Irma Zanders	Senior Beleidsadviseur (Civil servant on environmental issues) at Municipality of Dordrecht	NL
7	29.03.2018	Bertus van der Vegt	Civil servant / Project manager at Municipality of Dordrecht, Project: Green and Blue in the City	NL
8	??	Janneke ten Kate	Platform 31, joint municipalities also supporting JPI projects	
9	26 01 2018	Isabel Elias and Koen de Kruif	Active citizens in Dordrecht	Drechtsteden
10	16 11 2017	Andre Seip	Coordinator Physical environment	Drechtsteden
11	29 03 2018	Patricia Braaksma	Involved in ELC on behalf of Neth-	NL

			erlands	
12	10 04 2018	Workshop National Forest Management and Deltametropool	30 urban planners, architects and others involved	NL

## Italy

Table A1: List of interviews conducted in WP1 (PP2 - UNICAM)

Nr.	Date	Name	Organization/Role	Country
	April 6, 2018	Amante Enrico	Lawyer. Specialist on ELC at the national level, and in particular for Tuscany Region	Italy Tuscany Region
	March 7, 2018	Bastiani Massimo	Architect. Specialist on river contracts, hydrological risk prevention, bottom-up projects for local development with particular reference to river basin and peri-urban contexts. President of the National Association of River Contracts.	Italy
	April 11, 2018	Birrozzi Carlo	Architect. Head of the Superintendence of Cultural Heritage and Landscape of Marche Region - Associated organ of the Ministry of Cultural Heritage and Activities and Tourism (Italy).	Italy Marche Region
	November 29, 2017	Bucci Achille, Zenobi Vincenzo	Architects and Urban Planners. Department of Urbanism, Landscape and Territorial Information at Marche Region	Italy Marche Region
	March 13, 2018	Centanni Claudio	Architect and Urban Planner. Head of the Office of Urban Planning of the Municipality of Ancona. President of Marche Region Section of the National Institute of Urbanism (INU).	Italy Municipality of Ancona
	April 9, 2018	Perna Paolo	Ecologist, Biologist. Practitioner on issues related to environmental quality and biodiversity. Consultant of Marche Region for the Regional Ecological Network; consultant of Monte Conero Natural Park for management plan and special focus on interaction between natural areas and peri-urban areas of the city of Ancona.	Italy Marche Region

	March 9, 2018	Salvi Daniele	Politician. Regional Council. Legislative Assembly of Marche Region.	Italy Marche Region
	April 10, 2018	Sepe Marichela	Architect and Urban Planner. Researcher, University of Naples Federico II. Scientific responsible of the Public Space Unit of the National Institute of Urbanism (INU)	Italy
	April 6, 2018	Voghera Angioletta	Architect and Urban Planner. Associate Professor, Polytechnic University of Turin. Scientific responsible of the Landscape Unit of the National Institute of Urbanism (INU)	Italy
	April 3, 2018	Zagari Franco	Architect. Practitioner and Academic, specialist on the ELC, Italian contributor to the definition of the ELC in 2000, together with Riccardo Priore and Roberto Gambino.	Italy
	March 20, 2018	Zanchini Edoardo	Vice-President of Legambiente Association (National League for the Environment)	Italy
	May 22, 2018	Pedroli Bas	Ex-President of UNISCAPE <i>European Network of Universities for the implementation of the European Landscape Convention</i> Associate Professor. Land Use Planning Group, Wageningen University & Research	Netherlands



## France:

List of interviews conducted in WP1

Nr.	Date of interview	Name of interviewee	Organization/Role	Country
1	October, 13 2017	Baptiste Redon	Public institution of inter-communal cooperation (EPCI) - Urban community of Grand Reims - Sustainable development service	France (Reims)
2	October, 2017	Eric Nowak	Economic agency "Alliance Sens et Economie" - project of Micro Town 112 (former military base 112)	France (Paris)
3	October, 2017 April, 05, 2018	Jérémy Chobriat	Deputy of Loivre municipality - project of a community garden	France (Loivre)
4	March, 21 2018	Jean-Pierre Desplanques	Mayor of Brimont municipality - project of TerraLab (former base 112)	France (Brimont)
5	March, 29 2018	Jean-Pierre Paris	Driver and Departmental committee of hunting, wild fauna and member of Nature Environment France (project) - project to enlarge the departmental road D951	France (Epernay)
6	April, 05 2018	Benoit Collard / Julie Portejoie	Pilot committee and coordination of Symbiose	France (Reims)
7	March, 14 2018	Gaël Ponsardin	Manager of an experimental farm - project of TerraLab (former base 112)	France (Béthény)
8	April, 5 2018	Jean-Marc Dall'Aglia	Economic operator of energy (EDF) - Project Manager - project of wind turbines park	France (La Défense)

9	March, 21 2018	Isabel Da Silva	Local reporter at Union - project to enlarge the departmental road D951	France (Reims)
10	April, 11 2018	Philippe Wattier	Development Council of urban community Grand Reims	France (Reims)
11	April, 16 2018	Christophe Legand and hierarchy (2 people: Mr. Laroche)	Technical and financial project, Direction of departmental roads - project to enlarge the departmental road D951	France (Châlons-en-Champagne)
12	April, 06 2018	Delphine Pinçon	Public institution of inter-communal cooperation (EPCI) - Urban community of Grand Reims - Planning service	France (Reims)
13	March, 18 2018	Marc Mocata	Association of drivers (plaint) - project to enlarge the departmental road D951	France (Reims)
14	March, 22 2018	Bertrand Rigal	Public institution of inter-communal cooperation (EPCI) - Urban community of Grand Reims - Economic Directorate	France (Reims)
15	April, 10 2018	Teddy Ducrot	Training league (communication, partnership leader) - project of community gardens	France (Reims)
16	April, 12 2018	Vincent Taillefert	Mayor of Saint-Imoges - project to enlarge the departmental road D951	France (Saint-Imoges)
17	April, 12 2018	Hamid Abdessamad	Director of Croix Rouge neighborhood house - project of community gardens	France (Reims)
18	April, 19 2018	Christian Bruyen	President of departmental council - project to enlarge the departmental road D951	France (Châlons-en-Champagne)

19	April, 18 2018	Vincent Bochu	Economic group TerraSolis - project of TerraLab (former military base 112)	France (Châlons-en-Champagne)
20	April, 20 2018	Julien Transy	Ministry of Ecological and Solidarity Transition - Land-scape Project Manager	France (La Défense)
21	April, 24 2018	Olaf Holm	Director of Regional Natural Park Montagne de Reims - project to enlarge the departmental road D951	France (Reims)
22	April, 24 2018	Christian Dupont	Director of town planning agency (AUDRR) - Development and prospective service	France (Reims)
23	April, 25 2018	Vincent Piveteau	Director of Superior National School of Landscape in Versailles, and researcher	France (Versailles)

## Croatia

Nr.	Date	Name	Organization/Role	Country
	April 23, 2018	Mirna Meštrović	Architect. Expert on spatial and urban planning, and landscape architecture of country-style villas and related urban development. Current employment at City of Zagreb, Office for EU Programmes and Projects.	Croatia Zagreb Region
	April 25, 2018	Bojan Linardić	Architect. Specialist in strategic decision making, planning policies and urban development. Current employment at City Office for the Strategic Planning and Development of the City.	Croatia Zagreb Region
	April 26, 2018	Hrvoje Carić	Degree in Economics and Environmental sciences. Expert on environmental protection, carrying capacity and nature conservation, risk assessment and resource management. Current employment at Institute for tourism.	Croatia Zagreb Region

## Appendix 3

### Interview guideline for WP1

Smart U Green is a research project that investigates the transformation of the urban landscape in different regions of Europe, and the potential conflicts that might arise due to these changes. For example, some changes are desirable, such as greener areas in the urban landscape. Other changes are inevitable, such as the change in consumer behavior which affects down-town shopping areas. These urban developments affect several stakeholders who might have different interests, and consequently changing the urban landscape might result in conflicts.

We are also particularly interested in the decision-making process of the landscape planning in your region/Country, and which stakeholders that are involved in this process.

#### 1) Introduction.

- A. What is your professional involvement with respect to the quality of urban landscape?
- B. Do you consider yourself as a generalist or a specialist?

#### 2) This question is about recent issues and developments in the governance of urban landscape quality.

- A. What are the compelling issues in your country or region related to preserving and improving urban landscape quality?
- B. How are the issues addressed? What are recent regulatory and policy developments?
- C. What are the main underlying ideas (paradigms) in the governance of urban landscape quality?

#### 3) This is a question about decision-making procedure.

- A. Who are involved in the governance of urban landscape quality?
- B. Are non-governmental actors involved, formally or informally? If so, how does the process of selection look like?

#### 4) This question is about stakeholder and citizen participation.

- A. Is there participation by local actors and citizens in the governance of the urban landscape quality? To what extent are (bottom-up) initiatives, by citizens or local entrepreneurs, encouraged?
- B. In your opinion, is local knowledge seriously considered in the decision-making processes?
- C. In your opinion, what is the value of citizen participation and bottom-up initiatives for the governance of urban landscape quality? (value can also be negative!)

5) This question is about the European Landscape Convention (ELC). This is an international treaty issued by the European Union which aims at the protection, the management and the planning of both urban and rural landscapes. It also encourages cooperation between member nations, as well as between stakeholders on local levels, on landscape issues. We are interested whether the ELC has been considered in your region.

- A. Are you aware of the ELC? If not, continue with Q6.
- B. How are you involved in the ELC?
- B. What actions were taken for its implementation, and who (which stakeholders) were involved?

- D. The ELC stresses the need for an integrated approach. What factors (cultural, social, historical) are taken into account?
- E. Art. 5 ELC states that each party is free to identify their own landscape. How is this done?

6) This is about where we can find more information.

- A. What articles / documents would you recommend for us to study in order to further answer our questions?
- B. Who are relevant persons for us to talk to? Please give two names of people with contrasting and innovative views.

7) Would you like to be involved in the Smart-U-Green project, especially where we will discuss governance options for the greening of urban landscapes? (refer to upcoming website and dialogue sessions).

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