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European spatial planning and landscape, No 72
Aménagement du territoire européen et paysage, n° 72



**Second meeting of the Workshops
for the Implementation
of the European Landscape Convention**

**Deuxième réunion des Ateliers
pour la mise en œuvre
de la Convention européenne du paysage**

Council of Europe, Strasbourg, 27-28 November 2003
Conseil de l'Europe, Strasbourg, 27-28 novembre 2003



COUNCIL OF EUROPE CONSEIL DE L'EUROPE

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from/de Nerkin Getashen, Armenia/Arménie

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Opening of the meeting/ Ouverture de la réunion

Mr Enrico Buergi, Chair of the Conference of the Contracting and Signatory States to the Convention, welcomed the participants.

He said he was very pleased that the European Landscape Convention had now been ratified by eleven Council of Europe member states and would therefore come into effect on 1 March 2004 in accordance with Article 13, paragraph 2, of the Convention. He urged countries that had not yet done so to sign or ratify the text so that all of Europe's landscapes could be taken into consideration. The three themes to be discussed during the "2003 Landscape Workshops" – Integration of landscapes in international policies and programmes and transfrontier landscapes; Landscapes and individual and social well-being; Spatial planning and landscape – should help explain and illustrate certain provisions of the Landscape Convention. He hoped that this process of interpreting the Convention, which had begun in 2001, could be carried forward in future.

Ms Catherine Roth, Director of Culture and Cultural and Natural Heritage, then also welcomed the participants. She underlined the visionary yet pragmatic approach of the European Landscape Convention, as well as the Council of Europe's pioneering role. She explained how landscape contributed to the well-being of Europe's citizens and stressed that the Convention was innovatory.

Ms Maguelonne Déjeant-Pons, Head of the Spatial Planning and Landscape Division presented the programme of the meeting of the Workshops.

M. Enrico Buergi, Président de la Conférence des Etats contractants et signataires de la Convention souhaite la bienvenue aux participants.

Il exprime sa grande satisfaction de voir que la convention européenne du paysage a désormais été ratifiée par onze Etats membres du Conseil de l'Europe et qu'elle entrera dès lors en vigueur le 1^{er} mars 2004, en vertu des dispositions de l'article 13, paragraphe 2, de la Convention. Il encourage les Etats qui ne l'ont pas encore fait à signer ou ratifier selon le cas la Convention afin que l'ensemble des paysages européens puisse être pris en considération. Les trois thèmes traités au cours de ces «Ateliers paysage 2003» – Intégration du paysage dans les politiques et programmes internationaux et les paysages transfrontaliers; Paysage et bien-être individuel et social; Paysage et aménagement du territoire – doivent permettre d'explicitier et d'illustrer certaines dispositions de la Convention du paysage. Il exprime enfin le souhait que ce processus d'interprétation de la Convention entamé en 2001 puisse se poursuivre à l'avenir.

M^{me} Catherine Roth, Directeur de la Culture et du Patrimoine culturel et nature souhaite à son tour la bienvenue aux participants. Elle souligne le caractère visionnaire et pragmatique de la Convention européenne du paysage, le rôle du Conseil de l'Europe comme traceur de chemins. Elle énonce en quoi le paysage contribue au bien-être des Européens et souligne que la Convention est innovante.

M^{me} Maguelonne Déjeant-Pons, Chef de la Division de l'Aménagement du territoire et du paysage présente le programme de la réunion des Ateliers.



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WORKSHOP 1/ ATELIER 1

**Integration of landscapes in
international policies and programmes
and transfrontier landscapes/**

**Intégration du paysage dans
les politiques et programmes internationaux
et les paysages transfrontaliers**

Présentation des textes du Conseil de l'Europe concernant le paysage

Maguelonne DÉJEANT-PONS,

Chef de la Division de l'aménagement du territoire et du paysage,

Conseil de l'Europe

Sonja EKHOLM,

Finlande

Je souhaite la bienvenue aux participants et veux vous exprimer la joie que j'ai à voir autant de compétences et d'engagement en faveur du thème 'Paysage' rassemblés dans cette salle.

Un document intitulé «Recueil de textes fondamentaux du Conseil de l'Europe concernant le paysage» (T-FLOR 3 (2003) 3) a été distribué à cette réunion des Ateliers.

Il trouve son origine dans une demande formulée par M. Perez Lazaro, représentant de l'Espagne qui voulait voir rassemblés la plupart des textes du Conseil de l'Europe concernant le paysage en liaison avec le patrimoine naturel et culturel, l'environnement et l'aménagement du territoire en un seul document. Celui-ci a été constitué avec l'aide précieuse de M^{lle} Sonja Ekholm, de la Finlande, à l'époque stagiaire au Conseil de l'Europe.

Il est possible de dire que ce recueil constitue une invitation au voyage, un voyage au pays des valeurs et du patrimoine, patrimoine paysager, patrimoine naturel et patrimoine culturel.

Les textes convergent vers une reconnaissance, une prise en compte et une défense du patrimoine paysager qui nous entoure et par là-même vers une reconnaissance de la dimension territoriale des droits de l'homme.

Sonja Ekholm expliquera quels sont la structure et le contenu du recueil et je mentionnerai quelle est la logique des textes insérés.

Les Conventions tout d'abord

Il convient de rappeler que la Convention européenne du paysage se réfère dans son préambule à de nombreuses autres conventions et notamment à ses trois conventions sœurs, les conventions de Berne, de La Valette et de Grenade, sur lesquelles elle prend appui et qu'elle complète.

Le Préambule de la Convention européenne du paysage indique ainsi:

Les Etats signataires déclarent

avoir à l'esprit les textes juridiques existant au niveau international dans les domaines de la protection et de la gestion du patrimoine naturel et culturel, de l'aménagement du territoire, [...], notamment la Convention relative à la conservation de la vie sauvage et du milieu naturel de l'Europe (Berne, 19 septembre 1979), la Convention pour la sauvegarde du patrimoine architectural de l'Europe (Grenade, 3 octobre 1985), la Convention européenne pour la protection du patrimoine archéologique (révisée) (La Valette, 16 janvier 1992) [...].

Certains passages clés de ces Conventions méritent d'être rappelés:

- la Convention de Berne reconnaît notamment que
la flore et la faune sauvages constituent un patrimoine naturel d'une valeur esthétique, scientifique, culturelle, récréative, économique et intrinsèque, qu'il importe de préserver et de transmettre aux générations futures;
- la Convention de Grenade rappelle qu'
il importe de transmettre un système de références culturelles aux générations futures, d'améliorer le cadre de vie urbain et rural et de favoriser par la même occasion le développement économique, social et culturel des Etats et des régions.
Les Parties s'engagent notamment à éviter que des biens protégés ne soient défigurés, dégradés ou démolis;
- la Convention de Malte enfin souligne l'importance de protéger le patrimoine archéologique en tant que source de la mémoire collective européenne et comme instrument d'étude historique et scientifique.

Nous sommes ainsi face à une mosaïque de textes juridiques qui se complètent avec justesse.

Pourquoi mentionner alors dans le document d'autres conventions – convention d'ailleurs non encore entrées en vigueur –, telles que la Convention de Lugano sur la responsabilité civile des dommages résultant d'activités dangereuses pour l'environnement et la Convention de Strasbourg sur la protection de l'environnement par le droit pénal ?

Parce que ces deux conventions contiennent aussi des dispositions importantes pour le paysage et il serait en cela souhaitable qu'elles soient appliquées.

La première rappelle que

l'un des objectifs du Conseil de l'Europe est de contribuer à la qualité de vie des personnes, notamment en promouvant un environnement naturel, sain et agréable.

Elle définit par ailleurs l'environnement comme comprenant:

- les ressources naturelles abiotiques et biotiques, telles que l'air, l'eau, le sol, la faune et la flore, et l'interaction entre les mêmes facteurs;
- les biens qui composent l'héritage culturel; et
- les aspects caractéristiques du paysage.

La Convention sur la protection de l'environnement par le droit pénal considère qu'

il est nécessaire de protéger la vie et la santé des êtres humains, le milieu naturel ainsi que la flore et la faune par tous les moyens possibles.

D'autres textes sont repris

Ils expriment l'intérêt, tant de l'Assemblée parlementaire et du Congrès des pouvoirs locaux et régionaux du Conseil de l'Europe que du Comité des Ministres, pour un développement territorial durable attentif aux valeurs naturelles et culturelles et aux valeurs paysagères. Il convient de souligner tout particulièrement l'importance fondamentale de la Recommandation (84) 2 du Comité des Ministres relative à la Charte européenne de l'aménagement du territoire et de la Recommandation (2002) 1 du Comité des Ministres sur les Principes directeurs pour le développement territorial du Continent européen, dont il sera fait état au cours de ces Ateliers.

Les Principes directeurs pour le développement territorial durable du continent européen représentent pour les Etats membres du Conseil de l'Europe, y compris leurs régions et communes, un document de référence ainsi qu'un cadre flexible et orienté vers l'avenir, au service de la coopération. Ils constituent une vision ou une conception directrice pour le développement durable du continent européen. La 13^e Session de la Conférence européenne des ministres responsables de l'aménagement du territoire, tenue à Ljubljana les 16-17 septembre 2003, a marqué une étape fondamentale dans la mise en œuvre effective des stratégies et perspectives pour le développement territorial durable du continent européen. La Déclaration de Ljubljana sur la dimension territoriale du développement durable présente ainsi une importance essentielle.

Enfin, la plupart des travaux

- précurseurs et souvent de grande valeur – menés tout au long de ces dernières années par le Conseil de l'Europe sont repris et les références des publications mentionnées.

D'autres travaux plus récents n'apparaissent pas dans le document et je me réfère au Guide européen d'observation du patrimoine rural – CEMAT présenté tout récemment à la 13^e Session de la Conférence européenne des ministres responsables de l'aménagement du territoire (CEMAT) tenue à Ljubljana en septembre dernier¹.

1. Document 13 CEMAT (2003) 4.

Quel est dès lors l'enjeu de la nouvelle Convention européenne du paysage?

Adoptée par le Comité des Ministres du Conseil de l'Europe, le 19 juillet 2000, la Convention européenne du paysage a été ouverte à la signature à Florence, en Italie, le 20 octobre 2000¹. Elle a pour objet de promouvoir la protection, la gestion et l'aménagement des paysages européens, et d'organiser la coopération européenne dans ce domaine. Elle représente aujourd'hui le premier traité international exclusivement consacré à la protection, à la gestion et à la mise en valeur du paysage européen. «Paysage» désigne une partie de territoire telle que perçue par les populations, dont le caractère résulte de l'action de facteurs naturels et/ou humains et de leurs interrelations.

Son champ d'application est très étendu: la Convention s'applique à tout le territoire des Parties et porte sur les espaces naturels, urbains et périurbains, qu'ils soient terrestres, aquatiques ou maritimes. Elle ne concerne donc pas uniquement les paysages remarquables, mais aussi les paysages ordinaires du quotidien et les espaces dégradés. Le paysage est donc désormais reconnu indépendamment de sa valeur exceptionnelle car toutes les formes de paysages conditionnent la qualité du cadre de vie des citoyens et méritent d'être prises en compte dans les politiques paysagères. De nombreuses zones rurales et périurbaines notamment, connaissent des transformations profondes et doivent faire l'objet d'une plus grande attention de la part des autorités et du public.

Etant donné l'étendue de ce champ d'application, le rôle actif des citoyens par rapport à la perception et à l'évaluation des paysages constitue un autre point essentiel de la Convention. La sensibilisation représente donc une question clé afin que les citoyens participent au processus décisionnel affectant la dimension paysagère du territoire dans lequel ils vivent.

En adhérant aux principes et aux objectifs de la Convention, les Parties contractantes s'engagent à protéger, gérer et/ou aménager leurs paysages par l'adoption de toute une série de mesures nationales, générales et particulières, et ce, dans le respect du principe de subsidiarité. Dans ce cadre, elles s'engagent à favoriser la participation des populations et des pouvoirs publics – qui leur sont les plus proches – aux processus décisionnels affectant la dimension paysagère de leurs territoires.

Les Parties contractantes s'engagent à mettre en œuvre quatre mesures générales au niveau national:

1. Sites de la Convention européenne du paysage :
<<http://www.coe.int/ConventionEuropéenneduPaysage>>
<<http://www.coe.int/EuropeanLandscapeConvention>>

- la reconnaissance juridique du paysage en tant que composante essentielle du cadre de vie des populations, expression de la diversité de leur patrimoine commun culturel et naturel, et fondement de leur identité;
- la définition et la mise en œuvre des politiques du paysage visant la protection, la gestion et l'aménagement des paysages;
- des procédures de participation du public, des autorités locales et régionales et des acteurs concernés par la conception et la réalisation des politiques du paysage; et
- l'intégration du paysage dans les politiques d'aménagement du territoire, d'urbanisme et dans les politiques culturelle, environnementale, agricole, sociale et économique, ainsi que dans les autres politiques pouvant avoir un effet direct ou indirect sur le paysage.

Les Parties contractantes s'engagent par ailleurs à mettre en œuvre cinq mesures particulières au niveau national:

- la sensibilisation: il s'agit d'accroître la sensibilisation de la société civile, des organisations privées et des autorités publiques à la valeur des paysages, à leur rôle et à leur transformation;
- la formation et l'éducation: il convient de promouvoir la formation de spécialistes de la connaissance et de l'intervention sur les paysages, des programmes pluridisciplinaires de formation sur la politique, la protection, la gestion et l'aménagement du paysage, destinés aux professionnels du secteur privé et public et aux associations concernées, et des enseignements scolaires et universitaires abondant, dans les disciplines intéressées, les valeurs attachées au paysage et les questions relatives à sa protection, à sa gestion et à son aménagement;
- l'identification et la qualification: il y a lieu de mobiliser les acteurs concernés en vue d'une meilleure connaissance des paysages, et de guider les travaux d'identification et de qualification des paysages par des échanges d'expériences et de méthodologies, organisés entre les Parties à l'échelle européenne;
- la formulation d'objectifs de qualité paysagère: il s'agit de formuler des objectifs de qualité paysagère pour les paysages identifiés et qualifiés, après consultation du public;
- la mise en œuvre des politiques du paysage: il convient de mettre en place des moyens d'intervention visant la protection, la gestion et/ou l'aménagement des paysages.

Les Parties contractantes s'engagent aussi à coopérer au niveau international sur un plan européen lors de la prise en compte de la dimension paysagère dans les politiques et programmes internationaux, et à recommander, le cas échéant, que les considérations concernant le paysage y soient incorporées. Elles s'engagent ainsi à coopérer en matière d'assistance technique et scientifique, d'échanges de spécialistes du

paysage pour l'information et la formation, et à échanger des informations sur toutes les questions visées par la Convention.

Les paysages transfrontaliers font l'objet d'une disposition spécifique: les Parties contractantes s'engagent à encourager la coopération transfrontalière au niveau local et régional et, au besoin, à élaborer et mettre en œuvre des programmes communs de mise en valeur du paysage.

On peut dire que le paysage était partout de manière sous-jacente dans les divers instruments que j'ai mentionnés, mais qu'il n'était en même temps nulle part. Le mérite de la Convention européenne du paysage est de reconnaître la place fondamentale qu'occupe désormais le paysage dans nos sociétés. Le Préambule de la Convention souligne le souhait des Etats d'instituer un «instrument nouveau» consacré exclusivement à la protection, à la gestion et à l'aménagement de tous les paysages européens. Première convention du développement durable, la Convention européenne du paysage réconcilie les quatre piliers du développement durable en cherchant à atteindre un «équilibre harmonieux» entre les besoins sociaux, l'économie, l'environnement et la culture. Elle participe ainsi à l'intérêt général en contribuant à l'épanouissement des êtres humains et à la consolidation de l'identité européenne.

La prochaine entrée en vigueur de la Convention, le 1er mars 2004, est un signe de l'intérêt qu'il convient de porter à cette nouvelle « intelligence territoriale » qui émerge progressivement.

Sonja EKHOLM,
Finland

The European Landscape Convention

The Compendium includes all basic Council of Europe texts concerning landscape. It is divided into different parts. First, there is a list of the Conventions concerning the natural and cultural heritage and the Landscape convention. Then follows a list of texts adopted by the Committee of Ministers, the Parliamentary Assembly and the Congress of Local and Regional Authorities of the Council of Europe. These include recommendations, resolutions and opinions. Last there is a list of publications by the Council of Europe concerning landscape. I would like to comment on some of the most important texts included in the Compendium.

Conventions

First, the different conventions in the Compendium clearly demonstrate the Council of Europe's commitment to landscape. The following conventions should at least be mentioned:

- the Convention for the Protection of the Architectural Heritage of Europe, which gives a legal expression to a heritage approach based on conservation;
- the European Convention on the Protection of the Archaeological Heritage (revised), which deals also with conflicting regional interests in protection and conservation of archaeological heritage;
- the European Landscape Convention, which is the first European convention wholly devoted to the landscape in its entirety. It introduces the tools for management and protection of landscapes. It is a step forward from the previous conventions into new territory by expanding the concern of earlier conventions, which dealt more with parts of heritage, to a concern of the whole landscape. I could continue to explain all the new aspects of the Convention, but I assume all of you are already well acquainted with the issue.

The Committee of Ministers

So, the Council of Europe has been actively involved in the protection of the environment and in promoting sustainable development. This is also seen in the Recommendation (2002) 1 of the Committee of Ministers on the Guiding principles for sustainable spatial development of the European continent. The text was previously adopted by the European Conference of Ministers responsible for Regional Planning (CEMAT). The Guiding Principles is the most recent document of the Council of Europe concerning spatial planning. It seeks to protect the quality of life and well-being by taking into account landscape, cultural and natural values.

The Parliamentary Assembly

The Resolution 1150 (1998), the Recommendation 1393 (1998) and the Opinion 220 (2000) show that the Parliamentary Assembly has been actively involved in initiating and developing the Convention and these texts also express the political support the Parliamentary Assembly has given to it.

The Congress of Local and Regional Authorities of Europe

In 1994 the Congress of Local and Regional Authorities of the Council of Europe set up an ad hoc working group with the purpose of preparing a draft convention. This wish was stated in Resolution 256 (1994) of the Congress of Local and Regional Authorities of the Council of Europe at the third Conference of Mediterranean Regions, where it calls for the drawing up, “on the basis of the Mediterranean Landscape Charter adopted in Seville, a framework convention on the management and protection of the natural and cultural landscape of Europe as a whole”. In Resolution 53 (1997), the Congress adopted a preliminary draft European Landscape Convention. In Recommendation 40 (1998), the Congress asked the Council of

Europe's Committee of Ministers to examine the draft European Landscape Convention with a view to adopting it as a Council of Europe Convention. In July 2000, the Committee of Ministers adopted the text of the Convention and decided that it would be opened for signature on 20 October 2000.

These were some comments on the texts that are in the Compendium. The Compendium can also be found on the internet with links to the text where this was possible to achieve. Thank you.

Brief presentation of the European Outline Convention between Territorial Communities or Authorities (Madrid Convention)

Nino CHITASHVILI

*Department of Local Government and Transfrontier Co-operation, DG I,
Council of Europe*

A brief description of the Convention's main features

The Council of Europe has developed legal instruments to establish legal framework for supporting and strengthening transfrontier co-operation as early as in 1980 by adopting its European Outline Convention on Transfrontier Co-operation between Territorial Communities or Authorities. The Convention provides a general framework for co-operation, based on the principle that the contracting parties shall “facilitate and foster transfrontier co-operation between territorial communities or authorities”. They shall “endeavour to promote the conclusion of any agreement and arrangements that may prove necessary for this purpose with due regard to the different constitutional provisions of each party”.

As it appears from its very title, the Convention is an “outline” Convention. This adjective has no particular legal meaning except that it makes explicit what the Convention is intended for: it is intended to provide a framework of principles for the States to implement in the interest and for the benefit of their territorial communities. The states ratifying the Outline Convention undertake to seek ways of eliminating obstacles to transfrontier co-operation and to grant authorities engaging in international co-operation the facilities they would enjoy in a purely national context.

The experience shows that transfrontier co-operation proceeds in stages: the first motivation is often to “save money” by doing things together, for instance: running a sewage plant or building a swimming pool; then the communities realise that the management is complex and requires a body where representatives of the communities concerned can meet, discuss and decide; this leads to realising that many more issues are interrelated and require a co-ordinated approach: the use of land, the establishment of a regional development plan, employment policies, for which the involvement of more bodies and entities is necessary (chambers of commerce, trade associations, schools, various associations, etc.).

In the additional protocol to the Outline Convention of 1985, the Contracting Parties “recognise and respect the right for the territorial communities or authorities to sign in the common fields of competence, transfrontier co-operation agreements with the territorial communities or authorities of other States”. Such an agreement may set up

a Transfrontier co-operation body that shall be subject to the law of the country in which it shall have its seat.

In this way, not only the co-operation between local communities and authorities is officially recognised, but new institutions – the so called Euroregions – may be set up, with or without legal personality.

In some countries, transfrontier co-operation bodies cannot have a legal personality and are established informally.

The second protocol to the Outline Convention of 1989 moves a step further in the sense that the same co-operation is open also to territorial communities and authorities that do not have a common frontier but are far apart yet willing to co-operate. The so called inter-territorial co-operation, as distinct from the transfrontier co-operation, is a new feature of the expanding set of tools open to the States that have signed the Outline Convention.

What are the achievements of these sustained efforts in terms of their contribution to democratic stability? In broad political terms, the accelerated pace of ratifications of the Outline Convention since 1989 and the setting up of Euroregions in central and eastern Europe have shown the opportunities for solving common problems in trans-frontier areas or landscapes. To date 29 member states are Contracting Parties.

Furthermore, the Convention has brought to the attention of central and local governments the problems faced by local and regional authorities and issues of real concern for the local authorities with an indication of the concrete steps to be taken in order to overcome them.

Euroregions and other forms of transfrontier co-operation are set up with different aims and goals. Some are set up to implement one specific objective such as the protection of a Transfrontier lake. Others have multiple objectives such as the promotion of social, economic and cultural co-operation.

Perhaps the co-operation practices in some Euroregions in Central or South Eastern Europe could be noteworthy for this workshop on the implementation of the Landscape Convention. Such examples in South Eastern Europe are the Danube-Drava-Sava Euroregion in the border areas of Croatia, Hungary, Bosnia and Herzegovina and Serbia and Danube-Kis-Moris-Tista in the border areas of Hungary, Romania and Serbia where local authorities co-operate in the fields of infrastructure development, tourism, and environmental protection especially of the river Danube. The relatively new Euroregion in the border areas of Greece, Macedonia and Albania called Prespa-Ohrid will also work jointly on the environmental problems of the two lakes. Euroregions between the Kaliningrad region, Poland and Lithuania such as Baltica and Nemen jointly deal with the environmental problems of the Baltic Sea.

In 2002 the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe adopted the Recommendation (2002) 3 on Transfrontier co-operation in civil protection and mutual assistance in the event of natural and technological disasters occurring in frontier areas.

With this Recommendation the Committee recommends involving territorial communities or authorities, if they have the appropriate devolved powers under domestic law, in planning and implementing of a number of general and prevention measures such as organising of joint exercises between the neighbouring cross border organisations and/or local authorities in order to check that technical resources and equipment used are mutually compatible, and that the relevant personnel have received the necessary linguistic and professional training.

As part of their general policy for prevention and protection against major natural and technological disasters, all countries should draw up special action plans to prevent, combat effectively and limit the consequences of natural and technological disasters affecting their frontier regions.

These action plans should take specific account of the consequences of such disasters for the inhabitants and dwellings on the other side of the frontier. They should therefore be drawn up with the help of the relevant authorities in the neighbouring state.

Our Committee of Experts on Transfrontier Co-operation which is an intergovernmental Body of the Council of Europe is trying to develop recommendations to the member states and to establish the best-practice examples of co-operation in the fields of teaching and learning of neighbour's language, transfrontier mobility of local staff, measures to be taken in order to alleviate the impact of EU enlargement on transfrontier co-operation.

In conclusion, the transfrontier co-operation between local authorities and communities is an effective tool for landscape protection and management in border areas of Europe.

The Observatory for the implementation of the European Landscape Convention of the Congress of Local and Regional Authorities of the Council of Europe

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Foreword

This document concerns the activities of the “Observatory on the implementation of the European Landscape Convention” (hereafter OELC). After the Council of Europe’s Congress of Local and Regional Authorities (hereafter Congress) had granted its patronage in February 2002, the OELC was officially presented on the occasion of the second Conference of Contracting and Signatory States of the Convention, held in Strasbourg on 28 and 29 November 2002.

The OELC was originally intended to concentrate on the Cilento e Vallo de Diano National Park (Italy) within the system of European protected areas. However, the Congress subsequently suggested gradually extending its scope to cover all the European regions. Such an extension would be justified because regional authorities have institutional responsibilities in terms of landscape development and frequently have to take urgent action to deal with landscapes located outside the protected areas.

The OELC’s initial aim is therefore to provide for co-ordination, assistance and technical and scientific support for the regions in implementing their specific institutional responsibilities as regards the landscape, with reference to the principles set out in the European Landscape Convention (hereafter ELC).

The Campania Region has accordingly set up a “Technical Co-ordinating Group”, which is currently made up of the following experts: Prof. Roberto Gambino (CED-PPN, co-ordinator), Dr Riccardo Priore (Secretariat of the Council of Europe), Mr Antonio Episcopo, lawyer (director of the Political Sector of the Campania regional authority), Mr Domenico Nicoletti, architect (director of the Cilento e Vallo di Diano National Park), Mr Giuseppe Ansani, architect, Prof. Paolo Castelnovi, Mrs Federica Thomasset, architect, and Mr Agostino Di Lorenzo, architect (director of the Protected Areas Department, Campania Region). This group helped to launch the initiative and was mandated to prepare the present preliminary draft.

The aims of the Observatory

The European Landscape Convention (hereafter ELC) requires governmental authorities at all levels to adopt effective measures to protect and enhance the landscape, which is an essential component of people's surroundings, an expression of the diversity of their shared cultural and natural heritage, and one of the foundations of their identity. Far from being confined to conserving specific panoramas of exceptional natural beauty or selected highly prestigious sites, active protection of the landscape heritage can be decisive in identifying new models of sustainable development compatible with nature and with the human memories, cultural traditions and identity values which various regional phenomena have established and enriched over the centuries.

The Convention requires Contracting States in particular (Article 5):

- a. to recognise landscapes in law as an essential component of people's surroundings, an expression of the diversity of their shared cultural and natural heritage, and a foundation of their identity;
- b. to establish and implement landscape policies aimed at landscape protection, management and planning through the adoption of (...) specific measures (...);
- c. to establish procedures for the participation of the general public, local and regional authorities, and other parties with an interest in the definition and implementation of the landscape policies mentioned in paragraph b above;
- d. to integrate landscape into its regional and town planning policies and its cultural, environmental, agricultural, social and economic policies, as well as any other policies with possible direct or indirect impact on landscape.

The Convention accordingly lists the specific measures to be adopted by Signatory States to the ELC with a view to protecting, managing and planning landscapes (Article 6 of the ELC), by increasing awareness "among the civil society, private organisations, and public authorities" of the value and role of landscapes, promoting training and educational activities at various levels in the areas of landscape appraisal and operations, improving knowledge of landscapes and setting landscape quality objectives after public consultation.

Article 8 of the ELC further requires the Parties to co-operate in order to render mutual assistance on the technical and scientific fronts, promote the exchange of landscape specialists and exchange information on all operational, political and institutional issues arising out the application of the provisions of the Convention.

Having regard to all these requirements, the primary aim of the OELC is to help local and regional authorities directly concerned with spatial planning and conservation activities involving the landscape, to face up to the task of implementing the provisions of the ELC in their specific areas, within the limits of their particular powers.

The Observatory will thus provide the regions and municipal authorities with technical and scientific support tailored to their territories, accessed through conveniently located regional offices.

The OELC will eventually become a centre for in-depth research, link-up and interaction for territorial authority departments responsible for landscapes. To this end the Observatory is striving to improve the decision-making capacities of local and regional authorities in their respective areas of responsibility, in tandem with the State authorities, particularly in terms of planning and authorisation procedures. In conducting its support activities the OELC will constantly bear in mind the need to heighten the citizens' and the relevant administrative officers' awareness of the landscape, as stipulated in the ELC.

The Observatory's field of activity

Article 1 of the ELC defines the landscape as “an area, as perceived by people, whose character is the result of the action and interaction of natural and/or human factors”. Article 2 specifies that this definition “covers natural, rural, urban and peri-urban areas”, “includes land, inland water and marine areas”, and also “concerns landscapes that might be considered outstanding as well as everyday or degraded landscapes”.

In accordance with this conception, the Observatory's field of activity must cover the whole territory of the signatory countries. This requirement does not merely involve formal compliance with one of the cornerstones of the Convention, but is also necessitated by the growing realisation that such total geographical coverage could and should bring about the quantum leap so sorely needed in landscape policies: we must identify the local and regional causes of the critical, degraded situation of the landscape heritage and pinpoint the most effective solutions to all the problems noted.

At the same time the OELC will also take account of past and present experience in landscape policies in the relevant parts of the protected areas. The latter are in fact extremely important laboratories for implementing landscape policies, owing to the particular wealth, diversity and importance of their natural and cultural resources and landscape environments, the significance of the relations between human and natural dynamics in situ and, from the administrative angle, the fact that protected areas express institutional subjects and mechanisms which could potentially guide our overall landscape policies, the vital transition points into the overall issues of managing and protecting landscapes in Europe.

If we recognise the landscape as the expression of the diversity of their shared cultural and natural heritage and a foundation of their identity (Article 5 ELC), and apply this recognition to the unity of the natural and historical features of landscapes on both shores of the Mediterranean, we might appropriately aspire to a future enlargement of

the field of activities of the OELC to the Euro-Mediterranean area, lining up with other initiatives and programmes already under way there.

The Observatory's specific activities

In pursuing the above-mentioned objectives the Observatory will concentrate on scientific support activities, to include preparation of documentation on identification, evaluation, quality objective-setting procedures and decisions on action to protect, manage and plan landscapes. The scientific support will involve research, data processing and updating, as well as devising scientific co-operation programmes aimed at comparing, assessing and disseminating the results obtained. Such activities will be combined with programmes and proposals geared to informing, training and educating the operators concerned.

By conducting the above-mentioned activities the Observatory is hoping to provide a practical contribution to the ELC activities in the following spheres:

- developing documentary holdings and a knowledge base as a facility for experimentation and comparison of technical and scientific know-how, methodology and interpretative frameworks, to be placed at the disposal of any public authorities interested in implementing the measures laid down in the ELC, particularly Article 6 of the Convention;
- providing technical and scientific support (in co-operation with the Congress) with an eye to co-ordinating the landscape activities conducted by the Council of Europe and other international organisations (primarily the EU) with the measures adopted by individual States, in tandem with local and regional authorities;
- conducting in-depth studies and making proposals with a view to actively contributing to the European co-operation provided for in Chapter III of the ELC, particularly with regard to transfrontier landscapes, in conjunction with the Congress and the competent committees of experts of the Council of Europe.

The Observatory could also monitor and publicise the activities connected with the Landscape award (Article 11 ELC).

The final phase in setting up the Observatory

As already pointed out, the Technical Co-ordinating Group responsible for launching the OELC was set up by the Campania Region and the Cilento e Vallo di Diano National Park, with technical and scientific support from the European Centre for Documentation on National Park Planning, Turin Polytechnic, under the auspices of the Congress. The Technical Group has been seeking support from the other Italian regions for the final phase in establishing the OELC.

The Group is therefore responsible for determining the direction to be taken by future activities, and will begin by organising a General Assembly of all partners and members and approving the Observatory's Statute. This text will define the component bodies of the Observatory (the Assembly, the Co-ordinating Group, the International Governing Body, the Technical Group and the Secretariat).

Once it is established the OELC will be open to other European local and regional authorities and any other institutions wishing to take advantage of the Observatory to help develop their own landscape activities, with reference to the principles set out in the ELC.

Learning from European transfrontier landscapes

Dirk WASCHER

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(based on a report in contribution to the European Landscape Convention, edited by

Dirk Wascher, Marta Perez-Soba & Marion Bogers)

Introduction

A large number of individual European countries have a long standing tradition in developing and implementing landscape-oriented conservation and planning schemes at the national and regional level. The outstanding cultural, aesthetic and ecological values of landscapes have long been addressed by painters, writers and geographers alike, contributing to what is still perceived as “cultural heritage”, “collective memory” or “national identity” in many European regions. In terms of public attention and legislative action, landscapes are likely to have taken an early lead when compared to nature conservation and biodiversity schemes. Environmental reports such as the Dobbris Assessment (Stanners & Bourdeau, 1995) have demonstrated that landscape protection is covering by far many more hectares of land throughout European countries than nature reserves or other categories. And in many countries, national parks – often associated with endangered species and special habitats – have actually been designated areas where landscape scenery and cultural heritage play a central role.

Although landscape is one of the few policy themes that bridge the gap between social, economic and environmental issues by means of holistic and integrative concepts, research and policy experts at the European level still consider it essentially to be merely a geo-science-oriented approach. Besides general thresholds hindering inter-disciplinary approaches (Tress et al., 2003) and the persistence of Cartesian philosophies at the policy and research level, landscapes do present a number of conceptual challenges in terms of commonly accepted definitions and policy objectives. The situation has fortunately started to change. After UNESCO began nominating and inscribing cultural landscapes on the World Heritage List in 1992 (UNESCO 1999, paragraph 39 (iii)), landscapes have also been explicitly addressed in the Pan-European Biological and Landscape Diversity Strategy (COE, UNEP & ECNC, 1995), and new research initiatives such as the expert network Landscape Europe (Pedroli *et al.* 2001) are in the process of developing agreed-upon international approaches for landscape assessment, monitoring and reporting. Most importantly, however, the European Landscape Convention is the first international treaty to be exclusively concerned with the protection, management and enhancement of European landscape. Applying to the Parties’ entire territory and covering natural, rural, urban and peri-urban areas,

the convention deals with ordinary or degraded landscapes as well as those that can be considered outstanding.

While a number of other policies require reliable and targeted information on the state and trends of European landscapes, it is especially the European Landscape Convention that requires Parties to carry out research and studies in order to identify landscapes and analyse their characteristics and the dynamics and pressures which affect them.

In order to explore practical approaches for management and conservation, but also to stimulate the co-operation between national experts, the Dutch Ministry for Agriculture decided to provide a contribution in kind on the practical implementation of the convention's Article 9 on Transfrontier Landscapes. According to this article, the Parties are asked to encourage transfrontier co-operation on local and regional level and, wherever necessary, prepare and implement joint landscape programmes. This project is meant as a contribution to Theme 2/2002 of the preparatory work for the coming into force of the European Landscape Convention: "Landscape identification, assessment and quality objectives, using cultural and natural resources".

As the development and implementation of European landscape policies is still in a rather early phase, much will depend on how attentive and thoughtful we treat the existing vast pool of national experiences and knowledge. It is hence our pleasure and duty to express our special appreciation towards the large number of national experts who have contributed to the compilation of case studies on European transfrontier landscapes and without whom this international report would not have been possible. May their findings and observations become useful references for the implementation of the European Landscape Convention.

Policy background

While several international policies suggest the need for reliable and targeted information on the state and trends of European landscapes, it is especially the European Landscape Convention (ELC) that requires Parties to carry out research and studies in order to identify landscapes and analyse their characteristics and the dynamics and pressures which affect them. The Explanatory Report of the ELC states:

Some countries have already performed nation-wide surveys of landscapes. This work has revealed the landscape distinctiveness of different areas, each with its own mixture of natural and man-made elements. Geographical information systems and modern techniques of computerised mapping, also at urban level, are used to show up landscape characteristics, such as the physical relief, the settlement pattern, the main land uses, economic activities, residential areas, the presence or absence of features such as hedgerows and terraces, important wildlife habitats and the heritage of past human activity (Paragraph C – Identification and evaluation).

Another important requirement is the need for transfrontier programmes. According to the Explanatory Report on Article 65 the parties are requested

to set up transfrontier programmes for the identification, evaluation, protection, management and planning of landscapes which straddle borders. In doing so, they are asked to rely as far as possible, in accordance with the subsidiarity principle defined by the European Charter of Local Self-Government, on local and regional authorities, and to use the implementation tools advocated in the European Outline Convention on Transfrontier Co-operation between Territorial Communities or Authorities in Europe of 21 May 1980 and its additional protocols.

Landscape assessment tools for policy implementation

Landscape character is an expression of the way in which the natural and cultural elements of terrestrial ecosystems combine to create unique places “with specific ecological, economic as well as social functions and values”. If the multiple functions and values of these landscape character types are reduced, disturbed or are getting out of balance, their overall sustainability is at stake: landscapes cease to provide support for biodiversity, against erosion or for recreational and economic services. In the light of “increasing landscape changes”, many national agencies have developed sophisticated landscape character assessment tools that are scientifically sound, region-specific and stakeholder-oriented – qualities that are considered as key issues for the future implementation of the EU policy and research agenda as well. The experiences with the Landscape Character Assessment undertaken in the United Kingdom, the long history of high level landscape research in countries such as Denmark, The Netherlands, Germany, Switzerland and Austria, as well as many outstanding achievements during recent years in Central European and Mediterranean countries, have created a wealth of scientific knowledge that offer a wide range of policy applications. However, other than the scientific knowledge in the field of environmental media (soil, water, air) or in nature conservation, the broad knowledge base of landscape science has not been made available for a number of relevant initiatives such as the European Landscape Convention, ESPON or the agri-environmental indicator approaches in the European context.

Landscape perception and management

With regard to landscapes people talk about “genius loci” (the spirit of the place, see Antrop, 2000), but also about the identity of the landscape. The identity refers to the individual uniqueness of a specific rural, forest, urban, seashore or remote mountain landscape. Identity is indicated by a name and perceived by the inhabitants and users of a landscape. Landscape management should be based on the perception of the people involved as much as possible. This can be achieved only through participation of the local inhabitants and other stakeholders in practical exercises defining the development targets for their landscape. Many examples already exist where local initiati-

ves in co-operation with the authorities have found ways to manage the landscape in a way that present values are respected but new developments in concordance with current functions of the landscape are promoted.

In this project on Transfrontier Landscapes, initiatives in this regard in the studied landscapes are explicitly taken into account as examples.

It could be argued that the very region – specific character of landscape-related issues makes it inappropriate to define objectives at the supra regional level – in this case at the European level. However, there is increasing awareness that the causes of many environmental problems – “the driving forces” – affecting the world’s landscapes, originate outside the region of concern. A global market economy, especially the impacts of international trade agreements such as the Common Agricultural Policy (CAP) or traffic networks, large-scale demographic and socio-economic changes, cross-boundary (e.g. air-borne) pollution as well as differences in landscape-related policy and planning mechanisms at the national level are affecting landscapes through changes taking place in agricultural land use. While regional-specific characteristics are increasingly exposed to the processes of globalisation, the ability to prevent and counteract the observed trends and threats has proven to be limited. This is where policy implementation requires integration as well as differentiation.

The project on transfrontier landscapes is meant to follow these rationales up by identifying some of the key driving forces that are in place for the development of landscapes. The above figure illustrates how driving forces can play a significant role on the character and quality of a landscape.

Landscape character assessments

An analysis of the existing monitoring programmes at the national level shows that “Landscape Character Assessments” have become an important tool for the conceptual and spatial integration of a wide range of factors relevant for the state and trends of terrestrial ecosystems. The large diversity of landscape characteristics – especially at the European level – must be considered as a key methodological challenge when assessing the vulnerability and resilience of terrestrial ecosystems with regard to pressures from land use and land cover changes. Landscape characteristics such as topography, soil type, vegetation, structural elements (e.g. hedges, trees) and land use patterns form the life-support systems for terrestrial ecosystems. The objective of a harmonised landscape character assessment is to develop reliable indicators and a geographic reference base that allows to assess the role and function of landscape-management for the protection/conservation of important natural and semi-natural landscapes in Europe.

This project takes into account the preliminary results deriving from the European Landscape Character Assessment Initiative, approved as EU-funded Accompanying Measures project.

It starts from the following premises:

- the overarching landscape character assessment concepts build upon multi-disciplinary co-operation, are rooted in sustainability and have both a strongly spatial-scientific as well as a social dimension;
- European landscapes are special because of their diversity and variation in character (see environmental reports such as Dobris and the forthcoming EEA Technical Report on landscapes);
- landscapes are exposed to a set of supra-regional driving forces such as EU policies and large-scale economic developments (see OECD and EU agri-environmental indicator schemes);
- landscapes are cross-boundary phenomena that are increasingly appreciated as a common good rather than as a matter of only national or regional concern (see European Landscape Convention).

Methodology

The overall objective is to illustrate typical – positive as well as negative – examples for the management, planning and conservation of landscapes that are located at national (or sub-national) borders where they are exposed to different policies and land use regimes. The intention is to describe the differences of land use management, conservation practices and also landscape perception in landscapes that are divided by national or sub-national administrative borders and to illustrate the effects on the landscape. The methodology followed a step-wise approach:

- step 1: Identification of the transfrontier landscape to report upon

One of the pre-requisites for selecting a case study area is the need to identify a tangible area with clear boundaries that are recognised from the viewpoint of landscape expertise. This means reference to national or regional landscape typologies should be made when identifying the landscape at the boundary. Though the existing European Landscape Typology (Sander et. al. 2003) should be used as a main reference, participants were free to put forward a landscape that borders at another country, provided that there is sufficient data availability;

- step 2: Identification of the Transfrontier-Project Experts

In principle, the identification of the Transfrontier-Project Experts is done by the project co-ordinators. Because two “Transfrontier-Project Experts” might not share information on the “same” (adjacent) type of landscape, e.g. if their landscapes of

preference do not really connect, information exchange (communication) between the Transfrontier-Project Experts played a key role;

- step 3: Identification of existing reports or case studies

In order to make this peer-review feasible, it was suggested to make good use of already existing reports or case studies on transfrontier or borderline (areas that border at other countries) in case that these have been identified in Step 1;

- step 4: SWOT analysis: Strengths – Weaknesses – Opportunities – Threats

The landscapes selected play very different roles in each of the countries. Each landscape is therefore unique and it is very useful to describe them individually as complete as possible and in a simple way. This description can be taken under the SWOT analyses. The SWOT analysis is intended to highlight the key issues and the links between the issues in the landscapes described. In addition, changes that may need to be made within its management can be recognised.

SWOT stands for Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats. S and W relate to the landscape's own characteristics, which are seen as internal factors. The O and T deal with the landscape's competitive environment (external factors).

Strengths

- what are the advantages intrinsic to the landscape, e.g. environmental, geographical, reputation in the country, uses? What makes it special for the surroundings?
- what is well organised? What is doing well?
- what are the good characteristics?

Weaknesses

- what can be improved?
- what is done poorly or inconsistently?
- what should be avoided?

Opportunities

What are the interesting trends, good chances? Useful opportunities can come from:

- changes in government policy related to the landscape described;
- changes in cultural and social trends (lifestyle trends, population demographics, education, recreation);
- changes in markets (agribusiness, tourism, commercialisation of regional products);
- local events.

Threats

What are the obstacles the landscape faces? The most significant problems in the areas of:

- environment: pollution;
- land/building: insufficient job perspectives, land use conflicts, uncontrolled countryside urbanisation;
- transport/communication infrastructure;
- general infrastructure (water, health care, social and cultural facilities);
- management issues (lack of vision, image, prescriptive regulations);
- demographic (population income, older age profile, low professional base).

Case studies

Natural, cultural and political processes have moulded European landscapes, adding layers of meaning. Some of these values are widely recognised by large parts of the European population, and have become tourist attractions or generally recognised forms of cultural heritage. But even in the case of the Scandinavian fjords, the German Black Forest region, the Alpine Dolomites, the Spanish *dehesas* or the Italian Tuscany region, this appreciation reflects a whole range of viewpoints and interpretations, associations, idealisations and factual knowledge, which can vary substantially between regions, nations, gender, social and age groups, as well as according to the socio-economic status of each individual. The scope of value attributes for a specific landscape can therefore comprise the “presence as well as absence” of everything between naturalness, presence of wildlife, certain types of vegetation, rugged or harmonious land forms, typical farm buildings, field patterns, historic remains, scenic qualities of the roads, access to viewpoints, networks of hiking trails, historic architecture, modern contemporary engineering projects (bridges, towers, dams, etc.), recreational facilities, and many others. For the purpose of this report it was decided to identify values according to the three categories presented in the previous section and to focus on environmentally relevant aspects.

The main goal of the overview is to identify the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats related to the transfrontier landscape in question. Many of the components that define landscape values are addressed in the individual case studies.

Sustainability is the major criterion for judging the values of land-use practices and the landscapes in which to find these land uses. In the absence of newly developed forms of balanced land use, reference is frequently made to traditional land uses that are – often intuitively – associated with the idea of “stability”. Traditional landscapes such as terraces in Mediterranean mountains, *bocage* in Brittany, stone-walls in Ireland and lowland peat farming in the Netherlands and Germany are

regional expressions of landscapes that have survived many centuries. Modern agricultural practices are of larger scale and follow industrial processes that depend on major external inputs (energy, nutrients, etc.). In some case value can be assigned to multi-functional qualities, such as extensive recreation forms in agricultural landscapes.

Montado/Dehesa (Portugal/Spain)

Ana Paixão Ferreira & Teresa Pinto Correia, Universidade de Évora, Portugal

Rafael Mata Olmo, Universidad Autónoma de Madrid, Spain

Arribes del Duero / Ribeira do Douro (Portugal/Spain)

Rafael Mata Olmo & Concepción Sanz Herráiz, Universidad Autónoma de Madrid, Spain

Fertő/Neusieder lake landscape (Hungary/Austria)

Éva Konkolyiné, University of Western Hungary, Hungary

Thomas Wrška, Institute of Ecology & Conservation Biology, Austria

Šumava Mountains/Bohmerwald/Bayerischer Wald (Czech Republic, Germany, Austria)

Zdenek Lipsky, Czech Agricultural University/CAU, Czech Republic

Bielaviezhskaya Puscha (Belarus/Poland)

Galina I. Martsinkevitch, Anton Shkaruba & Maria Falaleeva, Belarusian State University, Department of Geography, Belarus

Hund-Paapsand/Hond-Paap (Germany /The Netherlands)

Ingolf Faida, District Authority Weser-Ems, Germany

Border Meuse (The Netherlands – Belgium/Flanders)

Geert de Blust, Instituut voor Natuurbehoud, Belgium

Dutch-German border area near Arnhem and Nijmegen

Marijn van der Wagt, Research Institute Spatial Planning, The Netherlands

Britanny/Normandy (France)

Jacques Baudry, Institut National de la Recherche agronomique, France

German-Dutch Pleistocene sands: Twente-Achterhoek-Bentheim-Borken (Germany/The Netherlands)

Rob Jongman, Alterra, The Netherlands

Breifne Mountain Region (Republic of Ireland/Northern Ireland)
John H. Morris, Geological Survey of Ireland, Ireland

Results

Due to the relatively high intensity of human land use, European landscapes have undergone substantial changes in terms of character and ecology. Two key phenomena characterise the impact of these processes: the fragmentation of open space and a declining diversity of the landscape, resulting in frequently high losses of biodiversity and cultural identity. Fragmentation – often accompanied by pollution, eutrophication (manure problem), acidification, and various forms of anthropogenic disturbances is not only occurring at the regional or national level, but must be considered as an international trend that is following the logic of European spatial, agricultural and transport policies. However, urban-industrial conglomeration in North-western Europe did not only start more than a century ago – namely at the time of industrialisation – it also became itself a part of the regional identity. Because of their peripheral location, transfrontier landscapes play a very special role in this respect.

While the processes and effects of fragmentation deriving from the development of infrastructure, urbanisation, industry and agricultural land use, have been well documented (Antrop et al., 1994), the examples of selected transfrontier landscapes show that there are a number of general trends that characterise them. As the region's economic focus is shifting away from resource exploitation towards the infrastructure of an ever-increasing world trade, globalisation creates its own "hotspots".

Where do transfrontier landscapes fit into this rapidly changing picture? A consequence of recent land use changes is the general loss of landscape diversity due to the disappearance of typical landscape elements such as hedgerows, pollard-willows, coppice, ditches and cattle ponds but also typical features of the topography and management. Especially agricultural landscapes have developed towards relatively even, monotonous types that lack former regional differences. While many transfrontier landscapes are less populated, less accessible and less known, their cultural, historical and ecological characteristics have escaped some of the driving forces that brought mass-production farmland or shielded behind roadside commercial development. Coastal zones and some scattered nature reserves have become the tourist and recreational islands away from urban stress. This gives landscape policy at the national and international level a pivotal role to play.

Figure 1: Different forms of area protection throughout European countries as percentage of total land area (Wascher, 1995)

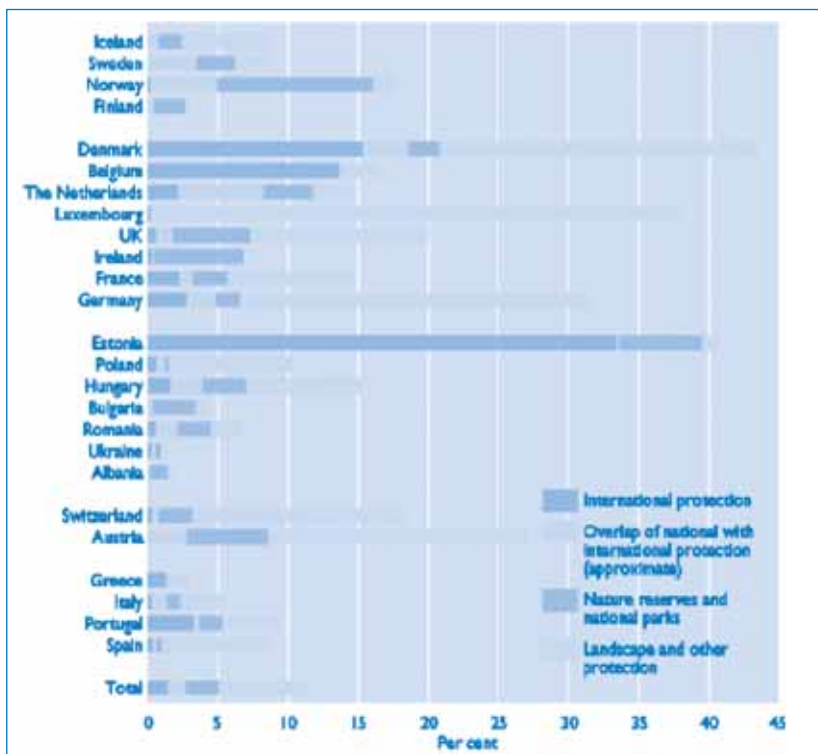


Table 1: Results from the Case Study SWOT Analysis

	Strengths	Weaknesses	Opportunities	Threats
Economical	- Outdoor recreation activities (water sports, fishing, short and long distance hiking trails, archaeological zones)	- Uncertainty on public financing - Low profitability in farms (low agricultural prices and high labour/land costs)	- Popular attraction might foster tourist activities in surrounding areas - Use image of local product to sustain production	Fishery activities - Growing interests recreational use without planning (e.g. motor sailing in dams)

	Strengths	Weaknesses	Opportunities	Threats
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Local products with high quality (food & drink products with designation of origin; cork) - Summer houses 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Tourism infrastructure - Tourist attractions close to tourism hubs - Weak market development for specific products - Deficient communication systems 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Potential multi-functionality (rural tourism, nature conservation, regional products) - Increasing consumers' demand of quality food products - Integrated ecotourism - Expand to European park area - Innovative uses of products - Local development initiatives between both regions/countries 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Expanding gravel extraction (river) - Agribusiness may decrease quality of labelled products - Low professional base in the regions (sleeping villages) - Growing number of second residences in some areas - Land abandonment by farmers - Non-regularised housing development close to present-day settlements
Socio-cultural	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Cultural landscape heritage (e.g. archaeological, artistic) - Traditional rural settlements well maintained with little urban development - Regional identity - Network of volunteer organisations - Low density of population 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Participation of non-specialised public - Ageing population - Emigration to urban areas (problems in maintaining traditional agricultural infrastructures e.g. terracing, walls, irrigation) - Differences in regional identity 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Growing regional identity - Development of research in the system 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Land abandonment by farmers – loss of cultural heritage - Decrease of accessibility to rural areas - Impact of the past history (civil wars, invasions) - Increased pressure from society to build in natural areas

	Strengths	Weaknesses	Opportunities	Threats
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Well-studied areas, including environmental education - Good access to landscapes by public transportation - Involvement by land owners in integral care for the system - Stakeholder awareness 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> between the two regions - Tourism developments in conflict with nature and cultural values - Poor environmental education - Too large properties: lack of innovation and low investment from land owners 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Loss of architectural tradition - No jobs for local population due to modest tourism facilities
Ecological	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Landscape of international value due to unique features - Heterogeneity in landscape with aesthetic values - High biodiversity; wide diversity of habitats - Wilderness - Low human influence - Environmental tourism facilitated - Small recreational pressure on ecosystems - Good spatial organisation into restricted and public areas 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Sensitive ecosystem - Heterogeneity and biodiversity mainly depends on linear features - No corridors in landscape; frequently no vegetation along paths, roads or watercourses - Loss of river natural essences due to dam's construction 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Dynamic features that may shape landscape in the future (e.g. river) - Landscape management will keep cultural values and rich flora - Conservation activities related with Natural parks 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Growing air (transboundary), water, soil and noise pollution and dynamics in rivers and lakes - Flooding - Intensification (increased erosion; tree decline; habitat change) - Extensification - Increase in water use - River fragmentation - Climate change (drought in summer; destruction of habitats, e.g. blanket bog)

	Strengths	Weaknesses	Opportunities	Threats
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Integrated ecological monitoring 			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Reforestation using exotic species (in one or both sides) - Increase in diseases - Land use changes and conflicts (urban pressure, urbanisation in peri-urban areas, vineyards – recreation and ornamental gardens; deforestation) - Irrigation projects - Decrease in landscape management (fire risks, tree decline; disappearance of traditional pruning methods) - Wind farms - High voltage electric infrastructures
Landscape policy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Bilateral agreement on nature conservation - Extensive plan of action with clearly stated objectives - Commitment for international co-operation on 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Uncertainty about complete execution of projects planned - Slow process of international co-operation - Different scale of management (local vs national) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Creation of trans-boundary parks - Changes of regional government policy - International co-operation regarding river and water management 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - EU premium for maize accelerates land cover changes

	Strengths	Weaknesses	Opportunities	Threats
	<p>highest political level</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Well established organisation, including private and public bodies - Execution of integrated water management projects (nature, water storage, ecological, recreation, education) - Demonstration of integrated projects - Co-operation between municipalities in river district - Resilience to change in policies - Protection through legislation at both sides of the border 	<p>nal) in regions involved</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Poor co-operation between regions involved (e.g. promotional aspects) - Lack of integrated plan to manage the region and its sustainable development - Frontier zones are sometimes forbidden to study and visit in international projects - Landscape and nature protection not matching 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - New orientations of CAP, specially rural development regulation - World heritage diploma - More co-operation with bordering accession countries after their incorporation to the EU, or through them from non-accession countries 	

Protocol on biodiversity and Black Sea landscape conservation to the Convention on the protection of the Black Sea against pollution

Oksana TARASOVA

Commission on the Protection of the Black Sea against pollution (Istanbul, Turkey)

The Black Sea coastal states: Bulgaria, Georgia, Romania, Russian Federation, Turkey and Ukraine in 1992 signed the Convention on the protection of the Black Sea against pollution. According to provisions of this Convention, the Contracting Parties shall take individually or jointly, as appropriate, all necessary measures consistent with international law to prevent, reduce and control pollution thereof in order to protect and preserve the marine environment of the Black Sea. The scope of the Convention was enlarged by adopting a number of protocols, of which the latest one has clear objectives to address landscape conservation issues of the Black Sea coast.

Protocols of the Convention on Protection of the Black Sea marine environment against pollution from land-based pollution sources, Bucharest 1992

1. Protocol on the Protection of the Black Sea marine environment against pollution by dumping, Bucharest, 1992
2. Protocol on co-operation in combating pollution of the Black Sea marine environment by oil and other harmful substances in emergency situations, Bucharest, 1992
3. Protocol on the Protection of the Black Sea marine environment against pollution by dumping
4. Strategic action plan on the rehabilitation and protection of the Black Sea, Istanbul, 1996 (BSSAP)
5. Black Sea protocol on biodiversity and landscape conservation, Sofia, 2002, signed by four Contracting Parties

The purpose of the Protocol (Article 1) is to maintain the Black Sea ecosystem in good ecological state and its landscapes in favourable conditions, to protect, to preserve and to sustainably manage the biological and landscape diversity of the Black Sea.

In conjunction with provisions of the Convention on the Protection of the Black Sea against pollution and other protocols to this Convention, the Protocol is intended to serve as a legal instrument for developing, harmonising and enforcing necessary environmental policies, strategies and measures in preserving, protecting and sustainably

managing nature, historical, cultural and aesthetic resources and heritage of the Black Sea states for present and future generations.

The corresponding articles of the Protocol say that each Contracting Party shall take all necessary measures to:

- protect, preserve, improve and manage in a sustainable and environmentally sound way areas of particular biological or landscape value;
- restore and rehabilitate damaged areas of previously high biodiversity and landscape value;
- restore and maintain in good conditions the landscapes of high nature, historical, cultural and aesthetic value.

For the purposes of the Black Sea BLD Protocol the same definitions of landscape and landscape diversity as in the European Landscape Convention and Pan-European Biodiversity and Landscape Diversity Strategy were adopted by the Contracting Parties:

- landscape means an area, as perceived by people, whose character is the result of the action and interaction of natural and/or human factors as defined in the Chapter I, the article 1 of European Landscape Convention (October 20, 2000, Florence, Italy);
- landscape diversity means the formal expression of the numerous relations existing in a given period between the individual or the society and a topographically defined territory, the appearance of which is the result of the action, over time, of natural and human factors and a combination of both.

Institutional setting of the Commission on the Protection of the Black Sea against pollution for the implementation of the Black Sea protocol on biodiversity and landscape conservation

The Black Sea BLC Protocol was signed by Bulgaria, Romania, Turkey and Ukraine in 2002 and undergoes the national ratification procedures. As expected, Georgia and the Russian Federation will access the Protocol in the near future. Co-ordinating functions for the implementation of the Protocol belongs to the Commission on the protection of the Black Sea against pollution (Black Sea Commission, BSC, www.black-sea-commission.org, Istanbul, Turkey).

In order to comply with provisions of the Black BLC Protocol and the BSSAP the development of the Black Sea strategy and action plan on biodiversity and landscapes conservation is initiated as follows:

- at the joint meeting of the Advisory Group on Integrated Zone Management and the Advisory Group on conservation of biodiversity, in November 2002, the decision was made that the Black Sea strategy and action plan on biodiversity and

landscapes conservation will be developed as a single document with the one preamble and two chapters A: Conservation of biodiversity and B: Conservation of landscapes;

- a Strategy and an action plan for rehabilitation and protection of biological diversity of the Black Sea is being prepared by Advisory Group on conservation of biological diversity and supported by the corresponding BSC Activity Center, Batumi, Georgia;
- a Strategy and an action plan for rehabilitation and protection of landscape diversity of the Black Sea is being prepared by the Advisory Group on integrated coastal zone management, supported by the corresponding BSC Activity Center, Krasnodar, Russian Federation;
- co-operation with the European Landscape Convention shall be established;
- regional studies on landscapes, their classification and criteria for conservation shall be conducted in co-operation with relevant international organisations;
- European experience and approaches shall be used when necessary and possible taking into account the political situation in the Black Sea coastal states;
- initial Questionnaire on the national policies and action plans for landscape conservation was developed, circulated to the members of the ICZM advisory groups and is being processed.

Some preliminary conclusions from the draft summary of the Questionnaire that outlined the generic problems of landscape diversity conservation in the Black Sea coastal states are given below. The obtained information will be further verified, studied in depth, expanded and improved.

There is no commonly agreed definition of landscapes in the Black Sea coastal states in a wider sense. The more limited definition of natural landscapes is applied.

Scientific study that has been conducted in the framework of the Black Sea environmental programme 1993-1996 exists in a draft and shall be elaborated further for its practical use. The state of scientific knowledge in the region on landscape conservation issues shall be assessed.

Of six Black Sea coastal states, only Bulgaria, Romania, and Georgia are the Contracting Parties to the European Landscape Convention. A variety of international agreements that address directly or indirectly components of landscape conservation shall be analysed in order to achieve synergy in their actions rather than disperse the scarce funds and implement overlapping actions.

International Agreements relevant to landscape conservation of Black Sea coastal States

Country/ Convention	Bulgaria	Georgia	Romania	Russian Federation	Turkey	Ukraine
UN Convention on Biological Diversity	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
UN Convention on Desert- ification	yes		yes	yes	yes	yes
UN Convention on Climate Change	yes	yes	yes	yes	signed	yes
Bern Convention	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	yes
Bonn Convention	yes	yes	yes	no	no	yes
Ramsar Convention	yes	yes	yes		yes	yes
CITES Convention	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	yes
Convention for the Protection of the Architec- tural Heritage of Europe	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	no
European Convention on the Protection of the Archaeo- logical Heritage	no	no	yes	yes	no	no
BSBLCP	signed	no	signed	no	signed	signed

The legislation on landscape conservation is scattered between numerous national laws and regulations and there is no example of a single piece of the landscape specific legislation in the Black Sea coastal states.

The institutional set up for the landscape conservation primarily stays with the environmental authorities and often is narrowed to the issues of protected areas for the biodiversity and habitats. The issues of aesthetic and historical values of landscapes are often overlooked and not given the proper attention. Because the issues of aesthetic and historical value are mostly dealt with by other institutions like ministries of culture, the important question arises how to balance interest of different groups and how to reach efficient co-operation between involved authorities.

The national strategies and action plans are scattered among the other environmental strategies and action plans therefore their efficiency is difficult to assess. Special studies are needed to clarify what strategies, objectives, actions, criteria, assessment methodologies, etc. for the landscape conservation in the coastal areas exist in the Black Sea coastal states and internationally in order to properly address landscape conservation issues of the Black Sea coast.

Managerial tools like integrated coastal zone management to improve the cross sectoral co-operation for the purposes of landscape conservation should be employed to its full extent.

Multiple pressures on landscapes including pressures from agriculture, urban development, infrastructure development, tourism, etc. vary between high and medium. An assessment is needed according to the commonly agreed indicators and criteria for assessment and assessment methodologies.

The existing protection measures such as environmental impact assessments and establishment of protected areas undertaken without consideration of landscape component are not always sufficient.

Monitoring of landscapes is irregular and not landscape specific. The needs exist for identifying landscape protection measures on regional and national levels and development of landscape specific indicators in order to monitor their conditions.

Multiple factors causing the changes of landscapes originate from unsustainable development and in many cases from climate change. The need exists to define priority factors and develop a common mechanism to share positive experience of rehabilitation of landscapes.

There are no regular assessment of landscape conditions in the Black Sea coastal states. Efforts of scientific and NGOs communities to observe the changes of landscapes in time and space shall be supported by the development and introduction of land-

scape specific methodologies, e.g. GIS, satellite observations, etc. The further agreement on applied methodologies, classification systems, etc. is needed.

The examples of landscape classifications for Turkey and for Romania show that the issues of commonly agreed classification system, incorporation of aesthetic and historical values in landscape conservation and subsequent mapping of landscapes should be paid the due attention:

Turkey: national parks, natural parks, nature conservation areas, natural monuments, wildlife conservation Areas, breeding stations, conservation forests, gene conservation forests, seed stands, specially protected areas, Ramsar sites, urban sites, archaeology sites, natural sites, historical sites.

Romania: scientific reserves, national parks, natural monuments, natural reserves, landscape reserves, world heritage sites.

Damaged valuable landscapes as possible target for rehabilitation measures are identified only in Romania. The rehabilitation of the damaged landscapes will require special studies.

Mechanism for landscape protection, management and planning is not always well defined. Therefore there is a need to conduct feasibility studies to identify suitable mechanisms for protection, management and planning of landscapes for coastal areas as well as their regional implications.

Tools for management of landscape protection although known in all the Black Sea coastal states, are not always applied successfully. The way forward is to improve application of existing management tools and to create a Manual of best available practices in the field of landscape protection.

Among the problems in protection, management and planning of landscapes the followings were mentioned: lack of a specific legal arrangements; lack of integration between economic sectors, insufficient financial resources, insufficient capacity building and inefficient use of expertise in the field of landscape protection. A special study for identifying the financial, institutional and scientific arrangements for landscape protection are needed in the region, including development of the agreed classification system of landscapes, identification of regionally recognised landscapes, mapping of landscapes, proposing financing mechanisms, etc.

When assessing landscapes the particular value assigned by the interested groups are to be taken into account in all Black Sea coastal states. But involvement of major economic sectors in landscape conservation activities is not sufficient. Development of mechanisms for involvement of relevant economic sectors in the protection and conservation of landscapes should be pursued.

Improvement of co-operation between different stakeholders, including NGOs, orientation of academic and research communities towards conducting the applied research for landscape conservation purposes in order to give the scientific justification of the decision making in the landscape conservation field, active involvement of local communities could create solid basis for a significant progress in landscape conservation.

Each of the tackled problems will be included into work plans of the Black Sea commission institutional network for further consideration, development and thorough analysis in order to assist the Black Sea coastal states in implementation of the Black Sea protocol on biodiversity and landscape conservation.

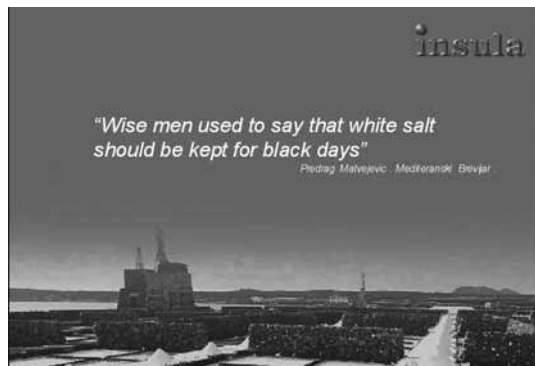
To implement the Protocol, in particular its landscape component for which much more studies and assessments are needed, a timely financial and technical support from the European Commission, GEF, other donor organisations will play a crucial role.

Taking into account the above said, the establishment of working links with European Landscape Convention, a primary objective of which is to conserve, protect and rehabilitate landscapes, will facilitate the exchange of experience and knowledge between two conventions. Co-ordination of joint pilot projects, trainings, harmonisation of reporting requirements and assessment methodologies, development of landscape specific indicators, other relevant activities could be beneficial for both Conventions.

Wind and salt routes

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(c) *Predrag Matvejevic. Mediteranski Brevijar*

When we talk of cultural landscapes, or landscapes embedded in man's memory, as a result of wise combinations between his activities and nature's work, it is impossible not to get absorbed by the powerful presence of amazing salt plains or large fields dotted of windmills, transformed into emblems of prosperity along the centuries.

Existing saltworks landscapes are an unbelievable compendium of history, designed nature, and harmony of shapes. They are marvels of human imagination and intervention adapted to the environment, and this is not surprising, since what we can still see nowadays is just a sample of places that for centuries have been symbols of power and wealth. The white salt has always been present at the dawn of civilisations, this mysterious substance, so eagerly longed-for that alchemists even thought it was the fifth element. Salt, both as a sea crop or coming from the puzzling brines appearing at the surface of inland valleys, was always at the origin and guaranteed the permanence of big cultures. Owning salt control became an obsession, as we remember from the reaction of Amilcar Barca, who knew that Carthage had succumbed when he discovered that salt warehouses were empty and saltworks had been occupied.

Salt was "burned earth" for Aristotle, a compendium of the four elements: earth, water, wind and fire. Wind not only was taking part in the formation of salt, but it also was the pumping power that created these landscapes of water, in places where it would have been impossible before, with the help of the old canvas sail windmills, whose origin is still uncertain.

We have references of ancient travellers talking of places which developed the culture of wind, such as Sijistan, where the landscapes of windmills made the sterile plains green. Or the Lasithi windmills that collected wind for centuries, guaranteeing fertility in this corner of Crete as well as an important part of agricultural subsistence in the area. The same winds also pumped water to create wealth in the plains of Majorca. Windmill landscapes have been spreading all around in Europe, reaching their maximum in the 19th century, when the island of Öland alone hosted more than 400 windmills. These mills also had a decisive role along the history, such as those of the island of Hydra, which during four decades guaranteed wheat grinding for the besieged town of Athens.

On the eve of the new millennium both saltworks water landscapes and the large windmill fields are seriously threatened. If they disappear, with them, essential fragments of our history and of the old knowledge would also be removed. Old saltworks are not productive anymore and are massively abandoned, like it happened a few decades ago with windmills. In the case of saltworks, their disappearance is even more serious since it would occasion the worst loss of European wetlands after the big desiccation processes of the 19th century.



Salt and wind

The salt gardens

Saltworks constitute one of the most interesting and spectacular cultural landscapes that man has been able to create on the edge of the sea. More than one thousand years of tradition have produced areas of extraordinary natural and cultural value.

The excellence of saltworks and the respect they show for natural environment is on a par with the importance of the economic and social role the salt industry played in the past. Salt is something that has always formed part of the foundations of the development of our civilisations, determining the politics and the prosperity of whole areas which, perhaps, explains why the saltworks still survive.

The evaporation saltworks located in the Mediterranean area (and the Atlantic areas of Portugal and Southern France), both the working and the abandoned ones, cover an area of nearly 100,000 ha. along the coastline. This shows the territorial importance of these habitats, which is even more accentuated if we remember that this area is divided among more than 100 large scattered enclaves which, up until recently, were home to more than 4000 groups or individual historical saltworks.

Many of the surviving saltworks are genuine examples of wetlands that no longer exist. These artificial wetlands are highly fragile systems, equipped with an aquatic architecture that adapts to and copies perfectly the different conditions of the coastline: marshes, coastal lagoons and even rocky coasts. In fact, most of the traditional saltworks exhibit a range of technical solutions and models of integrated management that could easily be extrapolated to other situations.

The historic, cultural and economic importance of the salt industry over the centuries has made it possible for many of these sites to resist the recent processes of indiscriminate ribbon development of the coastline. In many cases, the productive nature and the socio-cultural importance of the saltworks, despite their decadence and the lack of protective or zoning measures, was given priority over the massive construction of tourist and residential constructions that took place between the 60's and the 80's. There are some truly curious and exemplary cases to be seen in Aveiro, in Cadiz, in Santa Pola, in Ibiza-Formentera, in Bas-Languedoc, in Corsica, in Sardinia, in Sicily and in some of the Greek islands.

The urgent need for protection and maintenance of these living landscapes has concentrated the attention of the scientific community and environmental and cultural heritage authorities in recent years. But the effort made by salt workers themselves, the real caretakers and creators of these habitats, also deserves a mention.

Heritage importance of historic saltworks is as high as their environmental value. They are ecotones with a high biological diversity, essential wetland areas extensively used as resting places by migratory birds. This aspect is clearly shown by the high number of traditional saltworks included in the Ramsar Convention list.

Obstacles, priorities and options for their protection

Addressing the recovery and conservation of the saltworks of interest along the coasts of Europe requires us to establish priorities according to the risk that exists. Some measures cover environmental, or infrastructure aspects, others deal with overcoming regulation-type obstacles and a large proportion of them deal with the need to enhance the value of these surroundings through information and awareness actions.

The greatest risk that currently exists concerns the saltworks abandoned over the last decade or those that are currently being abandoned, a situation that affects more than

50,000 ha. in the Mediterranean region. The fundamental task of managing these areas should focus on:

Maintenance measures

- Maintaining minimum water levels in pools and ponds to avoid drying out, this, in some cases, would imply the irreversible loss of the saltworks;
- maintaining and conserving passive catchments and accumulation systems, with low-cost, stand-alone pumping systems (e.g. wind pumps);
- conserving the irrigation and distribution network, along with the functional elements that keep flood gates and distributors in order. This work is, perhaps, more complex in marsh-type saltworks, where the network of channels, cuts, pools and ponds are fed by the action of the tide;
- conserving heritage works.

Sustainable development-related measures

- Fostering new, complementary and/or compatible economic activities that will guarantee conservation of the wetlands. This has been the case of some restructuring initiatives that have respected the saltworks areas in sea-harvesting grounds, or the introduction of algae production, as can be seen in the case of Formentera.
- Tourism is also a powerful ally of saltworks conservation. Experiences like those of Guérande or Piran have shown the additional potential of balancing income and earning enough to fund conservation. Another point that must be borne in mind is that eco-tourist activities become an essential vehicle for raising public awareness. In this sense, the strategy based on the Salt Route in the Mediterranean could act as a vital catalyst for the initiative.

In working saltworks, apart from the above-mentioned considerations, priority should be given to:

- establishing criteria for environmental improvement and environmentally friendly management, as has been done in Mesollonghi;
- promoting a unified management of the saltworks environment, through jurisdictional agreement and co-ordination between the salt industry, landowners and the competent authorities;
- in the case of protected areas, protection and management plans would have to give specific form to the essential role that salt workers play as the fundamental managers within reasonable parameters;
- resolving some jurisdictional and legal anomalies in the areas of public domain of the coast, reinforcing the role of producers and economic agents in these areas as guarantors of environmental protection;
- creating training initiatives aimed at recovering traditional trades.

Incorporating support measures in the sea salt industry

Recognising the active role that many saltworks play in conserving the environment should be translated into incentives for the salt production that make conservation possible in these wetlands.

The most striking actions would include consolidating a Mediterranean Sea salt label. This could be done through the development of local brands, based on the better quality of their ecological product, an aspect that could be extremely beneficial for small, cottage industry saltworks, although it does imply perfecting quality control systems.

Why restoring traditional saltworks?

At present, a good proportion of traditional saltworks still surviving are either abandoned or exploited in a different way from the genuine traditional production processes, mainly because of inadequate maintenance. Therefore, any project of traditional salt development necessarily involves restoration of the saltworks where it is produced. To this end, traditional saltworks should seek certification in the framework of both local and Community legislation, which will only be possible when each local typology is well characterised in terms of a topographic description of the saltworks, their respective productive processes and a detailed analysis of the salt produced.

This development must always start with the specific features of authentic traditional processes, as happens with cheese, jams, honey and many other agricultural products, processed or not, which have certification of quality and origin.

The Salt Route and the Alas project

Problematic embedded in the above questions, together with the need to find urgent solutions, are at the origin of a concerted action initiated by INSULA together with Unesco and supported by DGXI of the European Commission under the title “Artificial Wetlands, Threatened Coastal Areas in the Mediterranean and Temperate Atlantic Coast”.

The first step was an international meeting held at Unesco on 19-20 June, 1997, bringing together some fifty planners, managers, representatives of intergovernmental and non governmental agencies, experts and scientists, in order to debate and take stock of the best available practices and experiences concerning the issues at stake¹. Launching a European Salt Route was a big achievement of this working group. A multidisciplinary team identified a number of pilot initiatives, starting therefore an

1. <http://www.insula.org/saltroute/>

extensive saltworks restoration process, embracing a wide range of situations. Among them it is worth emphasising the ambitious project of Restoration of the Canary Islands' Saltworks, carried out within the framework of the UE's Regis Programme.

Subsequently the new ALAS project¹ (All About Salt) was launched. ALAS is an interregional project of co-operation between four European sites that produce salt from the sea. The main goal is related to the preservation and the development of these often traditionally runs saltworks, their natural and cultural heritage, their economy and social structure. Salt museums and tourism are also factors that the project deals with and several publications are an important outcome, useful also for other similar sites. This last initiative allowed creating an extensive network of sites and projects that are kindling the hope to maintain this common heritage.

Mills of the past, winds of the future

As it happened with salt in the last decades, landscapes dominated by historic windmills have been cast into the oblivion since long time, except a few cases where the important heritage value of windmills favoured their protection and restoration: La Mancha, Mikonos, Holland and a few German regions.

Nevertheless, there are few initiatives which took into account the possibility to recover built heritage and the associated landscape. This is the case of the “*Molins de Campos*” project, which is a good reference to follow in this type of situations.



This project is an exceptional example of imagination and multi-valuation of island resources in the search of new development paths. It is being developed on the island of Majorca, under the patronage of the Spanish Ministry of the Environment. The

1. <http://www.aegean.gr/alas/>

project of Campos represents in practice an alliance between the heritage from the past and the new technologies of the future, a multidisciplinary project joining heritage restoration, landscape maintenance, wind-energy production, search of new tourist products integrated and adapted to the environment and the recovery of local traditional productions.

Majorca: a land of windmills

Majorca is a land of windmills. One can usually be found in every single municipality, on its plains, perched on hilltops or inside towns or villages. The characteristics of the Balearic Islands' agricultural development have partly been determined by the archipelago's climatic conditions. Windmills were built to overcome irrigation problems due to a lack of surface rivers and streams. They used kinetic wind energy and transformed it into mechanical energy, to extract underground water by means of a plunger pump.

The type of windmill found in Majorca is based on designs that date back to Alexandrian times, since the first windmills reached Europe from Persia in the 11th century. The first drawing of a windmill to be documented dates back to 1468 and can be seen on the altarpiece of Saint George, by Pere Nigart, in Majorca's Diocesan Museum. During the Middle Ages, the number of windmills grew. Most were flourmills, but there were also watermills. All had rotors with sails or fabric. Windmills were not really put to use to extract water from the ground until 1845, with the work of the Dutch engineer Paul Bouvy and the plan to drain the plain known as the PIA de Sant Jordi. From then on, there was a spectacular increase in number. There are well over two thousand windmills on the island of Majorca.

The project has been developed in the Municipality of Campos, in the south of the island of Majorca. Campos still looks like a rural town, with features characteristics of the municipality's rural landscape. In fact, throughout its history, the municipality has made its living primarily from agriculture and cattle rearing.

The first windmills were very popular among farmers and orchard owners in Campos as a means of transforming their arid properties into well irrigated orchards, where they could sow the well known, highly considered potatoes, together with alfalfa for cattle feed. This led to the early days of milk production, now one of Campos' leading economic activities.

According to the census of windmills used for extracting underground water, which was carried out in 1941, 557 windmills operated in the municipality of Campos and 54 were equipped with oil and gasoline engines. Not all the windmills were to be found on farms. Within the town itself there were five, used to water small orchards and gardens. There were also 76 waterwheels scattered about the municipality.

However, in the second half of the 20th century, due to technological developments, new machinery was introduced, operated by explosion engines. As a result, older windmills were discarded and fell into disuse. In turn, the crisis suffered by the Majorcan countryside, which the Campos area had been especially affected by, has led to the gradual abandonment of these ancient mechanical devices. Because of this, most of Campos' windmills are structurally now in a very poor state of conservation.



Molins de Campos project

The abandonment of an architectural feature of such extraordinary cultural value is also very damaging to the landscape of the Campos area. The visual impression of this neglected rural landscape, in most cases no longer inhabited, with its rural heritage (i.e. its towers and windmills) in a state of abandonment, leads one to feel that there is a lack of sensitivity towards the traditional agricultural landscape and the preservation of its ethnographic, cultural and environmental heritage. It is even very damaging for the image of a region with a high influx of tourists.

It is a social, cultural, aesthetic and environmental duty to come up with a solution to this situation which forces Public Authorities and other interested parties to take the necessary steps to ensure that an answer is found to this problem.

“Molins de Campos”: a sustainable, global initiative

The “Molins de Campos” project was created as a result of the reasons cited above. The feasibility of the project depends upon its global approach to the problem, based on guarantees of future continuity. For this reason, the project does not only involve the windmills’ structural restoration but it also has a global environmental objective: to convert the windmill into a generator of wind energy, a clean, renewable source of

energy. I will also carry out a series of parallel activities within the immediate vicinity, focused on promoting the use of windmills and their adjacent lands in ways which will lead to the generation of income and a number of different economic activities, within the framework of the sustainable use of natural resources and the protection of the environment.

The global idea of the project seeks not only the architectural restoration and obtaining wind power, but also to make the mills turn into reference elements for tourist use, as centres for craftsmanship and valorisation of the rural products of the area.

After the experimental study, in the light of the excellent results achieved, it was necessary to continue with the initial objectives. With this in mind, given the high cost involved in the restoration of the windmills, it was decided to start by concentrating on a first stage of the “Molins de Campos” project, which would focus on a group of about one hundred windmills.

The mills recovering process especially cared after energy aspects that meant a far from negligible technological challenge, since the project’s engineering had

to resolve aspects such as adapting traditional rotors to present-day generators, within investment conditions that allow investment recovering in an acceptable time space.



Molins de Campos project

A tourist itinerary: the windmill route

Jointly with the energy exploitation, mills restoration is a marvellous excuse to catalyse and revalorise the island’s cultural and tourist resources, that would be transfor-

med in the core of a larger extent operation aimed at the search of more integrated activities and the promotion of a more sustainable tourism in the area. Campos has a large number of places of cultural and natural interest or which are part of the local heritage. This is why one of the aims of the “Molins de Campos” project is to create a series of itineraries between the different windmills and other places of special interest. The mills route would include wetlands and saltworks such as those existing in the area of Es Trenc, whose salt production is documented back in the 4th century B.C., the Sant Blai Oratory whose construction dates back to the 13th century, just after the conquest of Majorca by King Jaume I, or the “Sant Joan de la Font Santa” Baths, whose natural waters have very interesting mineral properties.

The mills would contribute to the revalorisation of local products such as cheese. Cheese production is now not a seasonal activity, but one that is carried out throughout the year. Cottage cheese also used to be a seasonal product, but now it is produced and there is a demand for it all year round, above all at Easter, as it is used in the cooking of traditional robiols (a pastry filled with cheese).

This short description shows the idea of how only one project succeeds to join past and future, new technologies and traditional aesthetics, salt and wind, in order to consolidate a new route towards the future.

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WORKSHOP 2/ ATELIER 2

**Landscape and individual
and social well-being/**

**Paysage et bien-être
individuel et social**

Landscape, identity and integrity. Towards sound knowledge, awareness and involvement

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Abstract

In this paper, we discuss how landscape is created by man and at the same time influences people living in it: people interact with landscape and vice versa.

Looking more deeply into that interaction we find the need to differentiate between the mental-intellectual, emotional-affective and voluntary-physical aspects at stake (section 1).

Then we present the description of steps in meeting a Ligurian landscape (section 2). Therein we show how all details observed can be synthesised in a methodologically clear way through well defined steps of linking the facts, first in a spatial and then in a temporal context, leading to a fairly clear image of the landscape in its development. Subsequently, we proceed in clarifying our appreciation of the image, which requires an act of conscious characterisation of its qualities. Here the aesthetics, the beauty of the landscape comes in. Altogether, the previous aspects of the landscape can make us “see” the landscape’s identity, its particular character in its historical, social, ecological and geographical context.

In section 3 we present a recent study on different agro-landscape qualities in three different landscapes in the Netherlands, using the same set of criteria as in the Tuscan example, but now more elaborated.

Then, in section 4, we elaborate ways in which landscape education can contribute to the landscape management. Awareness of the layers in the landscape as mentioned is a prerequisite for more fully understanding the landscape and subsequently for a more deeply responsible landscape management. Self-awareness of the researcher’s and manager’s own identity and character are needed to make them aware of how they influence the landscape in the way they do. Ways to study the landscape development define the data one needs, and, the other way around, availability of data defines the kind of processes that can be studied. Making the value systems adopted in any group available for discussion allows for a wider and deeper appreciation.

In the final section 5, we return to landscape planning and monitoring procedures, to propose a shift from landscape planning by subsequent actions of specialists toward planning in groups of overlapping experts and locally involved stakeholders.

Man and landscape, landscape and man

Increasingly landscape scientists and landscape managers acknowledge that all the facts and figures of a landscape do not make the actual landscape that people perceive and experience. The landscape in which people live, work, move and spend their leisure time is an integral experience, it is a landscape with its range of forms and colours, structures and smells, its dynamics over time and its links to the observer's reminiscences and spiritual meanings.

Landscape has of old been perceived as a complex whole, studied by a wide range of disciplines. As a result, in our understanding, it has a wide range of aspects coming together, ranging from those covered by the natural sciences to those covered by the social sciences and the human sciences (Van Mansvelt & Van der Lubbe 1999), or, in other words, covered both by the geo-bio-sphere as well as the noosphere (Tress 2000). Early in the 20th century Carl O. Sauer formulated it like this: "The cultural landscape is fashioned from a natural landscape by a culture group. Culture is the agent, the natural area is the medium and the cultural landscape is the result" (Sauer 1925). People thus produce landscape.

Healthy landscapes for healthy people

Already as early as the 19th century, Alexander von Humboldt stressed "the closest reciprocal relationship between the earth and its inhabitants: Land affects the inhabitants and the inhabitants affect the land". In that same time already, working the land(scape) and experiencing it were recognised and applied in their therapeutic dimensions, for example in the Canada Lakeshore Psychiatric Hospital's garden (Paine 1997), but also in various places on the continent. Interestingly, both: creating and elaborating the landscape on the one hand and experiencing / enjoying it on the other were seen in their therapeutic dimensions. Eating from that same landscape, as yet another way of healing interaction, was so self-understanding that it was hardly ever mentioned.

As insanity was seen as a brain disease largely brought about by psychological stress, the "healthy" design of the architectural and landscape-environment of therapeutic centres was regarded as a crucial tool for the patients' recovery. Recent studies showed that for patients in hospital, a view on the park importantly contributed to the recovery as compared to the significantly slower recovery of those viewing the wall of an industrial building (Larsen 1991; Mooney & Hoover 1996).

Actively meeting a landscape in various ways, ranging from survival trips to farming-practice weeks, forestry week-ends and many days walking-trips, becomes more and more seen as an important tool to help people re-connect to the real-world qualities and thus to their own human essence. This holds especially for urban people who become more and more disconnected from nature by the large range of "virtualities"

that characterise today's life in the city (asphalt, concrete, neon-lights, traffic, huge buildings obstructing the view of the sky, a high level of mechanical and electronic noise). Countryside weekends and holidays "in the green" are widely appreciated by urban people as relaxing and recovering from the inevitable urban stress. Also the increasing appreciation of work-on-the-land as therapy for psychologically affected people as well as socially appreciated by mentally handicapped people points toward the importance of actual "grounding" in the "here and now of the place where you are".

However, the non-urban landscape is not necessarily as healthy as urban people may tend to presume. Industrial pollution can spoil its valuable aquatic and terrestrial ecosystems, as can road and air traffic. The same holds for agriculture. There also it makes a considerable difference for the landscape and its ecosystems whether or not the farmers consciously include the production of a varied, locally specific and characteristic ("fitting") landscape as an issue in their style of farming (Tress 2000, Bohnet 2002, Hendriks & Stobbelaar 2003).

Recent studies on human health indicate that health may be much less of a fixed state (absence of disease generating compounds or organisms) and much more of a fluent state: a basic capacity to overcome disbalancing influences of any kind. Appreciating all the obvious differences between humans and ecosystems (landscapes), it can be seen as striking how diverse and locally fitting agro-ecosystems are much more stress-resistant than the highly specialised agro-chemical mono-cultures are. In both, the human and the agro-ecosystem, the whole – though dependent on its parts – is as such more than the compilation of those parts.

Working, enjoying and living in the landscape

As mentioned, when talking landscape, the awareness of the regional quality of agricultural products is also at stake. Quality wines and cheeses, fruits and meats are among the products well known for their exclusive regional qualities. In a certain sense they are the counterparts of the landscape's special sights, its special sites and other special features. Although from specialised experts' point of view each feature of the landscape stands in its own right, with all standardised ways of data-collection, for the landscape as such all those features are only aspects of it as an intrinsic whole.

Key-notion of this first point is that beside the well known effects of man on the landscape, there is a wide range of landscape qualities that have an impact on the people living in and visiting that landscape. Its sensorial qualities and their appreciation by visitors and users of the landscape must be counted as important features to add to the usual ones. A rough scheme of interactions between people and their landscape may illustrate how this is meant (Table 1):

Table 1. Some interactions between people and their landscape

Landscape People	People affecting landscape Projecting themselves into it	Landscape affecting people Internalising it into themselves
Intellectual / Mental	Recognising, understanding, Aiming toward the truth	Frame of reference, Preferably intelligible
Emotional / Affectionate	Appreciating, validating, Aiming toward the beauty	Feeling home, Preferably beautiful
Voluntary / Physical	Working, changing, managing, Aiming toward the good	Eating from, living and raising in, Preferably creating well-being

Obviously, both people and landscape are far from uniform, and neither are the ways in which they actually affect each other and also the degree of awareness that people have about the reciprocity of that relationship. This holds for the everyday use of the landscape: in people's practical life, but also for people in academia and in politics, conceptual and managerial. For practical life raising awareness on the mutual interactions in their material and as well as immaterial (qualitative) dimensions is crucial. For academia the challenge is to find ways to study the individual, unique qualities, in addition to mainly focusing on the general, average quantities (Bockemühl 1997, Van Elsen 2000). For politics the challenge is to find the balance between regional and international interests (Lapka *et al.* 2001) and to assess the landscape quality appreciated by the landscape's inhabitants and visitors (Cassios 1994, Bosshard 2000). In the next section a way of observing and assessing landscapes for these purposes is introduced.

Steps in observing a Ligurian coastal landscape

A first impression: appearance (observations/facts)

When you get off the train at the small station of Sta Margherita Ligure on the Italian Riviera, and descend the steep stairs between the houses, you suddenly find yourself

on a pebble beach along a boulevard on the Mediterranean Sea. Between the palms you notice green forested hillsides above ochre, yellow, pale orange and sienna house fronts. The Monte di Portofino is a steep outlier of the Apennines in the Ligurian Sea. Away from the sail boats, motorinos, ice cream booths and gesticulating tourists with their cell phones, already at few minutes from the promenade you can find the quietness of walled gardens. Narrow streets lead further up. The villas with view on the distant sea over neatly shaven lawns under manicured olive and apricot trees, gradually make way for terraced olive groves. Only small tractors can alleviate the hard work of old farmers on these steep slopes. Many terracettes on these slopes have been abandoned. The path crosses the road that leads to the splendidly located restaurant further uphill, and arrives at the church of a small village leaning to the slope. Steeply uphill behind the church, some vegetable gardens have remained between the encroaching forest, and soon you walk between stems of old sweet chestnut trees. Even here the slope has been terraced, you can notice that the wild boars have laid out their tracks across them. Further uphill the forest is less maintained, large chestnut trees lay scattered through the hornbeam forest and everywhere are the wild boar tracks.

Resting at the crest you stand between tall trees, tree-heather and pistachio shrubs on rock soil. An age-old paved road, 8 cobbles wide, runs along the crest. At the other side of the road, the shadow of the forest gives way to the warmth of the Mediterranean sun. Looking back, you can still see the town down on the wide bay beneath the faint blue-green Apennines. Towards the sun, the difference between sky, horizon and sea at the other side of the peninsula can hardly be distinguished through the dense maquis. A few minutes later along a winding path downhill you can suddenly discover the breathtaking view between light Acacia woods on the shore of an azure blue sea deeply beneath. The nearly unvegetated rocks dive straight down into the sea, with a rim of bright white foam. In a small bay you can see an old building and a solid tower, closely together between holm oaks and olive groves. Descending, you pass a spring level. You notice that the olive yards on these slopes have now completely been neglected, and largely overgrown with bramble and bushes. Only close to the former monastery, some olive groves are still maintained. Down there, a surprise is waiting: instead of serenity, around the age-old cloister of San Fruttuoso you only find bars and souvenir shops. The small beach is full with noisy children. Several small ferryboats bring the tourists here from Portofino and other small harbours; there is no need to make the effort of the 1½ hour hike.

Spatial coherence

Interestingly, a landscape cannot be described from one point of view only. It becomes an image as soon as the observer has combined in his mind the observations of many sites belonging together. The old chestnut trees are inseparable from the eroded terracettes discernible around and from the village back in the valley. The pines in the

maquis belong to the same system as the lizards on the bare rocks. Some parts may have deep, moist soils, others dry and shallow, some parts of the slope are steeper than others, the smell and the noises may vary, but this all together characterises the same landscape component. These are the phenomena as they appear physically, and we have to accomplish the spatial coherence ourselves. Just like a specific tree produces a richer image in us when having observed it from several sides, the landscape's image is richer, multifaceted, when filled with diverse observations in spatial coherence. The spatial coherence also tells us about the indicator value of plant or animal species for specific soil or habitat conditions, or about the secrets behind a natural lake and the background of buildings and constructions.

Temporal coherence

Another dimension is the coherence in time. The flowers in the olive trees promise fruits next winter. From the branching of the old chestnut trees it can be deduced that they have been taken care for during hundreds of years until a few decades ago. The abandoned terracettes tell of periods of intensive agriculture. And the black scars on the pine trees show that fire has occurred. Following the landscape during the seasons, or even during one day, enriches strongly the experience of the landscape. At this stage, also the question arises whether the current landscape is a result of the past or whether it just presents the potential for the future. This dimension in the arrangement of observations yields an image that is constantly in motion. The same landscape component exhibits many different faces during the day, the seasons, the years. The observed phenomena are continually in transition like the water flowing from a spring. It requires an active thinking effort to build up a conscious image of this unsteady but nonetheless characteristic picture.

Character of a place: the message from appearance and succession

The character of a landscape can be seen as the combination of appearance aspects and features of succession, brought together in one's mind. For every landscape component this character is different, resulting in different processes, plants and animals present. Upper slope, middle slope and lower slope can be differentiated. This is reflected in plants and animals, in the presence and absence of water and in the soils. At the same time, together they are "the slope" as a whole, which can be characterised as such. Altogether, the slopes of a mountain ridge can be characterised as a whole on a still higher level, with the slopes and slope-parts as subsystems (organs or organelles). The character is what everyone knows about a landscape, when knowing it well. The inhabitants of the region know what is the difference between the northern slopes of the Monte di Portofino and the southern ones. It can even be communicated between us, without being required to sum up its quantitative characteristics like solar radiation, plant species composition, etc.

At this stage, it can help to mark the character of landscape components using summarising conceptions. In general, for the northern slopes we would speak of an *earthy blanket of trees*, whereas for the southern slopes a *sunny and fruity* openness is at stake. The character of the side slopes, where water-rich valleys invited people to build water mills can be generalised as *flowing meeting places*. Of course, these conceptions are not exclusive and they are – depending on time of the day of the year and on scale of detail – relevant in all landscape components, but they may inspire the composition of a target image for the management of specific landscape *components* as a whole.

Identity of a place: genius loci

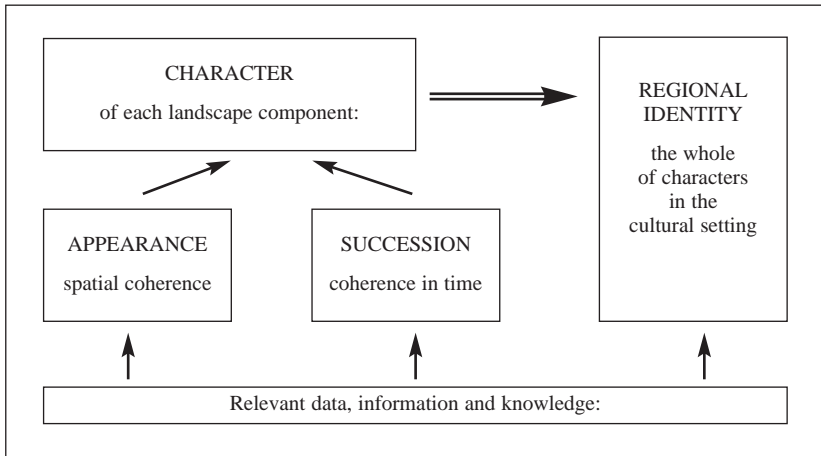
Why is the Portofino landscape different from the Cinque Terre landscape, a comparable landscape some 40 km further down the Riviera? In both landscapes very comparable physical phenomena can be observed, comparable processes play a role, and a comparable – though not identical – character may be attributed to the identified landscape. But still these landscapes differ completely from each other. Like no river is identical to another river, every landscape has its own identity. In the specific composition of the characters of the landscape components, the identity of a landscape is defined. The Monte di Portofino biography is characterised by the presence of the small harbour and the monastery, both inaccessible by road transport (Portofino only got a road in the 1950s, San Fruttuoso still is only accessible by boat or foot path). However, they allowed for connections over sea, contributing strongly to their unique *genius loci*. The Cinque Terre landscape is characterised by active agricultural villages leaning against the hill slopes that are just as inaccessible as those of Portofino. This combination gives that landscape a completely different identity.

Moreover, it is also the cultural appreciation of the landscape that determines to a large extent the identity of a landscape. Whether the landscape has this influence on society, or society on the landscape, is an unsolved question (cf. Schama 1995). At any rate landscape identity is the combined result both from the physical appearance and from the human perception. Man is associated inseparably with landscape. Thus, to find target images for landscape rehabilitation, we should find those images that are realistic and complete, referring to natural physical processes, as well as to the variation of those processes in time, but also explicitly to the changes society has brought about, and which in most instances are irreversible. Even if reversed into the former “ideal” situations, completely different situations would result, because of the changed boundary conditions. Landscape integrity is a dynamic concept, with remnants of the past and images from the future interacting.

The described observations together give a firm, yet imprecise, personal impression of the Portofino area. This is the way it works for every researcher, we presume, what makes it worthwhile to make use of. To put the observations in order, we propose to

exercise a gradual approach to the landscape's identity, leading through appearance, succession and character as described below (Fig. 1).

Figure 1: Data, appearance, succession and character of a landscape as steps in its identification



Steps in observing Dutch farm landscapes

A recent publication by Hendriks and Stobbelaar focused on the landscape produced by farmers in three regions of the Netherlands (Hendriks & Stobbelaar 2003). They started from the notion that the way in which farmers treat their farm (lands) importantly contributes to the way the landscape looks. Then they also realised that different ways, styles and types of farming make different farm-landscapes that thus deliver different contributions to the region's overall landscape. To allow a more specific statement on farm-styles contributions to the landscape, they compared five certified organic farm's farmlands with those of five non-organic farms in three regions of the Netherlands: West Friesland (mainly vegetable production on clay), Waterland (peaty dairy grasslands) and Drenthe (mixed farming on sandy soils). In their study they included a large number of landscape pictures to illustrate and underpin their findings on landscape differences that are visible for everybody, and therefore socio-politically quite relevant.

How do agricultural landscapes appear?

West Friesland in terms of agriculture is predominantly a cabbage production area. It consists of a number of larger and smaller polders, subdivided in a great number of

parcels. The polders are surrounded by dikes and reed-bordered canals and intersected by ditches and / or roads. Tree-lines may follow the dikes, roads and canal structures. Besides the cabbages and the farms with straightforward storage sheds, there are some glass warehouses and bulbflower-fields. In terms of landscape diversity it is rather monotonous. Here the organic farms strike the visitor through a wider range of colours and forms (structures).

Waterland is by and large a peat-polder area, north-east of Amsterdam and south of West Friesland. Here you see mainly grasslands with grazing dairy cows, separated by an innumerable number of rather wide, reed-bordered canals. All north, west and south horizons are strikingly urban, with high apartment buildings and wide highways. The air is crowded with flocking birds. Some milk-sheep-herds, some shrubs and farms, surrounded by trees, add to the diversity of the image. Here the organic farms strike the visitor through the wide range of colours in the grasslands and fringes, visible throughout the year.

The province of Drenthe is a quite differentiated glacial sandy area in the middle north east of the Netherlands, slightly hilly, with some valleys. Here we observe a high mix of forestry and nature-conservation areas, holiday-village parks and farmlands. Within the farmlands a wide range of vegetable production, grasslands and arable production areas can be found. But also horse, goat, and sheep farms, tree nurseries and herb gardens can be found there. Here the organic farms strike the visitor through their flower (colour) rich grasslands, their rich variety of arable fields and their differentiated border vegetation.

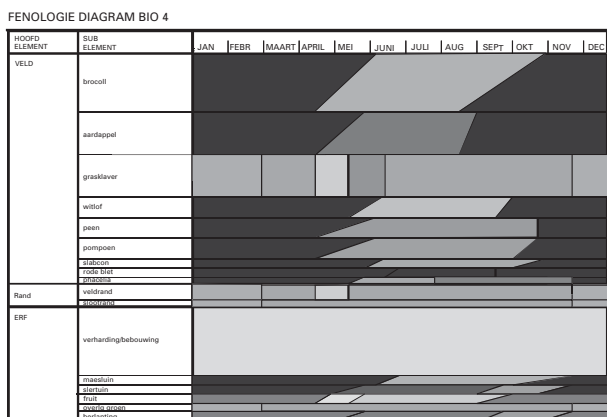
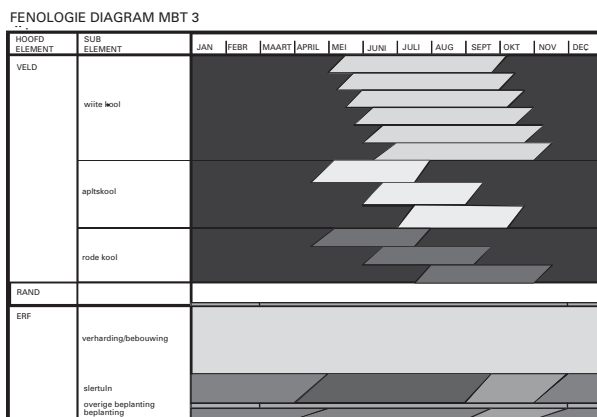
In the mentioned study of Hendriks & Stobbelaar (2003), the first impressions as mentioned above are well founded in numerous sets of data that will be implicitly referred to in the next sections.

Spatial coherence

As organic farming accepts the challenge to make the ecosystem work with a minimum of external inputs (chemicals), the focus there is on cultivating the local soil, water, bio-diversity characteristics of the place. Nitrogen fixation using leguminous crops and nutrient recycling through the use of own farm-fodder for the animals and their carbohydrate rich organic manure to re-allocate the nutrients where most needed, are among the tools to manage and (re)create spatial coherence on the farm (landscape). Elaborate crop rotation-systems, alternating more and less demanding viz. fertility producing crops are another tool in creating spatial coherence. Moreover, including hedged farm and field borders, as well as moors, ponds and (other) nature conservation areas (woody corners) in the farm management where they geo-physically fit, agriculture can contribute importantly to the readability of the landscape. Interestingly, the mentioned study showed that spatial coherence and bio-diversity

(animal and plant species) were generally higher on the organic farms (e.g. Fig. 2). Understandable as this may be in hindsight, at first this was quite a surprise to many nature conservation people, who argued strongly against any agriculture in the area at all.

Figure 2. Differentiation in parcel size (y-axis) and crop types (colours) during one year's observations (x-axis), on a traditional farm (left) and on an organic farm (right) in West-Friesland (from: Hendriks & Stobbelaar 2003)



Temporal coherence

Here the question is how do the mentioned crops, animals and agro-ecosystems fit in the seasons as they express themselves in the relevant places of the farm-landscape. Where in many non-organic grasslands the grass was “just” green, with a shade of blue, in organic grasslands the grass-colours varied more: in the fields and between the fields (spatial conditions), depending on the season and the management (grazing, mowing, haymaking). But also the much larger variety in species added to the differences observed in time: early spring species, early summer, summer and early autumn ones gave each month its own “face” (see Figure 2). Also the difference between dry and sunny years (or seasons) and wet on dark ones could be seen as reflected in ways the field’s looked. Here as above, the coherence of the farm-landscape with the changing times resulted in an increased variety of images that is a richer landscape.

Regional and farm character

Quite clearly the three regions as studied showed a different character: the specialised cabbage area, the natural milk area and the bio-diverse mixed land-use area in their sequence as presented. Land-use, architecture, roads, waterways, parcel patterns, they all differed per region. However, a tendency to generalisation in farm-building, land clearance, field uniformity could be observed in agriculture in general. Along with the before-mentioned features of the organic farms as studied, also their choice for the design of farm buildings and the farmyard management made the organic farms differ from their non-organic partners. They showed more face, more face of their own, though more in line with the local history. Thus they contributed not only to the sustainable development of the local ecosystem but also to that of the regional culture as such.

Regional and farm identity

Interestingly, notwithstanding the before-said, the organic farms differed considerably among each other. And this even more than their comparable non-organic partners. In each region the non-organic specialised farms were more like one another, and they even showed a tendency to converge, in disregard of the region. The use of external inputs (such as chemicals, fodder, fertilizers, and breeds) tends to disconnect the farms from their local “roots”. This loss of identity might be seen as de-identification: of the farm-landscape and subsequently of the whole regional landscape. In contrast, the organic farms showed more identity, going as far as finding own ways of financing and direct consumers’ involvement. Obviously, the question on how to farm in a way that contributes to the ongoing and yet sustainable development of the regional identity is only just addressed. Much more research is needed to clarify the issue in an ecologically, socially and culturally desirable way.

From self-evidence to landscape awareness

How to approach identity in landscape?

Both the examples of the Portofino mountains landscape and of the Dutch farms illustrate how important it is to develop a conscious image of the landscape, as a possible target for landscape development. The development of the concept of landscape in history starts at a relatively unconscious but fully involved awareness of the landscape as a whole, e.g. in the old estate times. Since the Renaissance, detailed analyses of a wider range of disciplines based on an outsider / onlooker position lead to a renewed involvement in landscapes as a whole, now perceived as interacting subsystems, contributing to the overall (landscape) system. A specific single issue arising from that approach was the poor production per surface unit. However, a wide range of other functions, such as tourism, nature conservation, cultural inheritance, traffic, watershed management, came to compete in the landscape as an arena without a value of its own. In fact, landscape at the identity level was lost (Arnesen 1998).

Now the landscape as such starts to become an issue of conscious awareness. This means that a wide range of disciplines is challenged to contribute to the landscape on a higher, more general level than the object of their particular discipline and its sub-disciplines. Here, environmental soundness, diversity of species and ecosystems, sustainability of the management, aesthetics of the landscape are at stake as aspects of the landscape's identity in its historical development (Van Mansvelt & Van der Lubbe 1999). This requires an explicit move from expert's analysis to task group's synthesis, as well as a change from a scientist's objective outsider position to that of the involved participants.

Here, the issue of training and education is at stake, as working in interdisciplinary task groups requires awareness of the own discipline's position amidst the other ones. It also demands the capacity to translate one's data and values into generally understandable language, some modesty regarding the relevance of the own expertise and much appreciation of "the others". That is why this section is dedicated to the awareness of levels in education, starting with an awareness of the parts and moving toward a more holistic, self-completing view of the whole.

Filling the bucket or lighting the fire

When education and training are at stake, one approach is to "change the format", that is to provide the pupils and trainees with updated and revised information, referring to the newest findings of research and the latest positions of policy. Using the language of Heraclite, a philosopher of ancient Greece, this would be a kind of filling the bucket. Heraclite himself however recommended that teaching should be more like lighting a fire than filling buckets, meaning that teaching should be the art of helping the student finding, sharing and evaluating ways to solve problems, practical ones as well as theoretical ones. This is in contrast to a so-called knowledge transfer from "high" (research) down to "low" (practice and training). In the fire-lighting approach, learning about one-

self as learning, goes hand in hand with learning about the topic of interest. This learning refers to all levels of action: observation, understanding, appreciation and actual action capacities. It is about exploring the self as the ultimate research instrument to learn about the world around, in this case the landscape (Bockemühl, 1997). Here, experts of education and training like Bawden & Valentine (1984), Forsythe (1984), Rushby (1985) and MacRae (1989) agree with earlier experts like Bloom (1956) and psychologists like Maslow (1970) arguing that the most humane education contributes to the students' free and autonomous self-development. For the European Landscape Convention, a "fire-lighting" approach of education and training would be appropriate, that can also be indicated as Human Resource Development in its true sense (Van Mansvelt & Kólster 1990; Van Mansvelt 1990). Emancipation and empowerment are leading criteria in this approach, that addresses the intellectual education (knowledge oriented: cognition) as well as the emotional education (finding out about the feelings & values: affection) and also the motorative education (knowing about doing, how to practice: conation). In the mentioned literature these levels are referred to as cognitive, affective and conative (Bawden & Valentine 1984). They figure predominantly in such areas as science, politics and practice respectively, though all three are somehow present in each of them, be it more or less conscious and ready for dialogue.

The cognitive domain of education

In the cognitive domain of education, Bloom (1956) differentiated some six steps, from a passive memorisation of facts ("Factual knowledge") to full understanding of the facts in their methodological context ("Evaluation"). See Box 1.

Box 1: Steps in the cognitive domain

From passive memorisation of facts ('Knowledge') to full understanding in context ('Evaluation'):

Factual knowledge	= facts / data to be memorised and reproduced on demand.
Comprehension	= simple "if ... then ..." connections between the data, direct associations.
Application	= useful application of abstract regulations and prescriptions in a well-known context.
Analysis	= explicit determination of different structural elements in publications/ situations, recognise intentions / manipulations, etc.
Synthesis	= reconstructing or reorganising all kind of given situations, trials, explanations; reviewing, planning and explaining clearly/convincingly; formulating laws of nature, etc.
Evaluation	= getting explicit hold of essentiality, realistic judgement of essential values/ultimate quality requirements; summarising the essence of a paper/case/situation.

Here the first steps or levels of cognition require relatively superficial individual involvement in the landscape, as compared with the later ones. They are in general sufficient for those studying for credits, but do not satisfy those studying for interest in the landscape. Therefore, the presented sequence is also a sequence of increasing involvement of the student into the landscape, which is, at the same time, an increasing internalisation of the whole landscape in the student. In this same process of internalisation-by-involvement, the need for an outer authority, to give the necessary help or orders to make things work out, decreases, as emancipation, and the scale of own practicable responsibility, increases. Whereas with cognition of the type of the lower levels many actions can be taken in an “automatic”/ “habitual” way, the higher levels of cognition demand an increasingly constant awareness of the situation and an increasing self-reflection. The division of the scale into six steps is basically comparative and qualitative. Studying any of the landscape’s features on all these levels or steps, helps to discover and communicate these levels. It is interesting to notice that such discussions exceed the purely technical dimensions of the landscape, leading the participants of the discussion to express themselves more personally, even individually on their concepts and perceptions of their landscape and the research methods used to explore it.

The affective domain of education

In the affective domain of education, five steps have been differentiated by Bloom (1956), starting with a relatively passive / neutral “Reception” or noticing of the information to a state of involvement that he called “Characterisation” where one has become a representative of a chosen paradigm by identifying oneself with it. These steps can be described as shown: Box 2.

Box 2: Steps in the affective domain

From relatively passive / neutral “Reception” or noticing of the information to a state of involvement that here is called “Characterisation”:

Receiving = from “untouched awareness” to “controlled attention” or “passive looking for repetition(s) of the event”.

Responding = from “goody-goody compliance” to “satisfactionh in joining”.

Valuing = from “tentative acceptance of a value in a passive way” (OK, call me a student of landscape science) to “effective commitment to a value in an active way” (let me tell tyou how wonderful if is to be a landscape ecologist).

Organising = from “ideal conceptualisation of a chosen system of values” to “harmonisation or integration of different complex value systems within one value system”.

Characterising = becoming a prototypical representative of a chosen philosophy of life, as a result of its complete internalisation.

Here, as in the case of the different steps in cognition, the first ones require the least personnel commitment, and, going from receiving to characterisation, the commitment with landscape increases, together with the incorporation or internalisation of the relevant landscape values. Thereby, the third level marks the important transition from being a more or less passive onlooker/outsider, to becoming a convinced participant/insider, through a process of gradual identification with the landscape. But, as this field or domain of affection touches the human being much deeper than the field or domain of cognition does, touching it in a less conscious and therefore more vulnerable way, its elaboration is a much more sensitive matter than that of the cognitive domain. To be explored in a fruitful way, this domain requires mutual respect among those involved in practical engagement in the landscape.

However, often concern is expressed on the growing disengagement, the lack of interest and, in general, the increasing alienation of “modern” people with regard to landscape. Many point to the fact that all children and students are somehow influenced in their affective field by their tutoring staff. So there is no sense in denying, underestimating or suppressing this aspect of education, on the contrary. By giving it appropriate attention, this field of affection becomes more and more open for self-conscious and self-responsible management. It can be argued that an increasing clearness about one’s own attitude towards landscape implies something like emancipation in regard of one’s own affections and emotions. This emancipation, decreasing the dependency on uncontrolled emotions, does not at all mean a complete abstinence from all empathy (sym- or antipathy), but rather an increasingly clear awareness of its indispensable signalling function. Here, it can be realised that, on the contrary, it is precisely the outsider/onlooker situation that leaves a person much more captive of, and dependent on, his own/subjective feelings, which thus tend to fail in supporting a clear, communicative relation with the “others”. The implicit, non-communicable socio/emotional dependence of scientists in general was discussed earlier (Van Mansvelt & Kólster 1990) as a counterproductive, irrational barrier against the acceptance and introduction of innovation in landscape (cfr. Miller 1984, MacRae *et al.* 1989, Van Mansvelt & Van der Lubbe 1999, Pedroli 2000).

The cognitive domain of education

Now we come to the conative domain of education (Bawden & Valentine, 1984) which refers to the implementation of the understanding, in a certain affective state, through handling, into the practical living landscape where doing is essential. Referring to literature (see Van Mansvelt 1990, 1992). Several levels of autonomy in handling can be distinguished, ranging from the initial imitative acting, to acting out of a free fully self-conscious dedication to the landscape.

Box 3: Steps in the cognitive domain

From the initial imitative acting according to the master's example, to acting out of a free fully self-conscious dedication to the landscape:	
Imitation	= Learning practice from practice is where apprenticeship starts: "don't talk (so much), just look and do like I do". The choice for a master whom to imitate, and in what aspects, is the student's.
Handling	= This ranges from "dutifully adjusting complex manipulation" to "personal concern for flawless performance". The master's example is present in the student's mind, imaginary but efficient. This level complies with the "mate/journeyman" in the old guilds, or the traineeship in landscape design and management offices.
Mastering	= Here the craft or art is mastered: the student is ready for independent self-employment as the outer authority has become sufficiently incorporated. Here a transition from freedom of outer control and interference into freedom for individual motivation may develop, based on increasing experience and a widening world-view.
Engagement	= Here the challenge is to perform increasingly creative, perfect and outstanding in the profession itself. This demands an ever-increasing engagement with and into the relevant landscape(s) including its socio-cultural conditions (and constraints). Ongoing self education in fine-tuning of the individual capacities and performance to those of the colleagues, in professional organisations.
Dedication	= Appropriate identification with the essence of the chosen landscape leads to convergence of the own interests with those of the partners at stake: human and natural, individuals and entities. The responsible and self-conscious individual gradually replaces the self-centred ego.

In the sequence presented in Box 3, the level of pure motoration gradually transits into conation, as the amount of consciousness and effective responsibility on all actions, gradually increases with the years of individual, autonomous experience. Where the discussion on education of the affective domain was already obviously at stake in recent decades, the explicit education of the conative domain is essential for the century we now live in. The famous French philosopher (also minister of cultural affairs) André Malraux stated in the mid-eighties of the previous century: the 21st century will be the century of ethics or it will not be at all. Just like before, here again it must be argued that by not explicitly including this realm into educational objectives, and be it only provisionally, can no more be justified once one recognises that implicit ethics are incompatible with human emancipation. The success of this type of education will be reflected in the landscapes of the 21st century.

Using the degree of emancipation and internalisation of the cognitive, affective and motorative-conative capacities as a key to their comparison, Table 2 gives an attempt to integrate them.

Table 2: Overview of steps in the three psychological domains of human education

Domains Levels	Cognitive domain	Affective domain	Conative domain
Pre-emancipatory levels: emphasis on <i>Staff-initiated education</i>	Knowledge	Receiving	Imitation
	Comprehension	Responding	Handling
Increasing Internalisation of learning into <i>Self-development</i>	Application	Valuating	Mastering
	Analyses		
Emphasis on <i>student-initiated learning</i> on the Post-emancipatory levels	Synthesis	Organising	Engagement
	Evaluation	Characterising	Dedication

To finish this section, two points remain to be made:

1. It must be stressed that a scheme like this should in no way be taken as a strict, one-way, exclusive approach. It is meant as a tool to increase the awareness of gradients in the process of learning, as a tool for understanding various levels in learning and in human capacities. This could structure human resource development education and training in such a way that it includes teaching both *theory* and *practice* in a way that includes the training of the *affective* domain. Especially the latter domain is important in landscape awareness, while concerning the *real* landscape. It is only meant as a tool to implement the demands made in section 4.1. for the full conscious relationship with the landscape at stake, for research, development and – most important – living, working and enjoying in.

2. The human capacities as summarised in Table 2 can be seen as conditioning the way in which the landscape dimensions as mentioned in Table 1 can be perceived, understood, appreciated and consequently practised. These same capacities are more or less conditioning the way in which people see themselves and others (colleagues, opponents, clients, superiors, etc.). This again is reflected in political choices such as going for a strategy of mainly punishing the wrong-doings in the before-mentioned relationship (bad behaviour oriented strategy) or going for a strategy of rewarding the appreciated behaviour (focus on doing the good).

Similarly, the less people's notion to develop their own capacities to the higher levels as indicated in Table 2, the more people tend to a strategy of "*divide et impera*" (divide and govern), with all its possibilities of leading to segregation and disintegration. On the other hand it seems obvious that the more people are aware of the perspectives of their capacities (life-long-learning, etc.), the more they may see the benefits of going for a "*liga et serve*" (link and serve) approach of the matters they are involved in. The latter approach clearly is a prerequisite for the approach recommended in this paper's final section (5).

Prerequisites for engagement

In the light of the previous elaboration of steps in landscape research and the elaboration of landscape awareness in education, some key aspects of ways and degrees in engagement to the landscape should here be referred to.

First there is the process of gradually becoming aware of the landscape one lives and works in. For most people, the landscape they are born and raised in is the "normal" one. Mountain people wonder about flatlands, forest people about arable fields, urban people about the countryside, mainland people about the coastal areas, and vice versa. Living "elsewhere" can be exciting, challenging and pleasing. "Coming home" often provides two kinds of feeling: one of relaxation and familiarity and another of strangeness. People see, hear, smell, in short: they experience the old familiar surroundings in a new way. But they also appreciate it in a new, more self-aware way. Emancipation from the home-land apparently went along with some alienation, bringing about a higher level of conscious awareness of the home-land's peculiarities in contrast to those of the other landscapes as newly discovered.

In meeting a new landscape, several steps can be discerned. They follow one another in a never ending sequence of steps that can be described in the following way:

- sensorial observation / collection of data;
- conceptualisation of the observations made, leading to some kind of understanding / making a model of system of the collected data in the light of a certain theory (1, 2);
- validation of the landscape as understood, leading to some kind of appreciation through the use of a chosen system of values (1, 2, 3);
- action on viz. into the landscape, implementing the appreciation in the light of the understanding (1, 2, 3, 4).

Interestingly, in the process leading from 1 to 4, the objective outsider's position (1) is stepwise transformed into an insider's subjective engagements position (4). In 1 reflection is required whereas in 4 full involvement is at stake. As said in the previous section, there seems to be quite some congeniality between the approach to education as men-

tioned in Table 2 and the sequence presented in the four points mentioned here. This may become clear when the sequence 1 – 4 from here is kept in mind when looking from “Knowledge” and “Receiving” in Table 2 down to “Characterisation” and “Dedication”.

Reflection on this sequence, by the way, rather clearly shows how objective knowledge and understanding inevitably are a product of making objective the as such inevitably subjective research path one has followed (Feyerabend 1975). Reporting on all cognitive, affective and conactive steps in the pathway that has lead one to come to a certain awareness or conclusion, making it sharable with “the others”, that is making it objective. “From this point of view, looking that way, under these conditions, you can see what I mean” could be a phrasing of that process of “objectivation”.

Quite often these four steps are made by different partners in a landscape development process: the data-provision (1) is done by another group of people then the use of the data for planning and drawing of proposals (2). Deciding on landscape plans (3) once again is done by other people then those collecting the data or those providing the proposals. And finally, working the landscape (4) according to the plans (2) as decided for (3) is most often done by other people than those previously mentioned. No wonder that alienation, lack of interest, lack of care and repeating fights on rights for whatever subgroup of land-users interested in a specific aspect of the landscape can easily come about. Based on the experiences that lead to these considerations, the proposal is made to make sure that in landscape planning all four categories of experts and functionaries are sufficiently involved in all four steps (Table 3).

Table 3. Steps usually made and steps proposed for regional landscape planning

Steps	Groups usually involved, in separate steps	Groups to be involved, in overlapping steps
Sensorial observation / collection of data	Field data monitoring groups	Monitoring groups & Planners & Decision makers & Implementing Practitioners (iterative actions in overlapping sessions)
Conceptualisation of the observations / making a model	Landscape planners	and Representatives of various interest groups relevant for & active in the particular region/ landscape to be sufficiently engaged in Steps 1 to 4
Validation & appreciation of the landscape, through a chosen value system	Policy & decision makers	
Action on viz. into the landscape / implementing the appreciation in the light of the understanding	Implementing practitioners	

This means that appropriate involvement of all those affected by the landscape: that is by its management, its planning and its perception, is crucial to warrant that management to fit the actual demands of those living, working and spending leisure time in it. Local involvement of those living in the landscape and general expertise in various options for the land-use in a national context may be mixed in the mentioned process to warrant the ongoing development of the landscape's identity in a regional and subsequently in a national and supra-regional context. At the same time, all landscape discipline's experts should be asked to contribute their expertise into the landscape development as a whole, without forcing their disciplinary logic and values on the landscape, subduing the others. Whereas the latter would lead to monotonous, single purpose landscapes that lack appreciation, the co-operative approach as mentioned could bring about a highly diverse, multifunctional landscape. It would allow the individual landscapes to function as ecologically and economically sound socio-cultural organs in the national organism.

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Jardins du bien-être: l'exemple des jardins familiaux en Hongrie

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Les lotissements de jardins caractérisés par une mosaïque de petites parcelles plantées de vignes, d'arbres fruitiers, de légumes, peuplées de constructions composites sont des éléments constants du paysage rural et périurbain de la Hongrie, comme d'ailleurs des autres pays d'Europe centrale et orientale. Ils sont le reliquat d'un patrimoine façonné au fil des besoins des différentes époques, devenus aujourd'hui des espaces dévolus en pleine mutation, que les pouvoirs publics et les aménageurs cherchent à maîtriser. Ces jardins, véritables paysages miniatures, investis par des générations de jardiniers se présentent comme un terrain d'étude intéressant pour examiner l'évolution des rapports des individus à leurs espaces de vie.

Quelle est l'histoire de ces jardins ? Que signifient ces espaces pour leurs utilisateurs ? Quel a été leur rôle et quel rôle peuvent-ils avoir dans le nouveau contexte économique et social ? Ce sont les questions qui ont été posées aux jardiniers dans le cadre de l'enquête sur les jardins familiaux¹ menée dans différentes régions du pays.

Jardins pour la subsistance, le bien-être matériel

En suivant l'histoire des jardins utilitaires – qui sont populaires en Hongrie – nul doute que la production des biens matériels à destination des populations en manque devait être à l'origine de leur développement. Déjà les serfs de l'époque féodale disposaient de lopins de terre où ils pouvaient cultiver des denrées pour leurs besoins personnels. La production des jardins extra-muros qui cernaient les cités permettait à leurs habitants d'obtenir des revenus complémentaires pour payer leurs redevances. Les jardins vivriers existaient aussi autour des logements temporaires à proximité des terres labourées où les paysans s'établissaient pendant la belle saison. Les plus démunis, n'ayant « ni feu ni lieu » au village étaient autorisés à s'installer dans des cabanes construites dans les vignes, ils ont planté aussi des arbres fruitiers et cultivaient des légumes entre les ceps; pratique ancestrale que l'on retrouve encore dans les jardins de vigne traditionnels. La structure de la plupart des communes même urbanisées garde encore aujourd'hui des traces de parcelles jardinées.

1. Etude intitulée: «*Kertek és kertművelők. Vidékfejlesztés vagy urbanizáció?*» (Jardins et jardiniers. Développement rural ou urbanisation ?), réalisée par Cros Kárpáti Z., Gubicza C., Ónodi G. de l'Institut de la gestion de l'environnement de l'Université agronomique de Gödöllő, à la demande du Ministère chargé de l'aménagement du territoire en Hongrie.

Les jardins ouvriers ont connu une expansion tardive et modérée dans ce pays qui est resté durant le règne des Habsbourg le grenier à blé de la Monarchie et dans lequel l'industrialisation a commencé seulement vers la fin du dix-neuvième siècle. Les écrivains populistes entre les deux guerres mondiales ont souvent abordé la question des jardins et du jardinage. L'un de leurs disciples Imre Somogyi dans son ouvrage « Vers une Hongrie jardinée » prêchait en faveur du développement des jardins, en renforçant le savoir-faire paysan par de nouvelles techniques et des connaissances horticoles.

Le développement massif des jardins ouvriers et familiaux s'est produit à l'époque collectiviste. Au départ les lots de jardins distribués aux travailleurs étaient destinés à combler les déficiences des productions vivrières que les coopératives et les grands combinats d'Etat n'arrivaient pas à fournir. Après 1956 les coopératives ont commencé à allouer aux ouvriers agricoles des parcelles ne convenant pas à la culture industrielle. La production de ces jardins était destinée à leur propre subsistance, mais ils pouvaient vendre l'excédent sur le marché. A la fin des années 60 de nouveaux lotissements de jardins ont été désignés aux non-agriculteurs: ouvriers, mineurs, cadres, enseignants étaient demandeurs; ils se sont adonnés avec passion au jardinage. Un réseau de distribution national s'est mis en place, pour collecter et acheminer les produits récoltés dans ces jardins vers les consommateurs demandeurs de fruits et légumes frais.

Jardins pour les loisirs

Le succès des lotissements de jardins en plus de leur fonction dans l'approvisionnement est dû aussi à leur rôle comme espace de loisirs. Les restrictions de voyager à l'étranger, la limitation des voitures personnelles ont contribué à ce que les jardins à proximité des lieux d'habitation, facilement accessibles en transport en commun, en vélo ou à pied deviennent des lieux d'évasion, où il est possible d'aller se détendre l'après-midi après le travail ou à la fin de la semaine. Pouvoir séjourner dans son jardin est alors peu à peu devenu un désir des familles qui ont construit des maisons pour y passer leur temps libre, quitte à déjouer la réglementation qui n'autorisait que de petites constructions à usage agricole.

Le rôle lucratif est ainsi devenu tel, que de nombreux nouveaux lotissements ont été créés dans les zones attractives: en bordure de lacs, cours d'eaux, étangs et canaux, près des boisements. C'étaient des jardins de taille réduite où la pêche et le repos dans le jardin prenaient le pas sur le jardinage, les plantes décoratives remplaçant des plantations utilitaires.

Jardins pour y habiter

L'ouverture des pays de l'Est a apporté des changements sociaux considérables et modifié l'utilisation des jardins. L'abondance des produits sur le marché, l'augmenta-

tion du coût des intrants du jardinage et surtout le vieillissement de la population des jardiniers nés après guerre ont été les causes principales du changement de leur destination d'origine. Le déclin du rôle de la production vivrière est devenu sensible par l'aspect moins soigné des jardins, par l'augmentation des surfaces en friche. Les constructions destinées à l'usage temporaire sont devenues souvent des habitations permanentes pour les couches sociales les plus défavorisées. Chômeurs et retraités n'ayant pas de revenus suffisants pour payer les charges de leur appartement en ville, ont trouvé refuge dans ces constructions souvent précaires. Le manque d'équipement, le mauvais état des voies d'accès, les nuisances causées par l'absence d'assainissement et de ramassage des ordures ménagères, posent maintenant de nombreux problèmes sanitaires au niveau de la qualité du sol et de l'environnement. Comme les produits du jardin apportent un complément alimentaire, ils continuent à le cultiver, à y élever de la volaille, des lapins et même des porcs, souvent source de nuisances et de conflits avec le voisinage.

La valeur immobilière et la destination future de ces lotissements de jardins dépendent de leur situation. Pendant que les zones de jardins à proximité des zones urbaines et des zones d'activités, faciles à viabiliser sont recherchées pour y créer de nouvelles habitations résidentielles, les jardins plus éloignés et mal desservis deviennent des lieux de refuge pour les marginaux.

Bien-être individuel et social dans les jardins

L'évolution très sensible de ces jardins après 1989 a conduit les pouvoirs publics à faire réaliser un inventaire permettant de prendre en considération les facteurs responsables des changements constatés. En analysant les résultats, il apparaît que l'image que donnent les utilisateurs de leur jardin ne correspond pas toujours à celle des observateurs extérieurs, ces derniers considérant les lotissements de jardins comme des espaces à problème en pleine décomposition, qu'il est temps de maîtriser.

L'enquête réalisée auprès des jardiniers¹ nous a permis de mieux connaître « leur jardin secret », c'est-à-dire non seulement les composants physiques de leur espace, mais les sentiments qu'ils éprouvent à son égard. Il s'est avéré, que le jardin est pour eux un espace plutôt idyllique, ayant une vocation multiple aussi bien utilitaire que symbolique. Sans vouloir hiérarchiser les résultats de l'enquête, nous présentons ici quelques uns des éléments qui ressortent des entretiens sur le thème du bien-être individuel et social.

1. Près de 200 entretiens semi-directifs réalisés d'après questionnaire avec la participation des étudiants de l'Institut de gestion de l'environnement de Gödöllő.

Le jardin comme un espace de bien-être individuel

Dans la plupart des lotissements, le jardin est un petit espace individualisé, séparé par les clôtures des voies d'accès et des parcelles voisines. Le jardinier se sent ici chez lui. Comme il y est occupé du matin au soir, il le quitte rarement.

Le jardin est donc avant tout un lieu d'activité pour le jardinier, un laboratoire en plein air où il peut semer, planter, soigner des plantes, produire des aliments, expérimenter différentes pratiques culturelles, et apprécier les résultats obtenus.

Les jardiniers interrogés considèrent le jardin comme leur bien personnel, qui leur appartient même s'ils ne sont pas propriétaires du terrain, car ce sont eux qui les ont créés en défrichant les terrains incultes, délaissés¹.

Ils se sentent dans leur jardin près de la nature et s'appliquent à rester en harmonie avec elle. Toutefois le jardin n'est pas la nature sauvage pour eux, mais la nature domestiquée, qu'ils ont façonnée. Le jardinage permet d'observer la nature, de la voir évoluer et de la prendre comme alliée.

Les jardiniers constatent que tous les sens sont sollicités dans leur jardin. Ils en tirent un sentiment de plénitude et de bien-être physique. On note souvent une description poétique des sensations qu'ils éprouvent relatives à :

- la vue, de par la beauté des formes et des couleurs des plantes et l'ordonnement recherché des composants du jardin;
- l'odorat, de par le parfum des fleurs, de l'air, de la terre humide;
- l'ouïe, de par le chant des oiseaux, le silence, le souffle du vent;
- le toucher, de par le contact de la terre, des plantes qu'elles soient utiles ou adventices;
- le goût de tout ce que produit leur jardin; ils prétendent avec fierté que les saveurs de ces fruits et légumes n'ont rien à voir avec ce qu'on trouve ailleurs.

Le jardin joue un rôle important comme lieu d'évasion et de compensation où on retrouve tout ce qu'on n'a pas à la ville, entre les quatre murs de l'appartement: le grand air, la verdure, la tranquillité. On s'y rend aussi souvent qu'on peut, même quand il n'y a rien à faire, simplement pour le plaisir de s'y retrouver.

Le jardin est aussi un lieu de liberté, où l'on peut se retrouver avec soi-même, se sentir chez soi à l'abri du monde extérieur, s'exprimer en toute liberté. Dans son jardin on

1. Aujourd'hui la plus grande partie des jardins familiaux est en propriété privée en Hongrie, l'accession à la propriété a commencé largement avant la privatisation, à la fin des années 70 quand les collectivités locales ont proposé aux locataires d'acheter les terrains occupés pour un prix très avantageux en prenant en compte leur travail investi pour transformer les terrains incultes en jardin.

peut faire ce qu'on a envie de faire, agir selon ses propres idées, réaliser ses projets, ses rêves¹.

Le jardinage est considéré comme une thérapie physique et psychique à la fois. Il permet de garder la forme, de rester en bonne santé en exerçant une activité en plein air. Avoir les tâches quotidiennes permet de rester actif et de se sentir utile, ce qui est important pour les retraités et les chômeurs qui se retrouvent du jour au lendemain sans but. Le jardinage fait oublier les soucis quotidiens,

le travail, la maison, le stress. Il permet aussi une hygiène de vie saine, un maintien en bonne santé grâce aux activités physiques et à la nourriture perçue comme naturelle.

Le jardin comme un espace de bien-être social

Le lotissement de jardins a aussi une dimension plus étendue permettant d'avoir des rapports sociaux avec les voisins, les autres jardiniers. Les jardiniers tirent fierté de leur jardin, ils sont contents de montrer aux autres les fruits de leurs efforts.

Le jardin est pour eux un lieu de démonstration, une vitrine qu'ils présentent volontiers aux voisins, aux amis, aux visiteurs. Ils ouvrent facilement le portillon de leur jardin même aux visiteurs inopinés pour leur faire découvrir leurs plantations, expliquer leur pratique du jardinage, faire goûter les produits de leur jardin.

C'est aussi un lieu de convivialité où le jardinier invite le visiteur à prendre place autour de la table disposée sous la tonnelle ou sous le noyer, ou même pour un verre d'amitié à la cave pour y faire déguster son propre vin fabriqué à partir du raisin récolté au jardin².

Le lotissement de jardins est aussi un lieu de rencontre permettant une vie sociale et économique, le contact avec les voisins; ils font du troc avec les plantes et les produits, ils échangent leurs expériences, leurs connaissances. Ils se retrouvent le soir chez les uns, les autres pour discuter ou boire un verre ensemble.

Le sentiment de réussite motive beaucoup les jardiniers. Les associations des amis des jardins, très actives avant 1989, rassemblaient les différentes catégories socioprofessionnelles dans une idéologie égalitaire et étaient à l'origine d'une compétition fraternelle stimulant les jardiniers en leur attribuant des prix, des récompenses aussi bien pour les produits que pour l'apparence de leur jardin. Cette compétition a beaucoup

1. Cet aspect des jardins était très important dans les pays de l'Est pendant toute la période collectiviste limitant toute forme de libéralisme.

2. En Hongrie la vigne est à l'honneur dans tous les jardins : aussi bien dans les jardins de vigne traditionnels que dans ceux créés pendant la période communiste où se trouvent toujours quelques rangées de ceps ou tonnelles tapissées de vigne.

perdu de sa dynamique aujourd'hui avec la disparition du communisme et la montée de l'individualisme entraînant l'affaiblissement du mouvement associatif des jardiniers.

Les changements de propriétaires compromettent aussi la solidarité collective qui caractérisait des jardins dont les utilisateurs avaient les mêmes intérêts et induisent des conflits entre les jardiniers qui poursuivent les cultures traditionnelles et les nouveaux occupants qui considèrent le jardin comme un lieu de loisirs. Le traitement de la vigne et des arbres fruitiers, le brûlage des feuilles, le bruit des tondeuses de gazon, la musique des jeunes qui dérange les vieux, sont source de différends quotidiens.

Quels types de jardins pour la Hongrie de demain ?

Dans le contexte social, politique et économique qui a suivi l'ouverture des pays de l'Est, le rôle des jardins a sensiblement changé. La plupart des lotissements de jardins qui se trouvent à proximité des villes ou à leur périphérie sont fortement sollicités par le développement urbain et subissent une forte pression foncière. Les propriétaires n'ont pas la même attitude vis-à-vis des changements: d'après l'enquête la majorité des anciens occupants voudrait garder le jardin tel qu'il est et continuer à le cultiver comme avant, soit parce qu'ils y sont attachés, soit parce qu'ils n'ont pas les moyens pour contribuer à la réalisation de la voirie de desserte et au financement des travaux de construction; par contre les nouveaux propriétaires revendiquent les équipements, le classement en zone d'habitation.

Les intérêts divergents renforcent le caractère hétéroclite de ces espaces où se côtoient jardins soignés et parcelles délaissées, baraquements bricolés et constructions neuves, populations défavorisées et familles riches.

Les entretiens avec les élus, les aménageurs, les associations et les propriétaires de jardins des différentes régions examinées nous ont permis de dresser une typologie des jardins en vue de leur usage et de leur évolution probable:

Dans certains cas le « rôle jardin » devrait rester privilégié:

- c'est le cas des jardins où la culture de la vigne est toujours dominante, l'attachement à la viticulture des propriétaires restant fort. Le classement en zone viticole permettrait de conserver des côteaux plantés de rangées de ceps, d'arbres fruitiers, des maisons et des caves de vigneron, si caractéristiques du paysage rural traditionnel de la Hongrie;
- dans les espaces où la passion du jardinage persiste: des associations maintiennent vivace l'esprit des jardins familiaux. Plusieurs lotissements de jardins gérés par des associations ou les collectivités locales ont été créés récemment qui permettent d'espérer un certain renouveau de ce type de jardinage;

- dans les jardins dont les produits spécifiques bénéficient de signes de qualité tel qu'appellation d'origine, produits du terroir ou produits issus de la culture biologique;
- dans les jardins récréatifs situés à proximité ou au bord même des plans d'eaux, des rivières, des canaux avec des petites constructions de week-end où l'attrait de l'eau et de la pêche semble assurer leur pérennité.

D'autres jardins sont en pleine mutation, leur maintien semblant incertain à long terme:

- c'est le cas des jardins en voie de colonisation par des constructions individuelles souvent spontanées ou illégales, d'aspect très hétérogène; leurs occupants voudraient légaliser ces constructions et classer le lotissement de jardins en zone constructible même s'il est peu adapté à cette nouvelle fonction;
- les lotissements de jardins déjà classés « en zone d'habitation pavillonnaire », en cours de viabilisation et de construction; le paysage y est déjà en pleine mutation, avec notamment la diminution sensible des espaces plantés;
- les espaces communaux donnés à cultiver en jardin pour une durée déterminée, gérés généralement par une association. Il s'agit d'une forme de gestion temporaire de l'espace, souvent dans un but collectif ou social.

Si les pouvoirs publics laissent s'effectuer spontanément ces transformations, le patrimoine de jardins paysans et familiaux, encore très significatif en Hongrie, est rapidement menacé, entraînant avec sa disparition un des derniers liens des populations urbaines avec le monde du vivant.

Conclusion

La majorité des jardins familiaux ont été créés en Hongrie pendant la période communiste et ils ont joué un rôle social important en contribuant au bien-être de la population de cette époque. La pratique du jardinage a permis non seulement l'entretien de la santé physique, mais aussi le maintien de la santé morale et psychique. Avoir son jardin signifiait « à cette époque tout collectif » d'avoir un « chez soi », de pouvoir créer son espace pour son épanouissement personnel. La nouvelle classe « ouvrière et citadine » retrouvait dans ces petits lots de jardins ses racines avec la terre, elle pouvait y reconquérir la nature et créer son paysage pour son bien-être.

L'inventaire qui a été réalisé sur les jardins nous révèle un attachement très fort de cette génération de jardiniers passionnés, aujourd'hui âgés, à leur jardin, mais il montre aussi que l'époque des jardins multifonctionnels dans leur forme traditionnelle est révolue, laissant la place aux nouveaux usages et aux nouvelles formes de jardinage. Les lotissements de jardins près des villes se transforment, ils deviennent des réserves foncières de la périurbanisation où les cultures sont progressivement

remplacées par les habitations et leurs jardins d'agrément. Aux endroits moins bien situés, de nombreux jardins laissés en friches ou occupés par des marginaux annoncent l'abandon de ces espaces devenus temporairement ou définitivement sans destination.

Il reste à espérer que le regain sensible dans les pays de l'Union européenne à l'égard des jardins et notamment des jardins familiaux se manifestera aussi dans ce pays qui retrouvera son image « de la Hongrie jardinée ». Une connaissance de la transformation de ces jardins, une meilleure prise en compte de leurs caractéristiques et de l'attente de leurs utilisateurs est devenue rapidement nécessaire afin que les pouvoirs publics puissent prendre les dispositions réglementaires, éventuellement législatives, au moins pour maîtriser l'évolution du foncier, des équipements collectifs et des paysages que ces jardins ont contribué à façonner et pour leur garantir une évolution patrimoniale conforme aux aspirations des utilisateurs et au bien-être individuel et social.

The experience of the Macaronesian region

José Miguel ALONSO FERNANDEZ-ACEYTUNO¹

Architect, Director of the PRAC Cabinet

I will address the following issues:

- the social need to “rediscover the landscape”, so as to recreate or protect it when it has been severely transformed, or else when it is going to undergo a process of intense transformations;
- the opportunity of using new technologies to help provide citizens with information and education, so that their contribution to the definition of “landscape quality objectives” can serve to coherently shape landscape policies and projects, while encouraging them to cooperate;
- and the conception and promotion of a network of “Landscape Stations” and “(Virtual) Landscape Museums” within the context of Macaronesia and, desirably, Europe.

General references²

Atlantis extended beyond the Pillars of Hercules and was larger than Libya and Africa put together. All of the islands were blessed by fortune, enriched with extraordinary fruits and bathed by the sun, with rivers and inexhaustible mines of precious materials. And thus prospered the legacy of fathers to sons, without them needing to become warriors, because reason and abundance were theirs. Only when ambition returned to their descendants was the order of Atlantis imperilled and the wrath of Zeus unleashed upon them ...

Plato's speech in the Academy. Athens, 389 BC

1. Mr Alonso Fernandez-Aceytuno is an urban architect and was also a professor at Barcelona's School of Architecture. Since 1981, he is the head of the PRAC Cabinet, which specialises in the proposition and development of architectural, urban planning and landscape projects aimed at the environmental rehabilitation of lands in the Canary Islands. This independent team seeks to contribute ideas and projects that it regards as being of special public utility. In an attempt to help enhance island landscapes, PRAC Cabinet has recently promoted the creation of the Canary Islands Landscape Laboratory, a not-for-profit organisation which currently brings together a select group of professionals, researchers, institutions and NGOs, with an Advisory Board comprised of accredited organisations and experts. Canary Islands Landscape Laboratory: canarias@laboratoriodepaisaje.org / www.laboratoriodepaisaje.org

2. See the Appendix: General references about the island regions of Macaronesia. It contains complementary overviews of the socioeconomic characteristics of the geographical area as a whole, the archipelagos, and inter-regional co-operation in landscape matters.

Macaronesia¹ encompasses the archipelagos of the Azores, Madeira, the Canaries, and Cape Verde, and also includes the northwest coastal area of Africa that extends along the length of Morocco, Mauritania and Senegal.

This paper essentially deals with the experience of the European Union's ultra-peripheral island regions located on the Atlantic, belonging to Portugal and Spain; but for the purpose of thematic and biogeographical coherence, also included are the islands of the Republic of Cape Verde.

The four archipelagos are made up of 28 islands (9 Azores, 2 Madeira, 7 Canary Islands and 10 Cape Verde) and numerous small islets that together comprise a territory of nearly 14,700 km². Currently populating these areas are more than 2,770,000 inhabitants (Azores 243,460, Madeira 245,000, Canary Islands 1,850,000, Cape Verde 434,600), with an average density of 189 inhabitants/km². This density reaches 450 inhabitants/km² on the island of Gran Canaria and 326 inhabitants/km² in Madeira, standing in contrast with that of other sparsely populated islands. Added to this are the more than 15,700,000 tourists/year that visit them (10M Canary Islands, 5.5M Madeira, 112,700 Azores and 90,000 Cape Verde).

The surface area of Switzerland (which has a population of 7,300,000 inhabitants and an average density of 231.3 inhabitants/km²) is equivalent to 2.8 times the terrestrial surface of Macaronesia.

It is obvious that the insular characteristics of these territories constitute a structural obstacle for their development, with complications in the majority of the sectors of the economy:

- the fragmentation of the archipelagos impedes the mobility of goods and persons and increases transport and communications costs;
- the reduced size of the regions and the scarcity of primary resources (water, land, energy) does not enable in many cases the attainment of the critical mass necessary for the application of specific policies or actions (training², social services, infrastructures³);
- and the remoteness of the European continent generates a high degree of exterior dependence in a bevy of aspects.

1. The name of Macaronesia was coined by the English geologist and botanist Philip Baker Webb (1793-1854), and is formed by the Greek expression *makáron nésoi* meaning "blissful isles".

2. See section 1.9 Education and training, of the Appendix.

3. See section 1.16 Transport infrastructures, of the Appendix.

Nevertheless, they have an exceptional climate and natural assets¹ that, together with their beaches (more than 1,600 Km.), give them outstanding touristic potential; their geographical location proves to be strategic in the trade conducted between Europe and the African and American continents; and the use of communications and information technologies is a key factor in integrating these regions into the European and world context².

Visual arguments

Simultaneously looking at graphic images of the past and the present of each island of the Azores, Madeira, Canary Islands and Cape Verde, thus eliminating considerations of time and the distance separating them, will reveal the natural and cultural links that exist among the archipelagos of Macaronesia³.

This also stands as an eloquent visual argument about an evident fact: in relation to the limited extension of its territories and the high degree of biodiversity of its terrestrial and marine species⁴, we would be hard pressed to find other spaces whose natural and cultural assets are subject to greater current and potential pressure from the processes of transformation of land use.

Landscape transformation of the islands of Macaronesia

The landscape that sustains our current landscape is certainly impressive in biodiversity, functional coherence, executive quality and beauty, which is the result of a dynamic interrelationship between natural elements and their use by inhabitants, which has enabled each island to go through different economic and social stages based on the preferential exploitation of a small amount of resources, namely hydrological resources⁵.

But today on some islands, as on Gran Canaria, the landscape is saturated and degraded, mainly in widespread peri-urban areas, following thirty years of intense

1. This Botanical Region contains 3 Biosphere Reserves, 208 EC Cultural Interest Sites, 3 National Parks, in addition to 5 spots declared World Heritage Sites. See section 1.3 Biodiversity, landscape and heritage, of the Appendix.

2. See section 1.14 R&D and 1.15 Information society, of the Appendix.

3. See "Landscape Chart" of the PAISAGEM Project drawn up by the PRAC Cabinet, selected in the first call of INTERREG IIIB 2000-2006.

4. According to the Canary Islands Biodiversity Database, there are 17,893 species and 999 subspecies (terrestrial and marine) catalogued in this archipelago, of which 3,736 and 582, respectively, are endemic; 70 in danger of extinction, according to the National Catalogue of Endangered Species. In Madeira, there are 1,226 species of which 12% are endemic. Much less biodiversity is present in the Azores, where 85% of its vegetation has been introduced; however, 5% of its species are also endemic. See section 1.3 of the Appendix.

5. See section 1.6 Hydrologic resources, of the Appendix.

development. Yet in others, such as Boha Vista, the urban environments of Vila de Sal Rei and Rabill, despite conserving their personality, are aged and expectant, as is the entire carefully conserved nexus of vernacular elements that make up its rural landscape.

The islands of the Azores and, to some degree, those of Madeira, would find certain aspects of Lanzarote or El Hierro to be familiar, particularly the walls of volcanic rock that protect their vineyards, the careful conservation of their traditional architecture and the harmonious boundary that separates urban areas from the villages and farmsteads of the countryside. Some parts of Faial, Flores and Pico bear a resemblance to others located on Tenerife and La Palma.

If we turn our attention to volcanic geomorphology¹, the radical deforestation of its primeval forests, processes of population expansion and the anthropogenic landscape, any observer can appreciate the sensible adaptation to the surroundings achieved, down through the centuries, by the men and women who inhabited these islands. This is a history that has been built rather than narrated; yet it is one which is of course not exempt from hardships, emigration and fatalism. One need only see the terraced agricultural plots² that shape the land, obeying the logic of water courses, the traditional engineering practices and architecture, the layouts of rustic and coastal settlements, and all of these tangible and intangible signs that nature and culture have ingrained in each landscape.

The generations that now inhabit them have witnessed the dizzying transformation of some islands, mainly by the direct and indirect impact of touristic development, as well as the latent calmness of others. In these urban, rural and natural landscapes, numerous new houses, housing developments, roads, industrial areas, shopping centres, garbage dumps³, marinas and – why not? – greenhouses and theme parks, have been built, are being built or are planned to be built. All of this in favour of a development thought to be beneficial and sustainable, almost exclusively argued for in terms of the number of jobs generated.

Taking note of the ways in which land is being occupied on the outskirts of existing insular towns and cities, the impact of motorways and traffic, the accelerated loss of biodiversity and speculative land buyouts, there is no doubt that the landscape of these islands – mainly on the most “developed” ones – is ceasing to be the mythic setting that enraptured scientists and travellers, and has become a fragile physical and legal entity, which is the object of worrying political decisions that affect us all.

1. See section 1.2 Geomorphologic characteristics, of the Appendix.

2. See section 1.5 Agriculture and livestock, of the Appendix.

3. See section 1.4 Environment, and section 1.7 Coastal waters, of the Appendix.

These new landscapes are increasingly the result of an economic system that operates from without and from within, imposing quantity over quality, uniformity over identity and quick profits for a few at the expense of social prosperity. All of this is taking place in a highly fragmented political, administrative and jurisdictional framework¹ with urban planning legislation that hinders the transfer of means between developed areas (landscapes to be transformed) and non-developed areas (landscapes to be conserved).

It is clear that the dialectic between identity and globalism had also existed in the past, but perhaps its effects were farther from or unknown to us. Fortunately, in recent years society has reacted, and the debate on sustainable development seems like it is beginning to move forward, albeit with different concerns and contents in the different archipelagos².

The landscape project: from socio-ecological knowledge to landscape democracy

On these islands, the landscape, that is, the quality and uniqueness of the landscape, is no longer the background sought after by touristic advertising; rather, it is the force that drives the motor of sustainable development and which will enable it to take us where we want to go.

How, then, are we to make the conservation of our exceptional landscape assets feasible without renouncing the greatest possible quality of life in the surroundings which we inhabit?

Possibly, *by making the landscape the “raison d’être” of any project.*

If some strategic contribution is to be made in the consideration of the project and the management of the landscape, it is the notion that the quality of life, project quality and landscape quality are inextricably linked.

Insofar as design methods are concerned, it is worth mentioning that it is necessary to redirect land intervention operations, on all levels, towards the objective of “projecting the landscape”, and that in the analysis of its physical morphology, there are several coherent courses for urban transformation and new approaches for the use of territorial resources.

1. On the 28 islands, there are 138 municipal governments: 22 in the Azores, 11 in Madeira, 88 in the Canary Islands and 17 in Cape Verde. In addition, in the Canaries, there is 1 *Cabildo* or Council per island.

2. Insofar as the Canary Islands are concerned, Act 6/2001, of 23rd July, establishing urgent measures in regional planning and tourism-related matters, as well as Act 19/2003, of 14th April, approving the General Planning Guidelines of the Canary Islands and Tourism Planning Guidelines for the Canary Islands.

In this connection, Florencio Zoido has remarked, citing Gilles Bertrand, that instruments deemed as innovative are those that are defined in participatory fashion and that make an approximation to local and regional power structures, those which are creative, multidisciplinary and integrational, and those which regard common landscapes as settings for everyday life.

What practical, effective means are needed in order to undo and reweave the tangle of contradictions that transforms our territories and that subjects them to the unease of not knowing whether we are headed forwards or backwards?

The ecologist Ramón Folch, at the 1st Landscape Biennial of Barcelona (1999), synthesised them in the following words: “The landscape thus constructed is a reference point of the collective imaginary and, at the same time, an economic asset of the first order: all of the capital of territorial transformations, cities and infrastructures included, are invested in the landscape. And a good part of landscape know-how is contained in socio-ecological knowledge”.

What do people feel and think about “their” landscapes and their ability to take part in their transformation? Sociologists and psychologists contend that conscience does not necessarily generate new behaviour, that the networks of power and their practices are what generate norms and consciences, and not the other way around, and that for the general populace it is difficult to define well-being in abstract terms.

It is no doubt an arduous task to strike a dynamic balance between the preservation of its resources, the conservation of traditional aesthetic values (understood as signs of identity), the consumer desires of the resident population, those of the land owners, the business community and the demands of tourists. On another front, the “call effect” in the labour market¹ produces pressure on the population, which is currently exacerbated by growing legal and illegal immigration.

Given the aforementioned state of affairs, there is an urgent need in Macaronesia not only for the European Landscape Convention to be applied, but also for an exploration of the most suitable strategies for seamlessly integrating it into the long history of landscape policies² already implemented on this islands, fostered by celebrities and environmental organisations, and by the desire of the selfsame inhabitants to conserve their identity without giving up their claim³ to those levels of quality of life – when

1. See section 1.1 Labour market, of the Appendix.

2. An overview of current landscape legislation and policies can be found at the following website: www.laboratoriodepaisajedecanarias.org which includes the presentations made by the representatives of the regional governments that took part in the “Landscape Policies and Territorial Planning” Conference held one year ago on Gran Canaria.

3. See section 1.12 Income and productive structure, of the Appendix.

they exist – attained. Perhaps the islands were much more beautiful in the past, but they also had a much rougher time of it as well.

The social aesthetics of the landscape have unquestionably changed and the intense interior and exterior migrations entail a period of time in which the landscape “is not appropriated”, that is, felt as their own by its new users.

The PAISAGEM / MACARONESIA Project¹

Within the context of the interregional co-operation made feasible by the EC initiative INTERREG IIIB² and the multiple initiatives that the soon-to-be-ratified European Landscape Convention will engender, the PAISAGEM Project has the aim of promoting the use of new technologies in order to facilitate the access of the general public (scientists, politicians and citizens) to the value enhancement of landscapes, the understanding of the processes that modify them and the participation in the decisions that must be made.

Insofar as its interregional usefulness is concerned, the Project also endeavours, in parallel fashion, to counteract “the isolation” of the Macaronesian archipelagos (among themselves and in relation to the world), applying new communications technologies in order to stimulate economic, cultural and touristic flows among the islands, as well as between the islands and continental regions.

In summary, the PAISAGEM Project proposes:

- fostering the undertaking of studies for the identification, characterisation and qualification of island landscapes, gearing them towards the definition of landscape quality objectives and indicators as prescribed by the European Landscape Convention;
- designing a landscape-specific database and a SIG (cartographic and photogrammetric) that enables the custom viewing of databases developed by the different regional government administrations of Macaronesia;

1. The PAISAGEM/ Macaronesia Project of the EC initiative INTERREG IIB drawn up by the PRAC Cabinet and promoted by the Regional Planning Bureau of the Canary Islands government. With the 2nd Call convened, the 2nd Phase of the project will be promoted, with the main aim of completing the Pilot Projects and the facilities of the Landscape Stations proposed. As far as interregional co-operation in landscape-related matters and the most recent action programmes are concerned, see section 3.1 and section 3.2, respectively, of the Appendix.

2. Regarding the backbones and themes of the interregional co-operation projects already underway, this information is contained on the following website: www.interreg-mac.org. In the 1st Call, only 1.9% of the total of FEDER financing was allocated to two projecting dealing specifically with the landscape (PAISAGEM and PARTENÓN), which shows the long road that still must be travelled by Macaronesia in this field.

- preparing and carrying out different “direct action” Pilot Projects (eight target areas, two in each archipelago at a minimum) that include natural, rural, urban and peri-urban areas, chosen in terms of the feasibility of the actions and their paradigmatic utility for being disseminated (the process and its results) by the mass media;
- promote the creation of a System of Landscape Stations that enable, via the Internet, the landscapes forming a part of the system network to be “viewed and listened to in real time”, as well as provide a convenient means of access to available information (environmental and cultural) about the landscapes monitored by the camera and sound sensors at each station;
- organise Workshops for the exchange of criteria and experiences and an International Seminar, with the goal of invigorating trans-national work (face-to-face and virtual sessions) among Managing Teams and Project participants.

The development of these initiatives and, in particular, the progressive creation of the Network of Landscape Stations of Macaronesia¹, will induce the promotion in each island region of a new museum concept, the “(Virtual) Landscape Museum”. These museums, in addition to “exhibiting and disseminating” the urban, peri-urban, rural and natural landscapes of each island in their own facilities and via the Internet, will also furnish information about natural and social history and the most recent developments.

At the outset, the idea is not so much to create extremely costly and sophisticated databases and Landscape Stations (in the style of the Observatories that EC Member states and regions are currently promoting in order to effectively plan and manage their territory) as it is to set up small and diverse facilities accessible to the populace and located in the most common areas (panoramic viewpoints, shopping centres, neighbourhood associations, public squares and beaches).

The main thing is that they should enable the analysis of the landscapes displayed, and with interactive simulation games being used to show the effects that the application of certain policies, plans and projects have had and will have on them.

These facilities could be very useful, at the proper stage, for the identification of “landscape quality objectives”, since they would encourage democratic reflection

1. The idea is to start implementing this network of Landscape Stations through the managing entities of the Canary Islands Biosphere Reserves (Lanzarote, La Palma and El Hierro), the Macaronesia areas declared as World Heritage Sites (Garajonay in La Gomera, the Old Quarter of San Cristóbal de la Laguna in Tenerife, Agra do Heroísmo in Terceira, Laurisilva Forest in Madeira), as well as a selection of EU Cultural Interest Sites (CISs). Running parallel to this, other public and private organisations will follow suit, so that they can be included in the network within the framework of the 2nd Call of INTERREG IIIB.

about people's quality of life as well as the search for answers (both simple and complex) to problems bound up with landscape quality.

In short, the PAISAGEM Project, in addition to its scientific, technical, educational and touristic usefulness, attempts to put the exercise of "landscape democracy" within the population's reach.

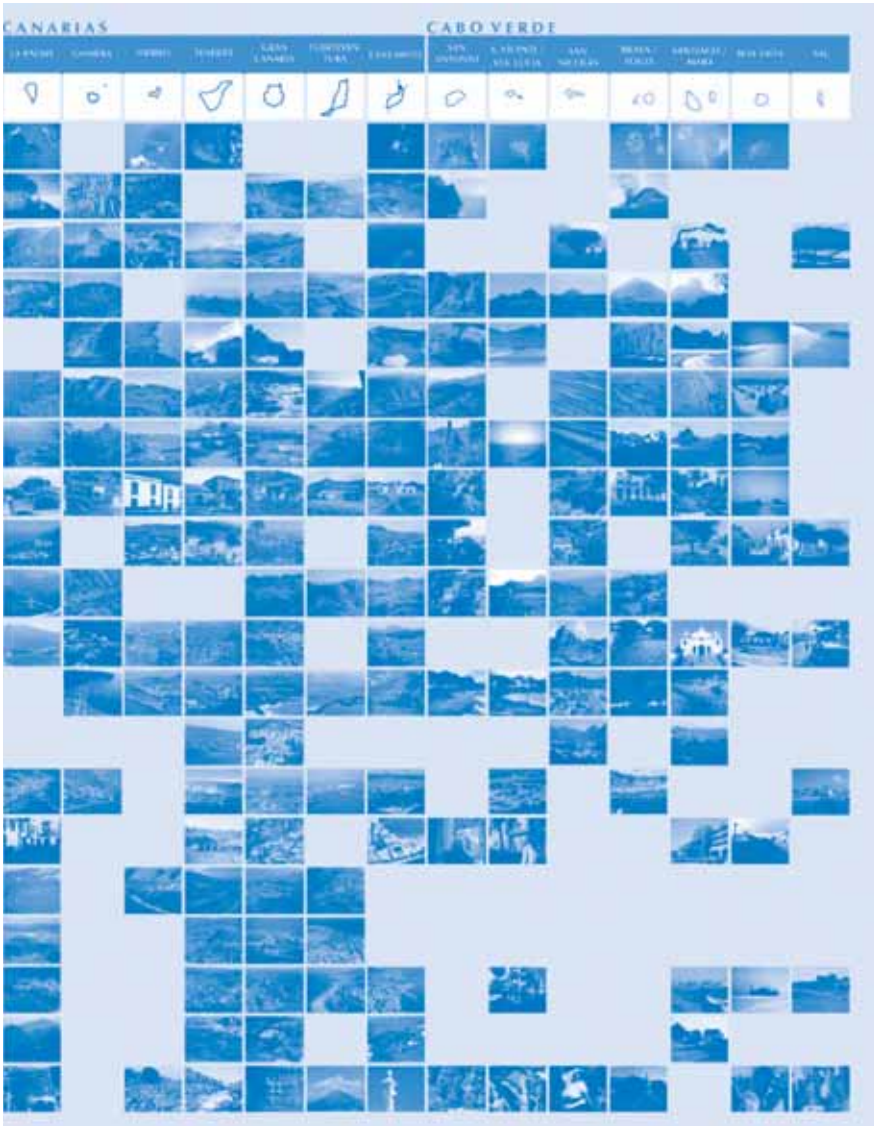
If the Council of Europe were to promote the creation of this network of Landscape Stations and Museums in all European regions, I am of the opinion that this would prove to be highly useful for the development of the European Landscape Convention's objectives.

Attached documents:

- Landscape Chart of the PAISAGEM Project, selected in the 1st Call of INTER-REG IIIB 2000-2006.
- Appendix 1: General references about the island regions of Macaronesia.

ARGUMENTOS VISUALES / Tipos de Paisagem - MAGALHÃES, Z. Cultura Pêg. - Laboratório de Paisagem / jmmayor@ua.pt

	AZORES							MADIRA	
	TERRELA (LARANJEIROS)	FAIAL (SANTA RITA)	SÃO PÍO (SANTA RITA)	SÃO PEDRO (SANTA RITA)	SÃO MIGUEL (SANTA RITA)	SÃO VICENTE (SANTA RITA)	SANTA TERESA (SANTA RITA)	SANTA TERESA (SANTA RITA)	SANTA TERESA (SANTA RITA)
REAS									
ARTES E OFICINAS									
VULCANISMO									
PAISAGEM NATURAL	Sobranceiro								
	Litoral								
PAISAGEM URBANA	Cultura								
	Educativa								
SUSTENTAMENTO URBANO	Arq. tradicional								
	Concentrado								
	Disperso								
PAISAGEM URBANA	Sobranceiro								
	Litoral								
CIDADES	Interiores								
	Urbanas								
	Costeiras								
PUBERTIAS	Reservadas								
	Perdeidas								
OUTROS PAISAGENS	Turísticas								
	Turísticas								
CULTURA									



APPENDIX

The experience of the insular regions of Macaronesia

General references about the Macaronesianregion¹

Contents

1. Geographical and socio-economic framework
 - 1.1. Location, extension and climate
 - 1.2. Geo-morphologic features
 - 1.3. Biodiversity, Landscape and Heritage
 - 1.4. Natural Environment and Natural Resources
 - 1.5. Farming and Livestock activities
 - 1.6. Water Resources
 - 1.7. Littoral and coasts
 - 1.8. Health
 - 1.9. Education and Training or only education
 - 1.10. Culture
 - 1.11. Labour Market
 - 1.12. Income and Productive Structure
 - 1.13. Tourism
 - 1.14. R&D
 - 1.15. Information Society
 - 1.16. Transport Infrastructure
 - 1.17. Energy Production and Consumption
2. Landscape policies and action programmes
 - 2.1. Canary Islands
 - 2.2. Madeira
 - 2.3. Azores
 - 2.4. Cape Verde
3. Interregional co-operation

1. Main sources of information consulted:

Summary of the Diagnostic on the social and economical situation of the Azores-Madeira and Canaries co-operation network within the Community Initiative Program INTERREG IIIB 2000-2006;

Web pages of the regional governments: www.gobiernodecanarias.org; www.gov-madeira.pt; www.acores.gov.pt; www.governo.cv; National and Regional Statistics Institutes; Summary of the Conference "Landscape Policies and Territory Planning" (Gran Canaria, December 2002).

1. Geographical and socio-economic framework of Macaronesia

1.1 Location, extension and climate

The name of Macaronesia was first coined by the English geologist and botanist Philip Baker Webb (1793-1854), and is formed by the Greek expression *makáron nésoi* (Islands of the Blessed ones).

The bio-geographical region of Macaronesia is located in the Atlantic Ocean. As a whole, the islands occupy a total land area of 14,660.25 sq km, with an estimated total population of 2.770.000 inhabitants, and an average density of 189 inhabitants per sq/km. It comprises the archipelagos of The Canary Islands, Madeira, Azores and Cape Verde (also including the Northwest African coastal area on which this document offers no information). The nearest island to the continental land is Fuerteventura (Canary Islands), being approximately 100 km off the Sub-Saharan African mainland.

The Canary Islands

Gran Canaria (1,560 sq km), Fuerteventura (1,660 sq km), Lanzarote (846 sq km), Tenerife (the largest island in Macaronesia, of 2,034 sq km, with the highest point), The Teide Peak, rising 3,717 m.), La Palma (708 sq km), La Gomera (370 sq km), El Hierro (260 sq km), and the islets of Lobos, La Graciosa and Alegranza. Total area: 7,447 sq km. Coastline: 1,558 km. The archipelago is approximately 2,000 km from the capital of Spain.

In 2002, the total population was estimated to be 1.843.755 inhabitants, with an average density of 404 pop/ sq km, which varies considerably from one island to the other (26 pop /sq km in Fuerteventura, as compared to 450 pop/ sq km in Gran Canaria Island).

Madeira

Madeira (742 sq km), being the highest point Pico Ruivo, of 1862 m. height), Porto Santo (43 sq km), and the islets of Desertas and Salvagens. Total area: 788 sq km. Coastline: 180 km. The archipelago is approximately 1000 km from the capital of Portugal.

In 2001, the resident population was estimated 245.011 inhabitants, with a population density of 306.7 pop/ sq km (1,371 pop/ sq km in Funchal, the capital of the archipelago).

Azores

Flores (143 sq km), Corvo (16 sq km), Faial (173 sq km), Pico (446 sq km, containing the highest point in Portugal, a peak rising 2,351 m.), San Jorge (246 sq km), Graciosa (61 sq km), Terceira (382 sq km), San Miguel (759 sq km, the largest in the archipelago), Santa Maria (97 sq km). Total area: 2,335 sq km. Coastline: 690 km. The archipelago is approximately 1,500 km from the capital of Portugal.

In 2002, the total estimated population was 243,463 inhabitants, with a population density of 100 pop/ sq km.

Cape Verde

Santo Antao (77 sq km), San Vicente (227 sq km), Santa Luzia (35 sq km, the only uninhabited island), San Nicolás (343 sq km), Brava (64 sq km), Fogo (476 sq km, being the highest point and rising to 2,839 m.), Santiago (991 sq km, the largest island in the archipelago and where the capital, Praia, is located), Maio (269 sq km), Boa Vista (62 sq km), Sal (216 sq km). Total area: 4,033. Coastline: 1,000 km. The archipelago is approximately 650 km from the African coast of Senegal.

In the year 2000, the total population was estimated to be 432,000 inhabitants (6% under the age of 25), and the average population density of 100 pop/ sq km. 90% of the population concentrates in Santiago, San Vicente, Santo Antao and Fogo.

Trade winds provide to the highest islands, with relatively constant rainfall, in the form of clouds, rain and fog. In the Northern archipelagos average temperatures range between 15°C and 23°C, whereas in the Eastern Canary Islands and the Cape Verde archipelago have a drier and warmer, as a result of the climatic influence of the Sahel.

1.2 Geo-morphologic features

The geology and geo-morphology of the archipelagos is the result of the volcanic eruptions that originated the islands, together with the erosive and sedimentary processes that have traced their history, being Azores the youngest of the archipelagos (7 million years), although in the Canary Island, El Hierro is the most recently formed island.

In relation to the volcanic activity, it is necessary to mention that in 1522, the city of Villa Franca do Campo, previous capital of San Miguel (Azores), was buried as a result of a volcanic eruption. More recently, in 1959, the eruption of Capelinhos, gained a wide fringe of land in the isle of Faial, also in Azores, a phenomenon that was repeated years later with the eruption of Teneguía, in the isle of La Palma (Canary Islands).

1.3 Biodiversity, landscape and heritage

The archipelagos, besides the heritage wealth of its landscape, contain most of the world biodiversity, with autochthonous animal and vegetable species of a great scientific interest.

According to the Biodiversity Data Bank of The Canary Islands, 17,893 species and 999 sub-species (terrestrial and marine) have been inventoried, of which 3,736 species and 582 sub-species are autochthonous respectively, and 70 in danger of extinction, according to the National Catalogue of Threatened Species.

In Madeira alone there are 1,226 species, 12% being autochthonous. Biodiversity in Azores is inferior, where 85% of its vegetation has been introduced, although it possesses 5% autochthonous species.

Madeira, Azores and The Canary Islands together are included in Natura 2000. In this respect, the European Commission endorsed a listing of “places of communitarian relevance in the bio-geographical region of Macaronesia”, in December 2001, in application to the Directive 92/43/CC. The listing, that only referred to the regions of the communitarian countries, consists of 208 places, comprising more than 533.000 ha. of terrestrial and marine places.

Cape Verde holds a valuable biodiversity and some relevant autochthonous species (12% on a total 1.424 species). So far, 483 units of organic agriculture have been classified and distributed within 134 farming communities and 45 different climatic zones. Although Cape Verde is not included in this listing, it participates in Nature Network 2000 through projects originated in the other regions of Macaronesia.

In addition to this, UNESCO declared “Biosphere Reserve” three islands in The Canary Islands (Lanzarote, La Palma and El Hierro), and “World Heritage” the Garajonay Park in the isle of La Gomera and San Cristóbal de La Laguna, in Tenerife, being in process of preparation the application of the historical neighbourhood of Vegueta, in the isle of Gran Canaria.

Agra do Heroísmo, in Azores, was declared “World Heritage” in 1983, as was The Laurisilva Forest in Madeira in 1999. Nowadays, both regions have applied to include in the same category the Salvagens Islands of Madeira and The Vineyard Landscape of Pico, in Azores. On its side, The Canary Islands have applied to include The Teide National Park in this category.

The Canary Islands themselves have also three National Parks: Teide in Tenerife, and La Caldera de Taburiente in La Palma, since 1974, and Timanfaya in Lanzarote, since 1974. Apart from this, The Canary Islands Network of Protected Areas comprises 145 Areas that, as a whole, protect 40% of the archipelago surface.

In Madeira, two thirds of the almost 800 sq km of its territory have the consideration of Protected Nature Reserve. In Azores, over one fifth of the land is protected. In Cape Verde, although its environmental legislation is much less developed, some islands have been declared Natural Reserve since 2001 and six new National Parks were defined in 2002.

The high patrimonial value that all this means, involves a great social and political effort that has progressively resulted in specific legislations and planning, considering not only the role that those resources play in the social, economical and cultural development of the regions themselves, but since we live in a more globalised world, it is indispensable to preserve the identity of the territories, as one of the responsibilities and fundamental rights of human beings.

1.4 Environment and natural resources

Among the main factors affecting in a determined way the environmental sustainability of the archipelagos, particularly their natural heritage, stand out: urban town-planning nearby the coasts, abundance of solid waste (increased in some islands by tourist overcrowding), marine infrastructure, craft traffic, erosive processes, shortage of water resources, uncontrolled use of pesticides or the introduction of non-autochthonous animal species and plants.

Nevertheless, the geographical situation of the isles, their climatic conditions and the low incidence of the industrial activities, contribute to the constant maintenance of good air quality. With regards to municipal waste production, it is above the national and European average production in all the islands of the archipelago. As an example, only in the Canary Islands, recent data on municipal waste is of 1.5 Kg pop a day, being the national average 1.2 Kg pop a day.

Aware of the serious problem waste represents in the islands, all the archipelagos are carrying out campaigns to raise public awareness about sewage, as well as co-financed programs to develop non-pollutant processing plants.

However, the progressive abandon of the farming activity and the dispersion of the urban settlement in rural land are strongly transforming the insular landscapes.

1.5 Farming and livestock activities

In Azores, the Utilised Agricultural Area (UAA) increased about 1.5% in 1999, although with a 32% decrease in the agricultural undertaking. In relative terms, UAA represents near 47% of the total surface land in Azores. Apart from this, there is an upward tendency of the livestock activity, one of the main economic sectors, which is strongly pressing on the archipelago resources.

In Madeira, according to the 2002 statistics, the utilised agricultural area is approximately of 4.75 of the total territory, having slightly increased with the respect to the previous year. This sector is especially important because of the famous Madeira wine.

In the Canary Islands, according to 2002 data, cultivable surface represents near 15% of the total territory, of which 6,8% is cultivated and 7,8% non-cultivated (in most cases, in a state of abandonment). The index of organic crops has no practical incidence.

However, what is relevant is the progressive increase of greenhouse crops, near 13% of the cultivated surface. Because of the absence of grazing lands, most of the livestock cabin is stabled under very precarious conditions, except for goat livestock, the most extensive in the islands.

In relation to Cape Verde, reference data in 2001 indicate that the utilised agricultural area was slightly superior to 16% of the archipelago total surface (dedicated for the most part to kidney bean and maize production), and throughout a period of 10 years, a 3% has been neglected. However, despite the low percentage of crop lands abandonment, the biggest problem in Cape Verde, which suffers severe and long droughts, is the level of the agricultural production that in 2002 was 70% inferior with respect to the previous year.

1.6 Water resources

In general all the archipelagos continue to have deficiencies, to a greater or lesser extent, in the drainage and distribution of sewage water, especially in rural areas. In Cape Verde, for instance, only 24% of the population have water supply from the public main.

Azores is by far the region with a higher volume of water for the public water supply, covering almost 97% of the population supply. Considering the lowest industrial development of the region, the pollution of subterranean waters comes mainly from farming and livestock industry pollutants, together with domestic uses due to the almost non-existent basic drainage network. To improve the situation, the Regional Water Plan has been endorsed as a tool for the management of the water resources.

In Madeira, where the highest water potential is concentrated in the North, according to 2001 data, 97% of the population get water supply from the public network, of which 50% comes from the treatment or drainage of sewage. As in Azores, Madeira also has a Regional Water Plan, which shares the management process of the water resources of Portugal.

In the Canary Islands the main source of water supply is the aquifer exploitation that means 80% of the supply, being desalination second on importance, but growing to a

relevant pace. Re-use of sewage water for the farming use is of some significance in the islands of Gran Canaria and Tenerife.

As for the sewage and sanitation of waste water, in spite of the efforts being carried out, there are still some deficiencies, yet only these two islands have acceptable drainage systems. In general, lack on collectors persists, and it is frequent the discharge of residues to the subsoil or the sea.

1.7 Littoral and coastal areas

Most of the islands in the archipelagos have steep and beautiful coasts. Cliffs and coves which are at the mouth of gullies and valleys contrast with coastal plains, beaches, jables with which some crops are covered to preserve humidity and dune areas, originated by materials of organic marine origin, that in many cases are inserted between or superimposed to volcanic material.

In general, the littoral extends under the sea on insular submarine shelves, not very large but of a pronounced uneven slope, in sandy or rocky sea bottoms which result in a great diversity of species, although not very numerous, generating very diversified littoral ecosystems, but extremely fragile under the ecological point of view. All these shape an extraordinary laboratory for the search of marine habitats, where international programmes are involved for their recovery and preservation.

In the two eastern archipelagos, the nearest to the African coast (The Canary Islands and Cape Verde), the islands with less height above sea have even slopes that, when reaching the sea, shape large beaches and wide plains with jables and dunes. Among them are famous The Dunes of Corralero, in Fuerteventura, and The Dunes of Maspalomas, in the isle of Gran Canaria, being the last with a steep and rough north coast, in contrast with the southern area, where furthestmost extensions of beaches, crowded with a massive tourism, can be found.

Regarding the quality of water in all the archipelagos of the Macaronesia, the situation is good, and in accordance with the community regulations many of their beaches have the “Blue Flag” qualification. Together, the beaches in the archipelagos extend over 1.000 km, most of them in the Canary Islands. Madeira and Azores, also with a very beautiful coast, are the archipelagos with fewer beaches. One feature derived from the volcanic origin of the islands of Macaronesia is the abundant “natural pools” in rocky areas, but suitable for bathing.

Nevertheless, the biggest challenge of the coasts and littorals is to reconcile the economical uses, mainly derived from tourism, with the preservation of their natural resources. To give an example, most of the beaches in Gran Canaria, with the exception the representative emblem of Veneguera, have already been urbanised.

Cape Verde, with 136 km virginal beaches of golden sand, faces the challenge of supervising that the perspectives of the powerful building and tourism investors have in that archipelago, do not deplete the balance of its landscape, because if it is reasonable that its inhabitants are worth of the economical development derived from their natural resources, this should be based on “positive experiences” assuming what should not be done.

1.8 Health

With the exception of Cape Verde, lacking in infrastructures, the other archipelagos have good public health systems, understanding this as a constitutional right for all citizens. Just to give some data, whereas Cape Verde had 1 bed per 569 inhabitants and 1 doctor per 2.600 inhabitants in the year 2000, in the same period Madeira had 1,9 doctors per 1.000 inhabitants and in The Canary Islands 2.7 doctors per 1,000 inhabitants.

1.9 Education and training

The fragmentation of archipelagos in islands with considerable differences with respect to their size, have negative implications in the educational system, especially because of the high cost that the creation and maintenance of a scattered educational network involve, aggravated in Cape Verde, due to the high levels of poverty.

The level of education among the population of Azores, Madeira and The Canary Islands is situated below the national average and even lower with respect to the European average, being the Portuguese islands the lowest. Besides, the problems that the insular condition involves result in a limited range of the university offer, being the situation worse in Azores and Madeira than in The Canary Islands.

Because Cape Verde has no offer of university studies (and has a schooling rate of 45% and 71% of illiteracy on population over 60), The University of Las Palmas de Gran Canaria (ULPGC) has held the first university entrance exams for the University of the Republic of Cape Verde in September 2003, as one of the actions included in the European Co-operation Project Interreg IIIB. The project involves the development of viability plans to implant university studies in the archipelago.

1.10 Culture

In addition to their valuable natural heritage, the islands of Macaronesia shape a cultural context that, without any loss in the characteristic identity of the archipelagos or the islands themselves, is the result of the crossbreeding and of the successive arrival of seafarers, discoverers, scientists, poets and artists.

The cultural display developed in the islands cover all kind of disciplines: music, literature, plastic arts, drama, dancing. All of them have a higher or lower intensity, depending on the specific cultural identity of the historical and cultural processes in every archipelago.

The Canary Islands have, for instance, a decentralised library network of 159 insular, local or university libraries, as well as significant museums and art centres, being necessary to highlight among them the Atlantic Centre of Modern Art (CAAM) that, as implied by the name, should play an important role to promote the approach between the artistic collectives of the Macaronesia.

In Madeira, besides some significant museums, there is also a regional network of public libraries since June 2002, which group the existing 64 institutions together, being of special interest the Research Centre of Atlantic History, because of its database.

The Azores Institute of Culture, created in 1955 by the initiative of a group of teachers belonging to the Angra Main Seminar, is no doubt the most dynamic cultural centre of the archipelago of Azores, including almost eight libraries of special relevance.

Cape Verde, although lacking on cultural institutions, have nevertheless a very high cultural potential due to the ethnical roots of its own inhabitants, particularly gifted for their music and dancing. Apart from this, the Municipal Library Jorge Barbosa (one of the most outstanding personalities of the Cape Verde literature) was inaugurated in the isle of Sal in December 2002, an infrastructure carried out thanks to the cooperation between the Portuguese Institute of Books and Libraries and the National Library Institute of Cape Verde.

Nevertheless, the insular condition makes difficult the interrelation of all that cultural wealth among the archipelagos with continuity and effectiveness. Neither it contributes the cultural policies of the public institutions which do not appropriately enhance a broader exchange.

1.11 Labour market

The main characteristic in the four archipelagos is the high concentration of jobs on the service sector (over 60%), with a high percentage of seasonal jobs associated to the tourist activity. In The Canary Islands, 15% of the working population are employed in the building trade. The fragmentation of the territory together with the high costs that the inter-insular transport imply, result in the low mobility of the population to other employment-generating areas.

The shortage of skilled workers and the low management vocation produce a predominance of wage and salary earners and micro-enterprises. The unemployment rate is different in every archipelago, being the highest 17.4% in Cape Verde in 2000, the

lowest in Azores with 2.2% in 2002, whereas Madeira and The Canary Islands held 2.5% and 11.12% respectively in 2002. In all cases, young people unemployment doubles the overall figures and the inequality of opportunities for women continues to be outstanding, more especially in what respects to women access to positions of responsibility.

1.12 Income and productive structure

Although The Canary Islands, Madeira and Azores belong to the group of the UE Regions Objective 1, being among them an obvious disparity, the evolution of GDP per capita in The Canary Islands is quite higher compared to the other archipelagos in relation to the European mean occupied population. Cape Verde, with high poverty levels, is by far situated below, with a growth rate of 4.6 real GIP per capita in the 1999-2002 period.

The productive structure has an obvious predominance of the service sector, with a special incidence of the tourist industry in The Canary Islands and Madeira, and a considerable loss of the primary sector. The industry is chiefly based on food and drink industries, tobacco industries and some mineral-extracting industries and intermediate products industries.

1.13 Tourism

The tourist sector has a different development in every archipelago. In The Canary Islands, tourism has being massive, reaching 9,778,512 tourists per year in 2002, whereas in Cape Verde, at the other extreme, was visited by 80,000 tourists in the same year, and has a forecast of 130,000 visitors for the year 2003. Azores, with almost half the population of Cape Verde, had 107,105 tourists in the year 2002, whereas Madeira received almost 831,975 visitors in 2002.

In all the archipelagos, wealthy in their cultural biodiversity and heritage, and within a very limited territory, the expansion of tourism implies a serious problem for the sustainability of the resources, and therefore, the policies of the different governments progressively have to take into account strategies and measures intended to the improvement of the quality of the offer, with a profitability criteria in the long term, as well as the promotion of rural tourism. In any case, these policies should necessarily enhance the farming sector, especially in the areas dedicated to the traditional crops, as they conform, at a great extent, the rural landscape heritage of most of the islands.

1.14 Research and development

The fact that most part of the enterprises network of the archipelagos is constituted by micro-enterprises or small-sized enterprises, does not favour the involvement of the

private sector on R&D investments. The public effort carried out in most regions is inferior to 0.7% of GDP in every region.

In the Canary Islands, in spite of the existence of the Technological Institute of The Canary Islands, one of the problems detected is the little adaptation to the actual needs of society and its productive network.

Azores has made a great effort on the promotion of partnership between various research entities, in spite of its serious technologic deficit, to enhance regional enterprises and projects involved in the assessment of the local production. The creation of INOVA (Institute for the Technological Innovation of Azores) has made possible the endorsement of specialised human resources on scientific research and technologic development.

The university, the creation of the Centre of Technology and Science, as well as a science park, and a Business and Innovation Centre, will allow the increase of R&D in the region of Madeira, as the investments previously made were only directed to the creation, innovation and balance of the productive activities.

1.15 Information society

In general, the indicators of the telecommunications industry still show a considerable delay with respect to the European and national average. Among other factors influencing negatively the market-penetration of ICTs in the isles of Macaronesia it is the defective training of human capital.

Nevertheless, faced with the evidence of the opportunities offered by the new information and communication technologies for the outermost regions, great efforts are being made for the modernisation of infrastructures, especially applied to the health field, cultural heritage and SME, as well as to the public access to the institutional information.

Nowadays in Azores, as in the Canary Islands, there are “Digital Plans”, co-financed by the community initiatives, aimed to the implementation of a generalised use of the new technologies through optical fibre. These actions will enhance the coordination among regions for the creation of partnerships.

Cape Verde, on his side, is making a praiseworthy effort to approach the opportunities of the other regions of Macaronesia, although there is much to do yet. The telecommunications sector is in expansion phase, after the acquisition, in 1995, of 40% of Cape Verde Telecom, by the Portuguese enterprise Portugal Telecom (PT). Since then, the number of lines has increased up to 70%, a fibre-optic cables system has been installed in the islands, and access to Internet is available since 1997. In the last years subscribers’ telephone lines have increased significantly.

1.16 Transport infrastructures

Although most of the islands have an uneven territory, transport infrastructures play an important part; being its development relatively recent (especially in Azores and Madeira). It is necessary to point out that the improvement of insular accessibility also implies an increase on the degradation of its natural, cultural and landscape heritage.

Due to the great urban dispersion, a considerable financing investment has been made on the creation of road infrastructures in the main islands of the Canary Islands in the last two years, to avoid the constant traffic congestion in the approach roads to the big urban areas, produced by the large vehicle fleet existing. Nowadays, it is being considered the possible installation of a railroad line communicating the north-south axis in both Gran Canaria and Tenerife islands.

In Cape Verde, road infrastructures are almost non-existent (only 600 km of the total 2.2250 km roads are asphalted), and most of the small set paving is kept in old roads. One third of the road network is divided among the islands of Santiago and San Vicente, where two thirds of the population is concentrated.

With the exception of Cape Verde, where road traffic has no significance, a small decrease is being detected in the registration of road vehicles in the other islands (17.3 % in The Canary Islands and 7 % in Azores).

Ports are of special relevance in the insular regions, and with respect to the airports, most of the islands in the four archipelagos have almost one airport, of a different operational magnitude. Azores constitutes a special case, as it is a central point in the air-traffic operational control system in the North Atlantic. Nowadays, the better accessibility between the insular regions is one of the objectives of Interreg IIIB.

1.17 Energy production and consumption

The social and economic development of all countries in general, and of the Macaronesia in particular, is necessarily linked to the increase of the energy demand, which grows in a disproportionately form to meet the resident population necessities and, especially the necessities of the tourist sector. Besides, the increase of the air-conditioning installations in summer produces peak times of consumption that endanger the regular electrical supply.

In Macaronesia, where the major resources that can be transformed in energy are the wind, the sun and water, is precisely where the development of renewable energies is slower. In The Canary Islands, for instance, it represents only 1% of the production and the energy consumption. In this archipelago, the growth of the electric demand increased up to 9.4 % (5.604.728 megawatts) during 2003 in relation to the same period of the previous year. In this sense the risk of an energetic collapse is greater

compared to the other autonomous communities in Spain, despite the existence of The Canary Islands Energy Plan (PECAN 2002).

In the period 2001-2002, Azores and Madeira increased their respective energy consumption approximately on about 7.5 %. In relation to the type of energy, to give an example, Madeira primarily uses energy of thermal origin and only 1% of wind power.

In Cape Verde, the energy sector is largely loss-making. As an example, in the year 2000 only 50% of the total population in the archipelago had electricity for lighting. Nowadays there are a number of co-operation projects to improve the situation and meet the increasing demand, influenced by the incipient tourist sector.

2. Landscape policies and action programmes¹

To a national level, Spain, Portugal and Cape Verde do not have a specific legislation on landscape, although their respective constitutions establish guidelines on values or fundamental rights regarding landscape as an essential right of mankind to have a quality of life. This right also includes the citizens' right to live in a pleasant environment from the esthetical point of view.

The three countries have ratified, among others, the Convention on World Natural and Cultural Heritage Protection and The Biologic Diversity Convention (Rio, 1992). On their side, Spain as well as Portugal are signatory States of the Landscape European Convention, although any of the three has signed it up to date. It is worth mentioning that the Aarhus Convention (1998) was ratified by Portugal but not by Spain, despite the ratification was approved in parliamentary session by the Spanish Parliament in March 2001.

2.1 The Canary Islands

The Spanish Constitution (1978) Article 148.1.3^o sets up that Land Planning is a public competence commended to the Autonomous Communities. In accordance with this, the Statute of Autonomy of The Canary Islands (Article 33^a) incorporates concepts that, because of its legislative interpretation, let landscape be considered

1. Some texts have been taken for the making of this section from different communications: Faustino García-Marquez, Head of the Territorial Planning of the General Directorate on Territory Planning of the Canary Islands and Coordinator of the Writing Team of the Directives on General Urban and Town Planning and Tourism of the Canary Islands; Antonio Domingos Abreu, Director-Regional of the Environment in the Regional Government of Madeira; Celso Fernández Maorais, Director-General of Territory Planning of the Republic of Cape Verde, all of them presented in the Conference on "Landscape Policies and Territory Planning" (Gran Canaria, December 2002). See full document of the Communication in: www.laboratoriodelpaisaje.org

under the jurisdiction scope of the Autonomous Community, and confer exclusive competences on Land Planning (Art. 30.15) as well as Environmental Protection (Art. 32.12).

The Legislation on Natural Areas of The Canary Islands protected 44% of the territory in 1987, including protected landscapes, natural parks and natural monuments, which have an essential singularity as landscapes. Besides other subsequent regulations, the General Guidelines on Territorial Planning of the Canary Islands (2003) arise facing the social awareness on the growth of the islands, and as an integration tool for the territory planning and management of the natural resources. The specific problems concerning the excessive land and bed offer in the tourist sector of the islands implied the Guidelines on Tourism Planning. Both guidelines were simultaneously written and in force by Act 19/2003, on 14 April.

As any other planning tool, these Guidelines have to be accompanied by economic and administrative measures and regulations to accomplish their goals, as well as exemplary actions that prove the viability and necessity of the established criteria. In short, these guidelines need a special observation, education and training to be able to change individual, group or institutional behaviour aimed to sustainable development forms.

In order to accomplish those objectives, General Guidelines forecast a generation of Sectorial Guidelines and set up the creation of an Observatory and a permanent Forum on sustainable development in the Autonomous Community, with the implication of the Canary Islands Government Departments, Insular Government and Local Governments, and the involvement of Universities, residents associations, environmental associations, labour unions, business associations and professional and cultural associations.

On the other side, public administrations will encourage the participation of economic and social agents in the strategic sectorial planning-making process, urban planning and action programmes, developing specific mechanisms, such as the setting up of permanent or temporal sectorial tables or forums, directed to the drawing up of specific tools.

The General Guidelines on Territorial Planning regard the landscape value of the soil as a strategic resource to the economic development as well as the social cohesion and welfare, and as part of the cultural heritage of the Canary Islands, and set up the necessity to view landscape as the main concern in the planning, signalling that the primary objective of any planning tool is the qualification of the natural, rural or urban landscape involved. Section III 3.6, establishes the landscape issues that require especial attention: rural areas, traditional terraced farming areas, coastal areas, peripheral urban areas, accessibility, road corridors, etc. In relation to the urban landscapes, the Directives basically concentrate on peripheral areas.

At present, Sectorial Guidelines on Farming Land Planning are being drawn up, and Guidelines on Landscape Planning should be finished within the period of two years.

As additional information, the complete listing of legislation in The Canary Islands relative to environment, land planning and historic, artistic and ethnographic heritage can be found in: www.gobiernodecanarias.org/juriscan.

2.2 Madeira

The Portuguese Constitution, 1976, Art. 229, gave full political autonomy to Madeira and Azores as Autonomous Regions, providing their own political and administrative statutes and legislative competences.

On the other side, the Regional Plans on Country and Town Planning (PROT) implements that determine a strategy for the territorial development, integrating what is set up at the national level, and constituting a point of reference for the drawing up of the municipal territory.

The Government of the Autonomous Region of Madeira approved in 2000 the Regional Plan on Environmental Policy (which does not constitute a law in itself but defines the political guidelines and action programmes drawn up by the Regional Government together with the civil society) came into force in 2001 after the reorganisation of the political and administrative structure of the Regional Government and the creation of the Environment and Natural Resources Counselling which includes other sectors such as farming, fisheries, water management, basic drainage, livestock and social housing.

This Plan has three major objectives: to guarantee the citizens welfare, to adapt the economic activities to the environment, that is, tourism, farming and livestock industries and all that is characteristic to the island, and assess the natural heritage and the humanised landscape.

It also has some strategic guidelines, among others, that all participants are aware and take an active part in the decision-making process, beginning with politicians, to accomplish the necessary infrastructures, protect landscape and promote and assess protected areas, incorporate environmental values on the economic activities, and raise public-private agents' awareness on the possibility of merging economic development and productivity, with the regulations and welfare as well as with the preservation of environment.

This Plan is organised on the basis of specific actions and also has some initiatives on environmental education, research and development. With respect to the environmental factors, it implies the exhaustive knowledge of the descriptors, being the landscape among them, with a specific programme of permanent indicators.

More specifically, some assessments on the valuable visual quality of landscape are being carried out, beginning with the pilot experience of The Franguesia de Serra de Agua area.

Apart from this, understanding that the farming activity essentially makes use of the natural resources, the Basic Guidelines for good farming practice is being drawn up, to enable not only the development of regional farming products of a higher quality, but the protection of soil against erosion, the preservation of the aquifers and, very specially, landscape, contributing therefore to the welfare of the population.

For more information on the state of development of the Regional Plan on Environmental Policy, as well as legislation relative to environmental matters see: www.sra.pt

2.3 Azores

The history relative to the Constitution, autonomous system, Regional Plans on Country and Town Planning, are in the same context as in the Autonomous Region of Madeira.

The increase of population pressure and the weight of the farming and livestock activities in Azores have been the main factors influencing that the management and the planning of the territory uses had a special significance, being the main concern to try to preserve the values of quality life, landscape, etc, as well as to encourage the social and economical development of the region.

The National Scheme on Sustainable Development (ENDS 2002) framework allows the development and settlement of strategies in correspondence with the community directives, at the same time that preserves the environmental, economical and social peculiarities of the autonomous Portuguese archipelagos.

In this context, The Azores Government has encouraged the Regional Plan on sustainable development (PReDSA) of this autonomous region, aiming a joint development with ENDS, and to guarantee its accomplishment, stating the objectives and monitoring tools of these policies, as well as the assessment or revision of the Plan.

The implementation of the sustainable development process requires, because of its own characteristics and complexity, a data medium and a number of assessment tools to allow the measurement of the existent situation, as a previous stage to a coherent operating level.

Nowadays, works have being concentrated in the Basic Studies level for the drawing up of PReDSA, and the general objectives are the awareness-making and training of society to face the challenges of sustainable development, and facilitate the necessary

tools so the Regional Administration could take on the implementation of an active and efficient sustainable development as a priority.

Apart from this, the Regional Management Plan on territory and water resources is implementing a Geographical Information Network (GIS), and applying GIS to the Regional water resources. Besides, there is a future plan of implementing the Coastal Areas GIS as well as the Landscapes GIS, that will take into account the previous “Research of Characterisation and Identification of the Azores Landscapes”, begun in March 2000 in Évora University, and will allow its use in the land planning process.

A research is being carried out, and the final conclusions will include a cartographic landscape units distribution, of an easy access and dissemination, besides the characterisation of every unit, trying to forecast proposals to guarantee the development of landscape management within the different sector policies (building construction, infrastructures, forestry, farming, preservation of the environment, etc.).

The state of development of the Sustainable Development Regional Plan (PREDSA), as well as the landscape researches and legislation relative to it can be found at: www.sra.raa.pt

2.4 Cape Verde

The Constitution of the Cape Verde Republic recognises in Article 72 the right to an environmental welfare, urging the public authorities to implement the appropriate policies to improve the citizens’ quality of life.

After its independence from Portugal in 1975, a number of plans which take account on landscape in a direct or indirect way have been enacted, as are the Urban Plans on territory and landscape plans, the especial plans on tourist areas, and primary tourist development areas. Nevertheless, in a country where almost everything is to be developed, and with a manifest shortage on resources (with the exception of the resources derived from the tourist exploitation of landscape) it is important to highlight the Development Plan 2001-2006 and the Action Plan on environment.

The operative objectives of the strategy contemplated by the National Development Plan are in accordance with the basic priorities of the Cape Verde population, setting up great options and undertaking that the territory planning and the environmental and regional development, constitute the central axis of an economic and social development. These options can be summarised in the necessity of enhance democracy and strengthen citizenship, encouraging therefore the competitive and go-ahead competence, and directing the training towards more priority areas that allow to resist poverty.

It also contemplates the development of basic and economic infrastructures and the balanced territory planning and management that allow the improvement of the

citizens' quality of life. Therefore, a number of territory forms of planning, regulated by the appropriate legislation have been set up and these are generally comparable to other forms in countries with a higher level of development.

Among these tools, it is necessary to highlight the Special Plans which are practically engrossed to the Territory Planning. Within the Special Plans are the Special Planning Areas, mostly referred to the Side-board Coastal Tourist Area¹, of a great importance for the development of the incipient tourist sector of the archipelago, as for the preservation of the landscape resources that, because of its main appeal, also conform areas under the potential danger of deterioration.

The methodology concentrates on the analysis of the major environmental resources (natural and cultural) of Cape Verde, diagnosing the problems and also analysing the main consuming-resources activities.

Subsequently, the resources and activities cross in a matrix of intervention, allowing therefore the fulfilment of central analysis on sustainability, the identification of priority intervention areas and the setting of programmatic measurements.

3. Interregional co-operation INTERREG IIIB

The analysis of the distribution of FEDER financing within the Community Initiative Programme INTERREG IIIB 2000-2006 Azores-Madeira-Canary Islands (First Announcement) allows a general estimation.

The Community Initiative Programme INTERREG IIIB is entirely financed with 170.733.637 for transitional co-operation projects, being FEDER contribution of 145.123.591 (85%). Cape Verde as well as other tertiary north and western African bordering countries (Morocco, Mauritania, Senegal), Latin America and the French overseas regions are allowed to participate. The Canary Islands get a total assistance of 80M and Azores and Madeira 65M from the FEDER funds.

On the first official Announcement, 222 projects applied, of which only 89 were approved (63.3 M) by the Management Committee, being the remaining 2,9 M transferred to Second Official Announcement (a total amount of 49 M).

The projects follow the four mandatory priorities specified in about twenty measures. Of the 89 projects approved, 8 correspond to Territorial planning and urban and rural development (11,3% of the total EU contribution); 33 projects have been selected (4,6%) for the Development of transport and communications, information society

1. Nowadays the Strategic Plan on Tourism Development for the North Area of the city of PRAIA (Santiago) and others regarding the isles of Sal, Maio and Boa Vista, are in the first stage of the making-process. Boa Vista Plan has been awarded through a public competition to the PROMEX consortium formed by SEP-PRAC-Landscape Laboratory of the Canary Islands.

and R&D; 21 projects have been approved (16,4%) on Fostering economic and institutional co-operation; and finally, 27 projects have been selected (29,5%) for the Assessment and sustainable management of natural and cultural resources.

Of the total FEDER contribution concerning INTERREG IIIB (145.123.591), 22,6% is allocated to the Technical Assistance Programme (priority 5)

The percentage of the financing funds designated to the axes and issues of the projects (www.interreg-mac.org) express, in some way, the actual political priorities on inter-regional co-operation.

Among the designated projects only two are explicitly referred to landscape: “PAISAGEM Project”, encouraged by the Territory and Environment Planning of the Counselling of the Canary Islands and its counterparts in Azores, Madeira and Cape Verde governments, fostering a “Pilot Programme on the protection, integral management, recuperation and assessment of the sustainable landscape of the islands in Macaronesia”, and “PARTHNON Project”, encouraged by the Inter-Island Council of Tenerife and the Boa Vista House of Representatives, and focused on the “Landscape Assessment of the island”.

Mental landscape. Landscape as idea and concept

Gerhard ERMISCHER

Chair of the Archaeological Spessart-Project and European Pathways to Cultural Landscapes

Landscape, often with the addition of “cultural” or “natural”, has become a most popular word or slogan during the last 10 years. Who ever visits the internet and types in “cultural landscape” or “natural landscape” into a research engine will be rewarded with tens of thousands of sites. Many of these are tourist sites, using those terms as a brand mark for the outstanding quality of their particular region. But what is landscape, what defines a landscape? Even this basic term is often understood in quite different ways or no thought into its true meaning has been invested at all.

About two centuries ago Alexander von Humboldt (1769-1859), the great researcher, scientist and diplomat, defined landscape as the “totality of all aspects of a region, as perceived by man”. This, abbreviated, definition still is the best and telling one can find. It describes landscape as the sum of all aspects, natural, cultural, geographic, geologic, biologic, artistic, whatever one can think of and it stresses the human perception as a defining element of the landscape. When we define a cultural landscape, as any landscape that has been changed and formed by man (intentionally or unintentionally), then Humboldt’s definition carries the thought even further: just the fact that a human being perceives a landscape and forms his ideas about his environment turns the environment into a landscape. Therefore any landscape study, and in consequence any landscape management, has to start with the human ideas and concepts of a certain landscape. Otherwise one should speak about environment or use any other terms, but landscape implies the human as its key element.

This definition is not only holistic, but it also stresses, how important it is, to understand the human perception of a landscape to understand the landscape itself. How people think has a great influence on the shaping of a landscape, on the way man treats the landscape and how he reacts on the landscape. These facts shall be shown on a few examples.

Architecture and monuments define the picture of a landscape and inhabitants like visitors tend to specially acknowledge them. Their appearance and their character depend on natural resources, like local building materials, the economic power of a region in certain époques, social structures and ideas. For example wayside shrines with the plastic image of the crucified Christ play an important role in catholic regions, while you will not find them in protestant areas. In Trentino in Northern Italy, a forested region with a long tradition of wood works, they are mostly made from wood, while in the Spessart in Southern Germany, they are built from the typical local coloured sandstone. In Southwest England one will find highly decorated churches dominating the villages and the surrounding landscape. Not far away in Northern

Wales the nonconformist Methodist church became most powerful during the 19th century with its barn like chapels. This was the great period of slate quarrying in the area, with slate as the dominating building material. The grey colour of the slate strengthens the bleak appearance of the buildings, which due to the ascetic streak of the Methodist church, are often not painted or painted in grey. On the English side of the border the houses are painted in bright white, the doors coloured in red, blue or green. A quite similar landscape nevertheless does appear quite different to the observer.

The social and economic situation of the Welsh quarry men also started the squatter movement, with quarry men occupying the uncultivated heather and marshlands, building their small houses, miles and miles of field walls to enclose the land, which could just sustain a few goats or a cow. Today many of these houses are abandoned and are bought by English tourists, who change them into holiday cottages – painting them white and introducing their beloved colourful doors and window frames to the Welsh landscape.

If we go back in history a few centuries, we can find in Northern Wales another movement towards landscape change. The noble families ruling the country built their halls into the fertile valleys, changing them completely to their taste and wishes. So the Oakeley family built their manor house Plas Tan y Bwlch on the slope of the valley of the River Dwyryd, changing this slope into a garden and planting the opposite slope with a forest. The river, originally flowing straight through the valley, used for transporting wood, was artificially shaped into meanders, as it looked nicer this way. An interesting example of reverse canalisation, compared to later common use. A village was erected at the valley's end, in the same materials and style as the manor house, but situated in a way, that it only could be seen from the manor house by standing at specific points, while otherwise it did not disturb the view. A complete valley so was remodelled according to the will and needs of the owner.

Another example of socially and economically induced landscape one can find in Southern Bohemia. This area was owned by a number of aristocratic families in Medieval times, giving rise to a great number of monastery foundations. The monks and nuns were subject to very strict regulations, especially concerning their diet. The many periods of Lent and the regular days of fasting, where all consumption of meat was forbidden, led to a great need for fresh fish supplies. So many fishponds were created, the density of brooks allowing feed them. Carp was the main fish bred, but here were also invented the first fresh water ponds, allowing for a crop of trout and other fresh water fish. Still today the ponds dominate the landscape and give it its typical appearance. The idyllic water landscape was forcefully disturbed by the great flood in autumn 2002, when the tranquil ponds and brooks changed into a huge lake, drowning the land. For the inhabitants this was a great shock, which also goes to show, that the way we treat the landscape is only really reflected when it backfires on us.

There are the outstanding events, the “century” or even “millennia” floods of the last years, or this years astonishing drought in Europe, which add flesh and blood to the great terms like “climatic change” or “global warming” for the average news customer. Simple truths are presented as fleshy new insights, like the importance of canalising brooks and rivers, deforesting the mountains or sealing the surface for the great effect such events can have. We often are proud about the growth of knowledge during the last two centuries, but sometimes one might wonder, if we should not be even more astonished about the knowledge we could easily forget. As early as in the 8th century Charles the Great issued an edict to protect the high mountain forests, threatening with severe punishment those who would cut them down. He even issued an explanation for those harsh punishments: because the high mountain forests prevented avalanches and protected the settlements on lower ground. In the year 1300 a Dominican friar in the Alsatian city of Colmar wrote, how many people were wondering about the increased number of floods, their severity and horrible results. He continues, while looking around, he would see the hills denuded of forests, which a century ago had still covered them, and that therefore the water would not be kept in the hills anymore but flow straight into the river, making the floods more devastating.

So we can see how human ideas influence and shape the landscape. Religious beliefs, economic wealth, social structures all are reflected in architecture as well as in the traces left in the landscape. Technology has a great influence on the way we treat the landscape. Not just because it defines our abilities to change the landscape, but also because it influences the way we think and react towards our environment. If we look at the paintings of Dutch artists of the 16th and 17th century, providing us with wonderful pictures of landscape and daily life, we can see harvesters cutting wheat with their sickles. The wheat is as tall as the men, raised intentionally so high because the straw was a valuable source, covering the floors of the stables and cow sheds just as the roofs of barns and houses. A man cutting those towering stems by hand has got a very different perspective in any sense, than a farmer sitting high in his modern air conditioned harvester with built in navigation system, automatically cutting the short stemmed wheat bred today for the only purpose of rich crops. The influence our own ideas and sentiments have on the landscape was well perceived by many in the past. The senators of Siena had the famous painter Pietro Lorenzetti decorate their main assembly chamber in the early 14th century depicting the consequences of good and bad government to both, the city and the surrounding landscape. The big holes left by surface mining in the coal areas might serve as a symbol for the destructive capacity of money driven exploitation.

Since the industrialisation the change of the landscape has increased and become ever faster. What has been a landscape of industrialisation a century ago can become a natural resort today. The slate mining areas of North Wales were the stage for bone braking and dangerous labour, for people slaving in the mines for 12 hours a day with

only a break on Sunday to attend the service in the Chapel. The vast spoil heaps, flooded holes and abandoned mines today are a tourist resort and even a Unesco world heritage site. Perspective changes with the change of technology and the course of history.

Today wind farms belong to the most controversially discussed features in our landscape. They are a big business for some, not the least because of politically initiated funding schemes, an ecological revolution for others, stressing the importance of sustainable energy production, when the emission from coal fuelled power plants adds to global warming, but they are also a changing factor in our landscape. The ever higher towers and wings of the wind mills, clustering in wind farms on the flat coast lands and more and more in off shore farms in the sea, change the character of the landscape. The towers of village churches, wide visible landmarks in the flat lands of Northern Germany e.g., are covered by the many windmills even higher than the old towers. For many people their picture of the landscape is destroyed. Even stronger debates rise, as the windmills move more and more inland, new types of windmills allowing wind farms even under the much less stable conditions in alpine regions.

At least windmills were a common feature in Northern Europe centuries ago. When the Dutch engineers developed highly efficient types in the 16th century to drain the fields and help to win new arable land, windmills spread far over Northern Europe, moving water as well as grinding corn. People were proud about the new technology, which allowed them to harness the wind, this uncontrollable natural power, and use it for their own good. So windmills feature prominently in many contemporary Dutch paintings, not only as metaphors and symbols, but also because they were an important and valued feature in the landscape. Windmills were not only standing alone, but could cluster to real wind farms. On the island of Saaremaa in Estonia many farmhouses had their own windmills in the 19th century, and often more than one. In a small village there could be up to 24 windmills working at the same time. Only one of these clusters has survived, at least in parts, until today. The skeletons of many small windmills can be seen scattered over the landscape. But some are built in stone as heavy towers, their remains looking more like ruined fortifications than civil buildings. When restored they are major tourist attractions, around which restaurants and bars develop.

The industrialisation of transport accelerated the rate of change in the landscape. Canalisation of rivers, the new railway systems and the new types of roads intersected the landscape and powered the change through exploitation, new industries, urbanisation and sub-urbanisation of the countryside. Again people were quite proud of the new technologies, when they emerged. Even in the delicate paintings of French Impressionists one can see railway bridges and trains under full steam. Others painted industrial plants like cathedrals and showed cities with every single chimney billowing smoke as a symbol of growing wealth and progress. Today we are much more

reluctant to celebrate such developments, as they have gained such a speed, that changes have become frightening to many people.

As we can observe the change of perception of change and progress, we can also state that image is one of the most powerful forces. This is also true for landscapes. The image a landscape has determines very much the way it is perceived, observed and treated. Many landscapes are viewed as purely natural landscapes, the average observer not realising the great impact of human activities on these landscapes. The Forest of Bowland and Lune Valley in Lancashire can serve as a good example. The Lune Valley is a fertile area with green meadows, villages, churches and castles, everybody concedes of great value and worth protecting. The adjoining Forest of Bowland is mostly seen as a bleak moor land, only good for grouse hunting. But the many field walls as well as its heather show the influence grazing once had on this land, which as a Royal forest has a most fascinating history of its own.

In Dowris in Ireland we can see a flat landscape of peat bog, which partly has been stripped recently for the production of peat fuelling a nearby power plant. This is a landscape which nobody would call beautiful and many see as natural. But in fact the growing of the peat itself was instigated by human activities, albeit unintentionally, and the stripping of the peat is a human activity, which is not sustainable and not even economic any more, but still is done for – cultural and social reasons. Because after Ireland became politically independent in the 1920s it tried to become independent economically as well, substituting British coal by Irish turf. Burning peat is therefore seen as part of the Irish tradition and identity.

The Spessart, large woodland in the heart of Germany, has the image of poverty, like many other upland regions in Europe. Poverty often is associated in peoples mind with a lack of history. Although this landscape has been settled by men since the beginning of the Neolithic about 8 millennia ago, and had times of great prosperity as well as times of trouble, the more recent history of poverty in the 19th and early 20th century dominates the memory. Therefore many historic structures and buildings are still erased, even during a time of growing interest in cultural heritage, because they are viewed as mere testimonies of poverty. Poverty is experienced as shameful and modern wealth shall be shown to the public. Even more importantly new developments of settlement structures influence the way people feel about their landscape. During the last decades many people from the surrounding urban centres settled in the Spessart, sometimes buying old farm houses, more often building new houses in new “suburbs”. Today many villages consist of about 50% indigenous inhabitants and 50% new settlers. These still make their living in the cities, spend most of their money in the cities where they consume entertainment and culture, while they raise their children in the “healthy, green and natural” environment far from sex, drugs and violence. An idyllic picture of the landscape is created, which is far from real, but serves the needs and interests of the people who decided to live here.

It therefore is most important to know the concepts of people about the landscape they live in, but as well the concepts of people who visit the landscape to seek recreation. If one wants to influence the process of change, then people's ideas and visions are crucial. Not understanding them will ruin every scheme of landscape management. Of course we live in times of rapid change – and therefore also of rapid change of the landscape. Saying that, one has as well to state, that landscape in itself is never static. Landscape is a living canvas, and just as nature will change even without any human influence, every landscape will always change and develop. Having both natural and cultural components this is even truer for the landscape as for the mere environment. Landscape therefore is a process. To manage landscape one has also to understand the process, because again, otherwise every clever plan of management will go astray. Therefore it is important to view the landscape not only as 3-dimensional, but as 4-dimensional. It is important to understand its history and how it developed, not just during the last decades, but during a longer span of time. For landscape as such it is important to understand the interaction between nature and man, how man reacts on nature, influences his environment and reacts on the emerging changes. Therefore landscape management should not only be left to developers, planners, engineers and landscape architects, but must as well include historians and archaeologists. Ecological features are well integrated into landscape planning, but cultural features still are underestimated.

But why is it so important to understand the process and manage the landscape when it is changing anyway and permanently, as stated above? One answer lies in the speed and track of change we observe at present. We are in danger at loosing all the specific character of different landscapes, and of moving towards a uniformity of landscapes. We see many devastated landscapes, which have lost all attraction to their inhabitants – and to people from outside. Economic and social problems are the inevitable consequence. Rich and diverse landscapes have a great social value. The different character of landscapes make them valuable for tourists, because only the differences make them interesting to visit and experiencing the differences is a great part of the recreational factor of holidays. A positive identification with the local landscape is an important factor for social well being. So we can state, that the diversity of landscapes and their proper management have a great socio-economic value. Neglect or wrong management, destroying the positive identification with one's landscape, can lead to economic decline of an area, increased violence, alcoholism and criminality and so cause higher costs in the long run than an intelligent management would have cost in the short term.

The importance of biodiversity has been well accepted during the last years. This is not only because of the good lobbying of ecological pressure groups, but also because powerful companies have realised the enormous value of biodiversity. It is a never ending source of new patents, bio-technology or pharmacy are just two branches,

which make great profit out of this rich pool – which provides substances as well as ideas. Since aircrafts save petrol by using a “shark-skin” or hard cash is saved on cleaning windows through specific surfaces derived from certain blossoms nobody can doubt the economic value of nature’s treasure house any more. The same understanding needs to be raised for the cultural diversity as a similarly rich source which needs the same close interest. Its socio-economic importance has to be stressed and it has to be much more closely studied. The setting in which this diversity takes place is the landscape – where natural and cultural factors meet and unite.

So the main tasks for future landscape management, to my opinion, are:

- to better understand the process forming the present landscape, so we can model the future changes and what results can be expected from specific actions;
- to involve the people, the civic society, into the process, not just at a late stage, but from the beginning, including their ideas and concepts into the process of managing the landscape and make them wardens of the landscape;
- to better evaluate the true value of the diversity of landscapes, biodiversity as well as cultural diversity, to make it easier to argue for an intelligent and sustainable management.

And most important: to allow for individual strategies for individual landscapes. This is difficult to achieve in a time of pressing need for standardisation and easy to apply methods in a globalising world and enlarging European Union, but diversity needs diverse methods – or it will inevitably change to uniformity.

The concept of health

Piotr MIERZEWSKI

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[Abstracts from Powerpoint presentation]

Health for all? Landscape for all? Ethical and human rights challenges in public policy as follows: ethics – economics – equity – evidence.

* * *

The aim of every State is to ensure the happiness of its citizens (Aristotle).

If the free society cannot help the many who are poor, it cannot save the few who are rich (J.F. Kennedy).

By removing the ambiguity between health and happiness and emphasising health as a basic human right, it provides a reference criterion against which to gauge how far health programmes incorporate and meet the requirements of health equity (Rodolfo Saracci).

* * *

Failing to distinguish health from happiness has four main consequences. Firstly, any disturbance to happiness, however minimal, may come to be seen as a health problem. Secondly, because the quest for happiness is essentially boundless, the quest for health also becomes boundless. This legitimizes an unlimited demand for health services.

* * *

When the WHO was established nearly half a century ago, the text of its constitution defined health as “a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity”.

This definition is a fine and inspiring concept and its pursuit guarantees health professionals unlimited opportunities for work in the future but is not of much practical use.

.....

The Council of Europe ideals of human rights and ethics-oriented policy should influence and change the practice of politically governed policies.

Furthermore, the social justice, human rights and ethical dimensions of health care could help us to understand that an investment in health is an investment into people, the biggest asset society can have.

Cohesion is an ideal towards which societies have to strive continually. It is a goal to which they aspire, but never fully achieve. This makes precise definition elusive.

In its literal sense, social cohesion is about what binds societies together.

* * *

1. Welfare should help to improve quality of life and to expand freedoms.
2. The influence of welfare on wellbeing depends of the living conditions of the poorest and of the amount of public expenditures on health.
3. Liberal economy applies the iron hand policy first for the health and education sectors, only at the end for military expenditures and financial markets.
4. The economy of relative costs justifies priority of investment into wellbeing before reaching welfare state.

(Amartya Sen, Nobel Prize Winner)

* * *

Strategy for social cohesion

- Towards social development for all access to social rights for all.
- Promotion of social cohesion based on human rights, and particularly on social rights.
- The European Social Charter as the counterpart of the European Convention on Human Rights – updating the health content.

Health in the revised European Social Charter

Article 11. The right to protection of health

With a view of ensuring the effective exercise of the right to protection of health. The Contracting Parties undertake, either directly or in co-operation with public or private organisations, to take appropriate measures designed inter alia:

- to remove as far as possible the causes of ill-health;
- to provide advisory and educational facilities for promotion of health and the encouragement of individual responsibility in matters of health;
- to prevent as far as possible epidemic, endemic and other diseases, as well as accidents.

What does the EU treaty state?

Article 152 of the Amsterdam Treaty (1997):

A high level of health protection shall be ensured in the definition and implementation of all Community policies and activities.

What EU rights to health exist?

Charter of Fundamental Rights of the EU, adopted in Nice, December 2000:

Everyone has the right of access to preventative healthcare and the right to benefit from medical treatment under the conditions established by national law and practices.

.....

People know more about the restaurant they chose and the meal offered than they know about the treatments they undergo in the health system. (Richard Saltman).

Probably the single most important citizens' right is to know these rights, otherwise we have a caricature of glasnost for ignorants. The second most important citizens' right is to have instruments to apply those rights, otherwise we have a parody of perestroika for helpless.

* * *

Recommendations

Recommendation R (80) 4 "The patient as an active participant in his/her own treatment", after Alma Ata Declaration 1978 "The people have the right and the duty to participate individually and collectively in the planning and implementation of their health care".

Rec (2000) 5 on the development of structures for citizen and patient participation in the decision-making process affecting health care.

Rec (2000) 18 on criteria for the development of health promotion policies.

It was elaborated in 1986 in the Ottawa Charter for Health Promotion:

To reach a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being, an individual or group must be able to identify and to realize aspirations, to satisfy needs, and to change or cope with the environment. Health is therefore seen as a resource for everyday life, not the object for living. Health is a positive concept emphasising social and personal resources, as well as physical capabilities.

Bioethics Convention, Article 18 – Public debate:

Parties in this Convention shall see to it that the fundamental questions raised by the developments of biology and medicine are the subject of appropriate public discussion in the light, in particular, of relevant medical, social, economic, ethical and legal implications, and that their possible application is made the subject of appropriate consultation.

* * *

Moving into the future

Health is created and lived by people within the settings of their everyday life; where they learn, work, play and love.

* * *

A new global health debate – Health as a security issue, foreign policy issue, macro-economic issue, Human rights issue, global public good ... health as global citizenship.

* * *

Seedhouse tried to define health with a view to overcoming many of the criticisms of the current definitions:

A person's (optimum) state of health is equivalent to the set of conditions which fulfil or enable a person to work to fulfil his or her realistic chosen and biological potentials. Some of these conditions are of the highest importance for all people. Others are variable dependent upon individual abilities and circumstances.

[Seedhouse, D. (1997) – *Health Promotion, Philosophy, Prejudice and Practice* Wiley, Chichester]

* * *

The distinction between health and happiness is crucially relevant in terms of rights, in particular “positive” rights or entitlements requiring societal actions to ensure that they effectively and fully materialise. Whereas it can be argued that health is a positive and universal human right, it seems impossible to construct an argument that happiness (though not its material and social preconditions) is a positive right simply because happiness cannot be delivered or imposed on a person by any societal action.

Presentation of an exhibition of Armenian children's drawings "Settlements, nature and the landscape through the children's eyes"

A children's paintings competition has been organised by the Armenian Ministry of Urban development in order to promote a better awareness of the importance of the landscape as a background to the quality of life, as mentioned in the European Landscape Convention. Paintings by children from Yerevan and four regions of Armenia have been chosen by a commission of painters, sculptors and teachers.

The exhibition situated in the hall of the Palais de l'Europe was opened by Mrs Ruzan Alaverdyan, Vice-Minister of Urban development of Armenia, on Thursday 27 November 2003.

According to the request of the Armenian Urban Development Ministry through the Armenian self-government bodies of four regions and about ten cities, including Yerevan, and villages from the aesthetic national center and its branches as well as from the art schools, youth studios and secondary schools 134 works among 250 pictures of 90 children were chosen in the result of the commission's work. The members of the commission were painters, sculptors and art teachers.

The exhibition "The landscape through the children's eyes" co-organised by the Council of Europe and the Republic of Armenia in the framework of the spatial planning and landscape seminar was previously opened in Yerevan on 23 October 2003, in the hall of the National Institute-Museum of Architecture. The Armenian Urban Development Minister, Mr. A. Aramyan, Deputy Minister, Mrs. R. Alaverdyan, officials from the Council of Europe and Armenian Government and other international organisations acting in the Republic of Armenia, numerous guests from the regions, the authors of the exhibited works (pictures), parents, teachers took part in the opening of the exhibition.

The preparation works of the exhibition began in March 2003. Thirteen aesthetic educational schools from Yerevan and Armenian regions have responded to the invitation-letter. Visits from April to October were done periodically to the aesthetic educational centers, studios, their branches which have responded to the organising exhibition, where, with the teachers and children explanatory, training works were held aimed at the works harmonic to the exhibition theme. The Armenian Urban Development Ministry for the exhibition in the Council of Europe in Strasbourg will send fifty one pictures according to the Council of Europe offer. The pictures were chosen by the second commission among the 134 works.

Discours prononcé lors de l'inauguration de l'exposition

Christian TER STEPANIAN

Ambassadeur Extraordinaire et Plénipotentiaire, Représentant Permanent de l'Arménie

Madame la Ministre,
Monsieur le Directeur,
Mesdames, Messieurs,

Permettez-moi tout d'abord de féliciter très chaleureusement Mme Alaverdyan, Vice-Ministre du Développement urbain, pour les efforts qu'elle a déployés en vue d'organiser cette exposition avec l'actif soutien de la Division de l'aménagement du territoire et du paysage que je remercie vivement.

L'Arménie attache une grande importance au développement durable et a engagé une coopération étroite avec le Conseil de l'Europe dans ce domaine.

La signature de la Convention européenne du paysage, le 14 mai dernier, et dont la ratification devrait prochainement intervenir, la participation active aux travaux organisés dans le cadre de cette Convention, l'organisation récente à Erevan du Séminaire-débat sur « Aménagement du territoire et paysage », la coopération fructueuse avec la Direction de la Culture et du Patrimoine culturel et naturel à travers le programme régional sur « la réhabilitation de l'héritage architectural et paysager dans la politique du développement urbain en Arménie » constituent autant d'exemples significatifs de cette coopération.

Le thème de l'exposition que nous avons le plaisir d'inaugurer aujourd'hui dans le Palais de l'Europe a valeur de symbole: « Le paysage vu par les enfants d'Arménie »; pouvait-on, en effet, envisager une meilleure approche de cette question que celle illustrée par ces jeunes qui nous envoient ces messages pleins de vie et d'espoir, et empreints de ce profond attachement envers la nature ?

Il s'agit bien là de l'objectif principal que vise cette Convention, la création d'un environnement de vie favorable pour toutes les générations, anciennes et futures, et la coexistence harmonieuse de la nature et de l'homme.

Certes, nous sommes bien conscients de ce qui reste à accomplir dans ce domaine, et le gouvernement arménien devra poursuivre son travail dans cette direction afin d'implanter les normes et les bonnes pratiques du développement durable dans notre pays; mais nous savons pouvoir compter sur le soutien et l'assistance du Conseil de l'Europe pour aller de l'avant.

Permettez-moi de remercier encore tous ceux qui ont contribué à la réalisation de cette exposition, remercier les enfants d'Arménie pour leurs magnifiques travaux, et surtout Mme Alaverdyan pour son dévouement.

Je suis très heureux de lui céder la parole.

Je vous remercie.

Discours prononcé lors de l'inauguration de l'exposition

Ruzan ALAVERDYAN

Vice-Ministre du développement urbain, Arménie

Madame le Directeur,
Monsieur l'Ambassadeur,
Mesdames et Messieurs,

Je remercie Monsieur l'Ambassadeur pour ses mots aimables.

Permettez-moi de vous saluer très chaleureusement à l'occasion de l'inauguration de l'exposition « Le paysage vu par les yeux des enfants d'Arménie » que nous avons organisée conjointement avec les services compétents du Conseil de l'Europe.

Je tiens à exprimer ma reconnaissance à toutes les personnes qui ont contribué d'une manière ou d'une autre à la réalisation de cet événement dans le cadre de la conférence des pays signataires de la Convention du paysage.

Les travaux préparatoires de cette exposition ont débuté en mars 2003. Les écoles d'art, les Centres d'études, les écoles secondaires, les ONG et les centres de jeunesse des différentes communes et des régions de la République d'Arménie ont été sollicités pour participer à cette exposition.

Nous avons organisé des visites régulières et mené des travaux explicatifs auprès des élèves et professeurs, qui nous ont répondu, pour bien organiser l'exposition dans l'esprit de la Convention.

Pour choisir les meilleurs dessins, nous avons créé une commission présidée par l'académicien M. Gh. Tchoubarian avec la participation de sculpteurs, peintres architectes et pédagogues.

La première présentation de cette exposition a eu lieu le 23 octobre 2003 à Erévan dans les salles du Musée-Institut National d'architecture du Ministère du développement urbain de la République d'Arménie, à l'occasion du premier Séminaire-débat en dehors de Strasbourg sur le thème de « Aménagement du territoire et paysage » organisée conjointement par le Conseil de l'Europe et notre ministère.

Vous conviendrez avec moi que l'objectif principal de la Convention européenne du paysage est de créer un environnement de vie favorable et harmonieux pour les générations actuelles et surtout pour les générations futures.

Les psychologues soulignent que la conception du monde d'un être humain se forme surtout durant les premières années de son enfance. Pour cette raison, je trouve que

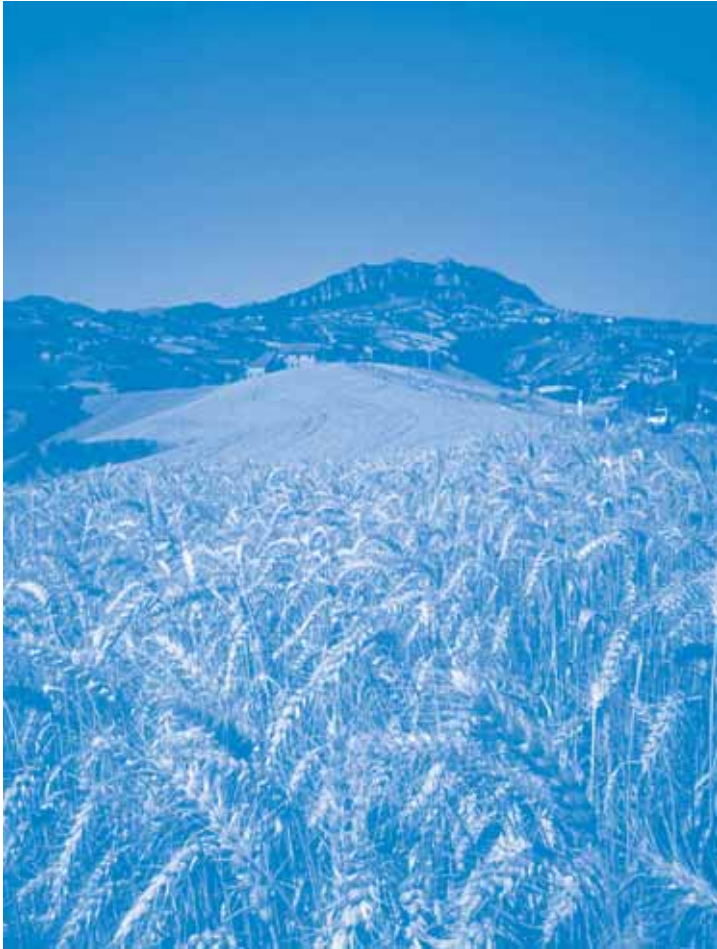
l'éducation de l'enfant tournée vers les valeurs humanitaires, notamment à la lumière de la Convention européenne du paysage, est très importante.

Les orientations spatiales et paysagères du développement durable sont nombreuses et exigent des approches synergiques, ce qui n'est pas facile pour un pays comme l'Arménie en voie de transition économique.

Mais comme dit le proverbe: « C'est le passager qui surmonte les obstacles des routes », et nous sommes convaincus que nous poursuivrons notre chemin, qui vient de très loin, pour atteindre nos objectifs.

C'est pour cette raison que j'apprécie énormément le soutien accordé par le Conseil de l'Europe à l'Arménie dans le domaine du développement durable.

Mesdames et Messieurs, je vous remercie pour votre attention et votre présence.



Landscape, San Marino/Paysage de San Marin

© Segreteria di Stato per il Territorio, l'Agricoltura, Repubblica di San Marino

WORKSHOP 3/ ATELIER 3

**Spatial planning and landscape/
Paysage et aménagement du territoire**

Spatial planning and landscapes: The Guiding Principles of sustainable spatial development of the European continent and the experience of Slovenia

Margarita JANČIČ

Chair of the Committee of Senior Officials of the European Conference of Ministers responsible for Regional Planning (CSO-CEMAT)

Dear Ladies and Gentlemen,

It is a great pleasure for me to be able to be here with all those who are connected by a common wish to contribute to the development of “good landscapes”. I would like to thank the organisers for the opportunity to present the activities of CEMAT – i.e. the European Conference of Ministers Responsible for Regional Planning of the Council of Europe, which integrates 45 European countries.

CEMAT is a Conference of ministers, and it signifies the expression of good will of the Member States of the Council of Europe to jointly contribute to implementation of the sustainable spatial development of the European continent. In this context the landscape has an outstanding role. Since the 1970s, many important documents have been adopted in the framework of CEMAT (a detailed presentation of the activities of CEMAT, and the contents of documents are accessible on the web site <http://www.coe.int/CEMAT>).

In 2000, the Ministers adopted the “Guiding Principles for sustainable spatial development of the European continent (GPSSDEC-CEMAT “ (hereinafter: Guiding Principles), where they defined common principles and objectives of sustainable spatial development, and committed themselves to do their best to implement them at the national levels in their Member states using all forms of co-operation, from trans-European to local ones.

Implementation of the Guiding Principles for sustainable spatial development of the European continent

The programme of common activities for a three-year period is adopted in the framework of the Committee of Senior Officials (CSO), which implements common priorities in the period between two ministerial sessions. The programme defines the type of activities to be jointly performed by the Member States.

The 12th Session of CEMAT, taking place in Hanover in 2000, laid down that the priority activities in the 2001-2003 period were to be aimed towards the implementation of the Guiding Principles. In carrying out the programme, CEMAT would coope-

rate with various organisations, associations, networks, etc., which are active in the field of ensuring sustainable spatial development, to ensure synergies in this way.

Common activities were oriented towards:

- providing support to strategic policies aimed at ensuring sustainable and balanced spatial development;
- ensuring the integration of the Guiding Principles into the national, regional, and local policies and programmes;
- implementing the Guiding Principles through common projects, enabling access to knowledge and information, and exchanging experiences at all levels.

Particularly significant among the already established activities (issuing publications, recommendations, etc.) are the CEMAT seminars. Twice a year, experts gather at these seminars in order to exchange information on national experiences and on results of participation in common programmes or projects, as well as to formulate proposals for further common activities.

The following seminars, conferences and forums were organised in the 2001-2003 period:

- Thessalonica, Greece, June 2000: “The integrated planning of large European areas”;
- Lisbon, Portugal, November 2001: “Landscape heritage, spatial planning and sustainable development”;
- Dresden, Germany, May 2002: “The role of local and regional authorities in European transnational co-operation in the field of regional/spatial development” (in co-operation with the Congress);
- Sofia, Bulgaria, October 2002: “Spatial planning for the sustainable development of different types of European areas: mountains, coastal zones, rural zones, flood plains and alluvial valleys”;
- Budapest, Hungary, March 2003: “Sustainable spatial development: strengthening inter-sectoral relations” (in collaboration with the United Nations Institute for Training and Research – UNITAR);
- Wrocław, Poland, June 2003: “Natural disasters and sustainable spatial development: prevention of floods”.



Lisbon

All the Seminars and Conferences paid considerable – direct or indirect – attention to landscape.

This paper aims to present in detail the conclusions of only one of them, i.e., the seminar which took place in Lisbon under the title of “Landscape Heritage, Spatial Planning and Sustainable Development”.

It was encouraging to find out that a number of good practices existed in Europe, as well as many efforts in the field in analysing the landscape structure and the processes influencing it. Different methodological approaches were used to contribute to the preparation of detailed guidelines for ensuring the development of activities of the kind that would provide for sustainable development while taking into consideration the cultural features and environmental acceptability of individual areas. The underlying message being that creating good landscapes helps preserve the quality of living and the varied wealth of landscape characteristics in Europe.

The Seminar participants adopted the following conclusions:

- as a key element of individual and community well-being and quality of life, landscape plays an important part in human fulfilment and in the reinforcement of European identity. It significantly shapes general interest economically, culturally,

ecologically, environmentally and socially. However, changes in agricultural, forestry, industrial and mining technology, together with practices in planning, urban development, transport, network-building of various kinds, tourism and recreation and, at a more general level, changes in the world economy, are in many cases accelerating the transformation of landscapes;

- it is undisputed that some landscapes, of outstanding beauty, need special protection. Landscapes are not however only a heritage to be protected, but at the same time they are resources, which need appropriate management so that they evolve without loss of quality, and even increase their quality. In this respect, the natural resource role – particularly in agriculture and forestry – will have to be granted future advantage, without of course, diminishing the responsibility of any economic operator for prudent, sustained and respectful exploitation of landscapes. Finally, economic and social changes may create the need for the development of new landscapes, as for instance the construction of new transport infrastructures. These developments must be conceived and carried out in such a way as to produce a better quality of the ensuing landscapes;
- no goals can justify deterioration of the quality of landscapes through adverse effects of settlement and economic operations. Controlled and intense use of urban land, particularly the promotion of introvert growth of cities, can reduce the natural or semi-natural landscape transformation to building land. And where this is inevitable, adequate grade of conservation should still be applied in order to allow reciprocal enhancement of urbanised space and green areas;
- agriculture and forestry should not be seen only as economic activities and land uses. They are indispensable tools for landscape management. Their operation methods should be held in line with the goals of prudent and rational land use and sustainable spatial development. Agricultural market uncertainties could in a greater scale be encountered by adaptive patterns of production for market niches, which increase in variety and extent along with economic and social development of our societies;
- the landscapes of today reflect the population, economic, social and cultural history of regions. They require profound knowledge, and complex and efficient planning and management instruments. In-depth study of landscapes inseparable from pertaining territories, of development possibilities, opportunities and constraints, potentials and capacities of space, vulnerability, cultures, public opinions and social values, in as much as a thorough study of change, are very important scientific tools for efficient landscape planning. Comprehensive spatial planning with a territorial impact assessment, is essential, including long-term strategic environmental impact assessment of larger scale and detailed environmental impact assessment of any envisaged change of land use during the administrative procedures implied to permit such change;

- identification and assessment of landscapes and their systemisation according to their outstanding characteristics facilitate not only their protection, planning and management, but also renders them more comprehensible, as well as encouraging the building of favourable public opinion towards their importance. Development of guidelines and common principles, as well as granting continuous access to developing good practices would support sustainable landscape planning and management, ranging from controlling land use of great intensity and scale to the most vigorous conservation of the most valuable landscape heritage;
- landscape management is an integral part of spatial planning, but it should be borne in mind that the latter is much more than producing and adopting the spatial and detailed plans. Its main objective and its most important component are the implementation of planning decisions through a number of measures that have to be undertaken to achieve this. These comprise a variety of policies: financial, economic, spatial, agricultural, social, cultural and others;
- in pursuing the public good, these policies should not ignore that managing landscapes involves important questions, which are derived from their asset, property or real estate attributes. The “normal” fiscal and other financial tools, often used to regulate urban development in pursuing public needs, might not work in landscape management;
- in many cases, the protective regulation and management of landscapes will thus require economic and financial stimulation to land owners in order to be feasible. Landscapes have a value of such an importance that they could be a reason for necessary exemptions in otherwise very restrictive European economic stimulation policies in this respect.

The papers and the conclusions on the Seminar are published at CEMAT’s web site, and in a Council of Europe special publication (European regional planning, No. 66, 2003). The conclusions were forwarded to relevant institutions with the request to be taken into consideration in their future work.

13th Session of the European Conference of Ministers Responsible for Regional Planning

The results of common activities and the activities performed by the Member states at the national levels during the last three years presented the basic premises for the preparation of the 13th Session of CEMAT, taking place in Ljubljana, Slovenia, on 16 and 17 September 2003. The Ljubljana Declaration on the territorial dimension of sustainable development was adopted. It stresses the significance of an integrated approach, lists the most important problems and challenges for development planners, and – what is considered to be of utmost significance – it emphasises and specifies the significance of the fourth dimension of sustainable development (in

addition to the economic, social, and environmental dimensions) i.e. the cultural dimension.

The statement of the ministers, as per the Ljubljana Declaration, could be summarised to say that without taking into consideration the territorial dimension it will not be possible to implement the principles of sustainable development and to surpass the polarities and disparities in development existing in Europe today. To take into consideration the territorial dimension of spatial development means taking into consideration the properties, wealth, and potentials of individual regions, as well as harmonising the economic and social objectives with the cultural and environmental features.

The Ljubljana Declaration emphasises the significance of an integrated approach to development planning, and offers spatial development policies as an effective tool for creating solutions with broad social acceptability. Their preparation is usually entrusted to spatial planners, i.e., the profession, which is interdisciplinary by definition, and which does not reduce the role of sectors, the administrative level, or the public, but rather searches for the most acceptable social compromise.

In Ljubljana, the ministers of the CEMAT Member states committed themselves to make their best efforts to enforce an appropriate position of the cultural dimensions of sustainable development and spatial development policies in the process of ensuring the sustainable spatial development of the European continent.

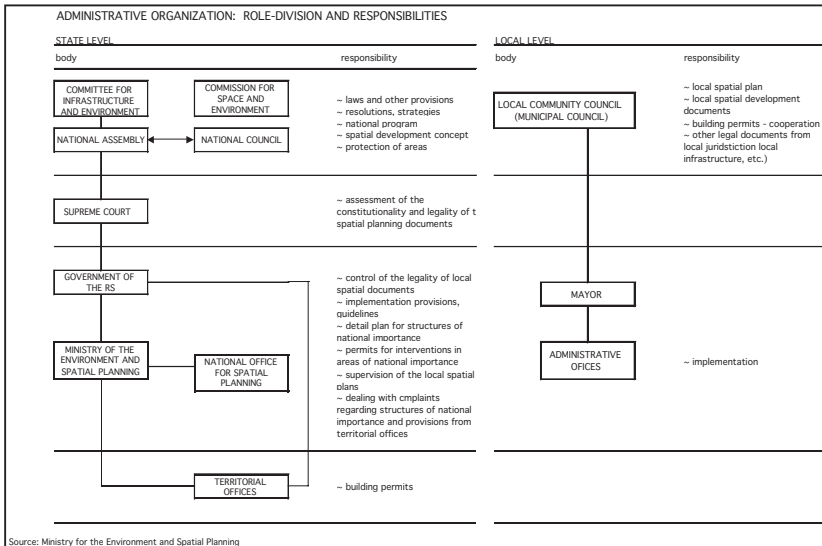
I am inviting all the participants to join us in performing this task. I am convinced that in this way we can make an enormous contribution to the implementation of the Landscape Convention.

The Slovenian experience

Spatial planning has a long tradition in Slovenia. It was always a part of the integrated planning process, first institutionalised in 1968. The planning system then combined economic, social, and spatial aspects in one, a so called long-term and medium-term social plan. At the national level its spatial part consisted of the national spatial plan, the defining concept for settlement management and growth, public service delivery, use of space and landscape transformation, protection of the environment, and guidelines for conflict management. Today, this form of planning is substituted by the national strategies and programs of each sector.

The new legal system set in Slovenia upon gaining independence in 1991 required a different attitude toward space, as well as the design of a responsible and effective spatial planning system. The new spatial planning system had to adapt the administrative solutions and approaches to a parliamentary democracy, market economy, private property, the establishment of the local government, and incorporation in the

European integration process. Reforming of the standards and organisational aspects of spatial planning established new rules, especially with regard to the system of spatial planning documents and their contents, the recognition and introduction of market instruments in the area of spatial planning, new roles in spatial planning for local communities, and respecting private property as one of the basic constitutional categories.



Slovenia redesigned the whole system of planning, which includes economic development, budgetary and spatial planning, adjusting it to the accession procedure to the European Union. The new spatial planning system in Slovenia is now in the process of being implemented, since the last major document that is setting up the new system, the *Spatial Planning and Management Act*, has been adopted on 31 December 2002. This document that determines the responsibilities and procedures in spatial planning, and among other, also defines the types and contents of spatial documents at national and local level. The new act introduces novelties stressing the flexibility of planning, the strengthening of public participation in adopting decisions about the use of space, establishing the foundations of a spatial planning information system, and simplifying of the procedures. Significant efforts were made to improve spatial planning legislation with an emphasis on land policy and with the preparation of the new overall strategy for spatial development of Slovenia. Through these efforts we are implementing the principles of European guidelines for sustainable spatial development.

Scheme of national spatial planning and management documents



Basic principles of the Act and basic aims of different plans

Basic principles

Two documents, adopted by the Government of the Republic of Slovenia in December 2001, present the basic premises for the new system of spatial planning and management. These two documents are the Spatial Management Policy of the Republic of Slovenia, and the Assessment of Spatial Development in Slovenia.

The Spatial Management Policy of the Republic of Slovenia is a document ensuring sustainable spatial development, defining the basic principles and objectives of spatial planning and management with the aim of creating a quality living and working environment, and harmonising spatial development with the broader European region. The document also presents guidelines for accomplishing its objectives.

The Assessment of Spatial Development in Slovenia contains a description and assessment of the principal characteristics of Slovenia, and factors influencing the development of the spatial planning system.

The new Spatial Planning Act defines the types, contents, and hierarchy of documents, and the method of their preparation. It also defines instruments for operational planning of spatial development. It provides two types of spatial document: national and

municipal. Both national and municipal spatial planning documents are divided into those defining spatial development guidelines, and those presenting the basis for more detailed planning or permitting spatial development activities. It is complemented by the revised Construction Act, which now defines, in a more modern and user-friendly manner, the methods and procedures for obtaining building permits.

In addition to national and local levels, the Spatial Planning Act also makes regional planning possible based on agreement at local and national levels.

The Act regulates spatial planning, the enforcement of measures for spatial arrangements, designates land for building, and the maintenance of a spatial data system. It also determines conditions for carrying out spatial planning, and defines violations in connection with such planning.

Aiming to ensure sustainable spatial development, the objectives of this Act are particularly to:

- regulate spatial planning and management responsibilities at national and local level, and to enforce the regional planning level;
- make possible greater public participation in spatial planning and management, and the transparency of spatial planning documents and adoption procedures;
- ensure increased flexibility in determining the contents of spatial documents, and in planning spatial development;
- take into consideration the new status of private ownership in spatial planning, and the enforcement of private initiative in operational spatial planning and management;
- reduce risks in investment project preparation;
- ensure accessibility and transparency of spatial planning documents, and spatial planning and management arrangements for each individual landsite;
- regulate professional activities involved in spatial planning.

National planning guidelines

The Spatial Development Strategy of Slovenia is the basic document concerning spatial development, containing the:

- basic premises and goals of spatial development;
- concept of Slovenian spatial development with priorities and guidelines for achieving spatial development objectives;
- development of spatial systems: settlement, infrastructure, and landscape, together with guidelines for spatial development at the regional and local levels;
- implementing measures.

In connection with the European policies to ensure sustainable development, the document sets out the concept of spatial development, strategic guidelines for sustainable spatial development at national and more detailed levels, and basic premises for the coordination of spatial development policies and protective requirements.

The purpose of harmonising the spatial development strategy is particularly to:

- harmonise economic, social, and environmental aspects of spatial development;
- provide spatial opportunities for linking individual areas and their integration at the national level;
- promote quality regional spatial development;
- provide spatial potentials for linkage with European projects;
- provide spatial potentials for achieving quality and humane urban development to achieve an integrated system of settlement, infrastructural network, and landscape;
- provide spatial potentials for the preservation of nature, protection of the cultural heritage, and sustainable spatial development in protected areas;
- achieve the sustainable use of natural resources, and protect and improve other qualities of the natural and cultural landscape;
- guide spatial development by taking into consideration the areas threatened by natural or other disasters, and meet national defence requirements;
- strengthen recognisable advantages and solve actual problems of Slovenian spatial development.

In addition to the Slovenian Economic Development Strategy, the Spatial Development Strategy of Slovenia is the conceptual starting point for other national strategies and programmes.

The Spatial Order of Slovenia sets forth rules for spatial planning and management (hereinafter: spatial rules) to provide the basis for a uniform method of urban and landscape planning, the allocation of land use, and architectural and landscape design which preserves the characteristic features of individual Slovenian regions.

Spatial rules are mandatory and must be taken into consideration when preparing detailed spatial planning documents, and particularly when making decisions on the enlargement and renewal of settlement development zones, on construction outside settlement development zones, and other spatial development activities where public benefit needs to be enforced.

By way of spatial rules, the Spatial Order also defines criteria and conditions for planning and construction of national significance, when no detailed national plan exists for a spatial arrangement of national significance, or such a plan has been executed and has therefore expired.

The Spatial Order of Slovenia together with the Spatial development strategy of Slovenia (hereinafter: Spatial development strategy) set forth basic premises for spatial planning and management, and the preparation of other spatial planning documents at national, regional, and local levels.

The detailed Plan of national importance is an implementing document related to the performance of spatial development activities. It determines planning conditions for drawing up plans to obtain building permits. The detailed Plan of national importance contains detailed plans of structures, infrastructural arrangements, green areas, environmental protection, conservation of natural and cultural heritage, parcellation, etc. It is intended for direct execution of the activities of public services, particularly national and regional infrastructure, and for the needs of defence. Under certain conditions, the detailed Plan of national importance also allows interference with ownership rights to ensure necessary construction and modernisation of public infrastructure at the national, regional, and local levels.

The Spatial Report is a review of the state of spatial development goals, and an instrument for monitoring the implementation of spatial planning guidelines. The Report contains:

- an analysis of the current state and trends in spatial development;
- implementation analysis of the Spatial Development Strategy of Slovenia and other national and regional spatial planning documents;
- proposals for the future spatial development of the country, and based on assessment, also a proposal for alterations to the Spatial Development Strategy of Slovenia.

The system in force so far has had a minimum of mandatory indicators for monitoring spatial development. These indicators, however, have become obsolete and completely inadequate in the new political conditions. They are not used in practice any more. Nevertheless, Slovenia is not completely without control over spatial processes, as Spatial Reports, which also deal with the spatial aspect, have been produced for a number of years.

The Spatial Planning Act introduces the Spatial Data System, which Slovenia wishes to use in order to regulate the field of spatial monitoring. The purpose of an orderly spatial data system should be to achieve synergy among individual fields of activities and to link data with the register of legal regimes.

Regional planning

The regional concept of spatial development was introduced to guide spatial development of national and regional significance in agreement between the state and municipalities. The planning zone is not defined in advance but depends on the nature of

the project and the interest of the state and municipalities. The regional concept of spatial development determines land use, planning guidelines for location of activities, and basic premises for spatial development activities, which are planned by the detailed Plan of national importance. When the regional concept of spatial development is adopted, it is binding upon both the state and municipalities: the state is obliged to make detailed plans of national importance in accordance with the regional conception adopted, while municipalities must take into consideration the regional conception in their spatial planning activities as the basic premises for spatial development.

If the regional conception of spatial development is prepared in sufficient detail, it can replace the spatial development strategies of all municipalities which have taken part in its preparation.

Local planning

At the level of municipality and in the scope of its territory, the municipal spatial development strategy has a similar role to the Spatial development strategy of Slovenia. The municipality uses this spatial planning document to determine long-term goals of spatial development in its territory, and particularly the guidelines for sustainable spatial development, and guidelines for the location of activities, development of urban areas, infrastructure, and landscape. The municipal spatial development strategy determines:

- basic premises and goals of municipal spatial development;
- priorities and guidelines for achieving spatial development objectives;
- development of settlements, urban land use, renewal of existing settlements, and restoration of degraded urban areas;
- regulation of transport, energy, municipal utilities, and other infrastructure;
- use of land areas showing farming land and forests, water resources management systems, areas of minerals, natural and cultural values, as well as natural and threatened areas;
- development, planning, and management of settlements based on projected urban development, and landscape planning, development and protection;
- implementing measures.

Urban Development and Landscape Development and Protection are constituent parts of the Municipal Spatial Development Strategy, but it is not necessary for plans to be drawn up and adopted at the same time.

The concept of Urban Development is a more detailed spatial planning document. It is made by the municipality, determining and showing the development of settlements, their division into individual functional units, and settlement renewal and

expansion zones. The concept of Urban Development is a foundation for determining individual legal regimes and restrictions, if any, for the development of settlement.

The concept of Landscape Development and Protection is a more detailed spatial planning document of the municipality for planning landscape areas. Its primary role is to determine land use and the location of activities in the area under consideration. It is made for areas of high landscape quality and for areas planned for protection.

The municipal spatial Order, together with the local detailed Plan, is an implementing document, since it determines land use areas within the municipal territory with such accuracy that their boundaries can be defined on the site, and shown in the land cadastre. In addition, it also defines:

- criteria and conditions for spatial planning and management (in particular the possibility of combining activities depending on land use, for the expected degree of utilisation of building land), defining building sites, for environmental protection, conservation of nature, protection of cultural heritage, and sustainable use of natural resources, protection against natural and other disasters, and for determining the zones of land development for construction, including general standards of building land development;
- subdivision of municipal territory into spatial and functional units, for which spatial planning documents, and spatial protection criteria and conditions will be prepared;
- implementing measures.

The municipal spatial Order may also provide detailed criteria and conditions concerning the preparation of plans for obtaining building permits for an individual planning zone, if such conditions are not specified in full in the detailed plan for this zone. When defining criteria and conditions for the preparation of plans for obtaining building permits, it is necessary to specify regulation elements for the location of spatial development, and it is also possible to define the height of structures, criteria for designing them, functional and technical schemes, including planning of their surroundings, and provision of municipal infrastructure with the conditions for its connection.

In the areas, where spatial development activities have already been performed based on the local detailed plan, it is necessary to adopt amendments to the municipal spatial Order.

The local detailed Plan is a municipal implementing document, planning in detail individual zones of spatial planning and management. The local detailed Plan determines planning conditions for the preparation of designs for obtaining building permits with respect to the purpose, position, size, and design of buildings or structures. It is also used for preliminary verification of the main impact of planned spatial development and resolving basic spatial conflicts. For this reason, it takes a relatively short

time to obtain a building permit for the planned structures in the territory of the local detailed Plan. Local detailed plans are prepared primarily to plan:

- infrastructure networks and provide for the operation of local public services;
- areas where the implementation measures, provided for in the Spatial Planning Act, are carried out (e.g., expropriation or restriction of ownership rights, land consolidation, renewals, etc.); and,
- areas where restoration and renewal is expected, and the expansion of settlements in accordance with the concept of urban development and the concept of landscape development and protection.

The municipal spatial report is related to the national spatial report. The municipality must draw up a spatial report every four years. Based on the spatial report, the municipality makes proposals for future spatial development and, if necessary, also for the revision of the municipal spatial development strategy.

The spatial planning documents listed provide a sufficiently exhaustive number of instruments to cover the needs of spatial planning and management both at national and local government levels.

Planning obligations, clients/producers of plans

Spatial planning documents are organised hierarchically at the national, regional, and local levels. Documents of lower levels must be in agreement with documents of higher levels. National spatial planning documents are the responsibility of the Ministry of the Environment, Spatial Planning, and Energy. Municipal documents are the responsibility of municipalities. If a municipality fails to fulfil its obligations in the field of spatial planning and management, the state can adopt spatial planning documents instead of this municipality.

In principle, all spatial planning documents are financed from public funds except in the case of detailed plans, which may also be financed by the initiators or investors of the intended spatial development activity. For the purpose of enforcing public benefit, private investors, and the municipality may conclude an urban planning contract determining the obligations of the investor and of the municipality in the preparation of spatial planning document and implementation of a spatial development activity.

National spatial planning

The Ministry of the Environment is responsible for the drawing up and adoption of national spatial planning documents. The preparation of a national spatial planning document can be initiated by another ministry if there are sound reasons for doing so.

The state is also responsible for organising the preparation of the national detailed plans for spatial arrangements of national importance. Based on an agreement, this responsibility can be transferred to the municipality.

In addition, the Ministry of the Environment is responsible for the preparation of the spatial reports every four years. Such reports must be submitted to the Government of the Republic of Slovenia which submits them to the National Assembly for consideration.

The Ministry of the Environment is also responsible for the preparation of implementing acts provided by the Spatial Planning Act. It also prepares manuals and instructions in connection with spatial planning and management if the need arises.

Regional level

The regional concept of spatial development is a non-binding spatial planning document. It is drawn up jointly by the state and municipalities on the basis of an agreement. Its preparation can be initiated by the interested municipalities, a Regional Development Agency, or ministries.

Local level

Municipalities are responsible for the preparation and adoption of municipal spatial planning documents. Their basic task is to represent the public interest, and act in accordance with the law and superior spatial planning documents.

Several municipalities may combine to produce municipal spatial planning documents (e.g. a Common Municipal Spatial Development Strategy or a Common Local Detailed Plan for the projected spatial arrangement). Anyone can propose changes in municipal spatial planning documents, as long as such initiative is well grounded. The municipality is obliged to consider such proposals at least every four years.

Municipalities must also draw up periodical four-yearly spatial reports for their respective areas, adopt, and publish them in the official gazette.

Environmental Impact Assessment or Strategic Impact Assessment in Planning

The Spatial Planning Act lays down which obligations, methods and procedures are regulated by the Spatial Planning Act. The Act provides for the mandatory preparation of environmental vulnerability studies and environmental impact assessment to be used for the assessment of spatial development documents.

When building permits are issued for complex structures with environmental impact, a special assessment of such structure's environmental impact and a report is required. The spatial planning system reform also envisages that environmental impact

assessment may need revision. This should ensure consistent provision of environmental protection, and even closer procedural and content-related integration of both normative systems.

Other aspects are important as well as environmental protection such as the protection and conservation of natural values, cultural heritage, waters, farming land, and forests, each of which requires specific regulations, which influence spatial planning. In the preparation and adoption of spatial planning documents, differences of approach and interest must be reconciled.

We hope this new solutions will contribute to the effectiveness of the implementation of our common principles for sustainable development in Europe.

Implementing these principles in Slovenia and in cross-border, interregional and transnational co-operation, we are developing policies and measures that will support the development of good landscapes in Slovenia we contribute to the plurality of landscapes in Europe.

Planning systems and landscape: example of the Netherlands

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In this paper, I will explore the relation between landscape development and conservation on the one hand and the existing planning system on the other. I will do so, using the Green Heart planning in the Netherlands as a clear example. The Green Heart is the relatively open, agricultural area in the heart of the most densely populated urban area of the country, widely known as the Randstad Holland.

Values and potentials of the Green Heart

The Green Heart covers an area of roughly 2.000 sqkms. It is surrounded by an almost continuous conurbation, among which the urban areas of Amsterdam (to the north, 1 million), The Hague (to the west, 875.000), Rotterdam (to the south, 1.25 million) and Utrecht (to the east, 600.000). Together, these and other urban areas form a circular conurbation (the Randstad Holland), which opens up towards the southeast.

The Green Heart itself is made up of relatively old landscape types, the oldest of which date back to the medieval times (around 1100 AD). All of these landscapes are completely man-made. Together, they give a good overall impression of the historical landscapes of the western part of the Netherlands. More in detail, the Green Heart area shows a large variety. Some of the different landscape types in the area are:

- peatland cultivation landscapes, especially well-known because of their various drainage canals with windmills as pumping engines;
- artificial and semi-artificial lakes and ponds, many of which are the result of peat extraction gone wrong because of wind-caused disasters;
- reclaimed lakes and ponds (from the 16th-19th century) lying far below sea level, internationally known as “polders”;
- river landscapes, with their wide (seasonally flooded) marshlands and their impressive river dikes.

The Green Heart is still rich in monuments of cultural heritage. Especially in the peatland cultivation landscapes and along the river dikes, where historical strip settlements (road or dike based) are abundant, we find hundreds of old and preserved farmhouses. Windmills, sometimes grouped in clusters of three and more, arguably make up the most striking landmarks in the Green Heart, in spite of the fact that all of them have lost their original function as pumping engines. But the real monument of cultural heritage is the landscape of the Green Heart itself, of which large parts are still unchanged after a history of centuries.

The carrot and the stick I: fifty years of restrictive planning

Randstad and Green Heart have long been an inseparable combination in Dutch spatial planning. This started in the late 1940's, when the great Dutch aviator and businessman (and founder of KLM Airlines) Albert Plesman flew over the western part of the Netherlands and suddenly realised that all the western cities together formed one large urban area with an open landscape in the middle. He then coined the term "Randstad Holland". Soon afterwards, planners from the new National Planning Agency added the term "Green Heart" for the land in between the Randstad cities.

The Dutch planning system grew from grass root level, beginning in the late 1920's with separated regional development plans for unrelated parts of the country. In the 1950's, a more integrated system of spatial planning took off when the national government centralised and standardised earlier experiments. From the beginning, the national government showed a keen interest in keeping the Green Heart open. Since then, the preservation of the essential values of the Green Heart has been a constant objective in the Dutch planning practice.

In consecutive national planning reports (ranging from the First Report in 1958 to the Fifth Report in 2000), this objective has been elaborated in different ways:

- the most direct policy measure was the *imposition of building restrictions* for the whole area of the Green Heart. For years, the policy makers had warned against the rapid growth of the municipalities in the Green Heart, which for a substantial part was caused by an influx of (relatively) well-to-do citizens from the surrounding Randstad cities. This phenomenon, generally known as suburbanisation, became the ultimate evil to spatial planners. Although the aversion to urbanisation has been an enduring feature of all previous reports, the restrictions became institutionalised in the Third Report (different versions, 1973-1984). In this report, the growth of the Green Heart as a whole was limited to the forecasted natural growth of the area. The Green Heart area itself was thoroughly delimited by drawing a precise line on a government map (the term "redlining" would apply here). If lower authorities (esp. provinces) decided on extra growth for certain towns within this line, other towns would have to suffer in order to restore the balance;
- as the western part of the Netherlands experienced a large increase in population during most of the 20th century, after World War II, occupancy rates fell rapidly due to the rising prosperity. These developments lead to an unprecedented demand for new housing in the Netherlands. Between 1945 and 1975 the number of housing units in the country roughly doubled; it even tripled between 1945 and 2000. This meant an increased pressure on the Green Heart. To divert this pressure to less vulnerable areas, the official government policy was very much in favor of compact urban extensions on the edge of existing cities, and of the *creation of new towns*. The first of these new towns, obviously modeled after the

British example, date back to the 1960's. In the Third Report, their number further increased. Apart from their (varying) urban and architectural qualities, the success of the new towns becomes clear when we look at their growth figures. In a period (1985-2002) when the number of housing units in the Green Heart grew 27.5% (which in itself is slightly above the national average), the increase for the new towns of the Randstad Holland for the same period scores an impressive 38.8%.

Together, the building restrictions in the Green Heart, the compact extension of the Randstad and the creation of new towns, certainly have not stopped all development in the Green Heart. In these times, the average population density of the Green Heart lays around 475 inh/sqkm, certainly not a figure that seems in line with the area's image of a non-urban, open landscape. The rapid growth of the surrounding new towns, however, suggests that the outcome could have a lot worse.

The carrot and the stick II: new developments in the landscape

Imposing restrictions is an important measure in order to keep open an area of outstanding scenic beauty, but it cannot be the whole story. In the case of the Green Heart, a parallel policy has developed, aimed at enhancing the visual, natural and recreational qualities of the area itself. To understand what has happened, it is helpful to know the following background information in mind:

- the Netherlands have a long standing tradition of land consolidation (ruilverkaveling in Dutch), from a modest start in the 1920's (mostly based on an exchange of land between farmers) to ambitious comprehensive projects (resulting in radical changes in the overall landscape pattern) from the 1950's. This know-how turned out to be useful in the "remaking" of the Green Heart;
- the 1960's and 1970's brought a change in the attitude towards nature. Preservation of ecological values became an inevitable item on the political agenda at all levels, and it has not been away since then. This is not just government policy: it may be interesting to know that the Netherlands has (with the UK) one of the largest membership rates of private organisations for the protection of nature and heritage (with 1 million members or 6% of the total population for Natuurmonumenten, the largest of these organisations). Thereby, nature conservation has a strong support among the population of the country.

As in large parts of Europe, the viability of agriculture came under pressure during the second half of the 20th century. The Green Heart is a special case, mainly because of the natural handicaps imposed by the landscape: a wet, low-lying peat bog that was almost exclusively used for dairy farming. Although the area is the home of the world-renowned *Gouda* cheese, massive overproduction in the 1970's (including the so-called "milk lake", inspired countermeasures by the European Union, aimed at

decreasing dairy production. Considering the importance of dairy products for the area, it will be obvious that the Green Heart was severely hit by these rules.

For the development of the Green Heart, specific policy measures were implemented. The most important of these are:

- the “creation of a green belt” between the Randstad conurbation and the Green Heart, as an important tool to relieve recreational pressure on the area. Shortly after World War II, planners realised that the rapidly growing population of the Randstad would need much more regional park areas than could be provided, especially since outdoor recreation became more and more popular in that period. Partly inspired by the (prewar) London example, the so-called Randstad Park Structure (*Randstadgroenstructuur* in Dutch) was to be the answer to the perceived shortage of green areas in and around the Randstad. Partially, the Randstad Park Structure elaborated on earlier, scattered park areas. Many of the existing and new regional park areas were designed, owned and maintained by special recreation authorities (*recreatieschappen* in Dutch), set up by the big cities and the provinces in the west of the Netherlands. In its final stage, the green belt was to become a continuous buffer between Randstad and Green Heart, protecting the latter against urban expansion. Although only part of the original plans have been carried out, the size of the existing park areas is impressive, totaling some 3.000 hectares;
- the provision for large nature, landscape conservation and recreation in “land consolidation projects” throughout the Green Heart. Older consolidation projects, roughly until 1970, used to show little respect for other than agricultural values. When points of view in society changed, mainly because of the new attitude towards nature, land consolidation changed too. In more recent consolidation projects, relative large areas were set aside for nature conservation, landscape improvement and recreational facilities. Especially in meadow bird areas (a characteristic feature of the wetland-type peat bogs of the Western Netherlands), the amount of farmland changed into bird sanctuary can be substantial. In the *Krimpenerwaard* Consolidation Project south of the town of *Gouda*, approximately a quarter of the whole project area has been earmarked for nature conservation. In all projects, lines of trees and small-sized strips of woodland have been introduced to improve the visual quality of the landscape without obstructing the long views that are so typical of the flat and open countryside of the Green Heart.

Together, the green belt and the land consolidation projects have proven to be important tools in the preservation and enhancement of the qualities of the Green Heart. Still, in spite of many years of restrictive policy, towns throughout the Green Heart are still growing. New houses on the edge of these towns (however small their numbers may be) are increasingly regarded as eyesores in the overall appearance of the landscape.

The Green Heart at the beginning of the 21st century

After so many years of planning and implementation, the situation regarding the Green Heart has become increasingly complicated. The Green Heart has been the target of large amounts of government money and large amounts of policy efforts. The perception of what is the best way to deal with this area, however, is slowly changing in the public eye as well as in planning and policy making circles. Some important reasons are:

- the change in the general mood during the 1990's, when the market economy and private initiatives became more and more popular, at the expense of government planning;
- a change of European Union agricultural policy, in which farmers should be encouraged to engage in new activities (like tourism, sale of regional specialities to the public, maintaining elements of landscape and heritage) instead of concentrating on increasing farm production;
- initiatives by architects, developers and local authorities to experiment with new ways of housing in areas of scenic beauty, especially by creating substantial woodlands around the new residential (or office) development;
- doubts about the rightness of the established tradition in the Dutch planning system, in which urban and rural areas should be strictly separated; work on the Fifth Report, which featured “red barriers” around all towns and cities, was aborted after political changes in 2002.

Undoubtedly, these new trends will have an impact on Green Heart policy. It is rather early to predict what will actually happen, but it is significant that the idea of dividing the Green Heart into manageable sub-areas (ironically dubbed “heart chambers” by the Green Heart policy makers) and concentrating on the protection of “chambers” with the highest (nature and landscape) values has become a thinkable concept, even on higher levels of policy making.

Conclusions and questions

- The combined policy, in which building restrictions go together with redevelopment measures, for decades, has been the right approach for a vulnerable area like the Green Heart.
- Landscape reconstruction, nature conservation and heritage protection are only practicable within the framework of a consistent, long-term policy and financial support on a high administrative level.
- The big question in these days is, whether “blueprint protection policies” like the redlining of the Green Heart are still workable in times of deregulation, decentralisation and privatisation.

Spatial planning for landscape; mapping the pitfalls or buttering the parsnips and avoiding the weeds

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In English we have a proverb “Fine words butter no parsnips”. Parsnips are root vegetables, very tasty and almost unknown in France. The proverb means that clever talking does not get the job done, and is particularly apposite to my talk here, because it takes us straight to the heart of the matter – not only land and landscape but food, and people working. Many years ago at the Conference at Blois which Landscape Research Group organised with *Paysage + Aménagement*, it became clear that the United Kingdom and France were both busy devising new methods of providing money for small-scale farm enterprises. The driving force in England was “fine landscape” and in France was “good food”.

Throughout Europe, and elsewhere, there have been many attempts to protect landscape by legislation, and similar devices often have very different names. What in Norway might be a *Park Nasjonal* might be a *Parque Cultural* in Spain, an *écomusée* in France, a Regional Museum in Russia or an *Environmentally Sensitive Area* in the United Kingdom.

I want to look at some of the problems which are the side effects of landscape legislation. I want to consider only for a few moments the problem of buttering the parsnips, but spend rather longer looking at the weeds that grow with the parsnips and how we might manage them. I am well aware that I am following a boring tradition of Englishry by being pragmatic and judging things by whether they work, rather than their logic. At conferences in England, I always yearn for French logic, but at conferences here, I do the practical thing.

And we do need to learn from each other, and quickly. It may not be necessary to use the same terminology, provided we learn the lessons. I believe that cultural landscapes are being designated so quickly across Europe that we are in imminent danger of having half of the continent designated as “outside current economics”. Both Britain and Germany are examples. We need to decide on the criteria we might use for making judgements about landscape legislation. What are we trying to achieve, and what are we trying to avoid?

There seems more agreement about the former than the latter. The maintenance and enhancement of the qualities of landscapes throughout the continent is quite a good start. Of course, we agree that this is a conservationist approach, and thus includes the possibility of improving landscapes, and not merely a preservationist approach. Also

there is considerable agreement that the qualities are not only visual. Work by the team based at the Universidad Autonoma in Madrid has made it quite clear that the aural qualities of landscape are also of great human meaning, perhaps even greater than the visual. The mapping of Tranquillity Zones has not proceeded very far in the United Kingdom, and I wonder who is ahead of us in that field? Olfactory qualities may also be significant although very little work has been done on this area. Back in the 1930's, the English geographer Vaughan Cornish divided the landscape quite close to my home in Devon into three Zones of Fragrance. Nor am I going to forget "taste" and the French concept of *terroir* is very useful there – landscapes also taste. *Bourgogne* is not just an area on a map, and Strasbourg has both geese and sausages.

Surely we are also now agreed that the Kantian aesthetics of detachment will not do in the landscape field, as Berleant has argued. Indeed I was careful not to use the word "aesthetic" in describing the qualities we were trying to promote. The aesthetics involved in judging landscapes are much more post-modern, concerned with meanings and values rather than absolutes inherent in the objects themselves. Those meanings then belong to a whole range of people, not merely an elite group of connoisseurs.

In landscape conservation, we will sadly be aware that very much of the most important elements in landscape are not conservable. John Constable, the English painter, said that the "sky was the chief organ of sentiment", while many of the Dutch artists painted little but sea and sky. There is a real danger of "chasing after rainbows" in much landscape conservation.

Perhaps also we have, throughout Europe, developed an understanding that the protection and enhancement of the economic well-being of the inhabitants of the landscape is as important as the objects of the landscape itself, not only for their own benefit but also for visitors from outside. This recognises the fact that landscape is not only a view (*landskaap*) but also a place (*Landschaft*) with its own customs, as recently detailed by Olwig. The ancient *Landschafts* to which he refers are those of Frisia and Jutland, small legal tribal entities, largely self sufficient. So he sees *Landschaft* as essentially about custom and local control, and landscape as about external (usually national) control. This view of landscape, as a way of looking validated by external forces, by those who wish to control places, therefore, may not be something that a democratic Europe wishes to support at all. Although there may be the same frisson of the memento mori about the conservation of such landscapes as there is with the conservation of former palaces, whether Versailles, the Gartenreich in Germany, or monastic ruins in England.

One of the really exciting elements of heritage in the last decade has been the increased realisation that heritage is not a dreadful cost to be borne by society but a wonderful opportunity for economic regeneration – and not only tourist development. This realisation has been most obvious in its urban form – the regeneration of Glasgow was

only one of the successes of the European City of Culture programme. This use of conservation as the fundamental plank in economic regeneration now needs to be extended to the broader landscape. Many cultural landscapes are already foci for tourism, but the challenge is to become the central feature of a working place where tourism has a role within a more varied economy. So the landscape is not the empty and still countryside so beloved by modernist photographers, but a working place. It is the parsnips as well as the field.

I shall declare my incurable optimism by supposing that we are largely agreed about these desirable outcomes, but I now want to move on to consider how we should manage conflict, and how we should destroy the weeds that will inevitably emerge with any attempt at serious conservation. Recent work within the rapidly expanding area of Heritage Studies, immediately reminds us that all heritage is dissonant, as Graham Farclough has demonstrated. There are disputes between the various fields of heritage – between saving that butterfly and saving that archaeological ruin. Then there are the conflicts between different stakeholders, between owners and governments, between scholars and tourists, between school parties and connoisseurs. And there are plenty of disputes between nations, between nations and regions, between local needs and European requirements. So there is no shortage of weeds to choke our emerging crop of parsnips.

The first weed is that of designation. By far the most common approach to conserving landscapes consists of designating those that are special, drawn on a map. But, in one sense, landscapes are not regions, they are views. There are plenty of cases, such as the Lincolnshire Wolds in England, where the hills are protected, but all the guide-books will tell you that it is the wonderful view from the hills that is the chief attraction. But the view has no protection. We conserve the viewpoint and lose the view.

But designation has a more insidious problem. There are two sides to the lines. Every time we say “This is precious” we inevitably say “And this is not”. But this is not really the truth in this little continent of ours. When we were planning the Blois conference a decade ago, there was a debate between British and French as to what a “designed landscape” was. Did it include agricultural landscape? Eventually the only American in the group, David Lowenthal, reminded us that to American eyes, “All Europe is a Garden”. So what we really need is not some areas designated as special, but a system that recognises that all areas are differently special. There is nothing new in this. Vidal de la Blache stressed the importance of the French *pays* eighty years ago. English Nature has recently produced a map of Natural Areas, and would like to move towards a system whereby each Natural Area has its own set of management guidelines. But neither lawyers nor developers are very enthusiastic. They like things simple – can I build my factory there or not? The Florence Convention recognises the need to cover all landscapes, but we are a long way short of developing the means to do it.

Arising from that problem, I want to ask “What about the *banlieues*?” Having edited *Landscape Research* for a decade, I became wearily aware that the vast preponderance of landscape research either concerned the rural countryside (especially non-farmed hill country) or the inner cities, with their parks and urban spaces. The places where most of the people lived, the suburbs, were scarcely ever given serious consideration. Are these landscapes not cultural enough? If we are concerned about the amount of travel undertaken by all these people from the suburbs going to visit “proper” cultural landscapes, in their own country or abroad, perhaps the first action is to ensure that their perception of their own home areas is so ideal that no-one would want to leave. Designated special areas now carefully draw their lines to exclude the places where most people live. So we badly need a re-appraisal of the suburban landscape, and we may have to accept that the suburban landscape is the genuine expression of our globalising world, a landscape that represents the real culture of our time, much the same from one Galicia to the other, and the most important legacy we shall leave for our great-grandchildren to understand how we lived.

How do we keep Nature conserved? The arrival of the cultural landscape as an important element has been a great pleasure to me as a cultural geographer. Far too often, landscape conservation was confused with, or run by, nature conservation. But we must remember that all cultural landscapes have significant natural elements, not just the fauna and flora, but also the geology. I remember sending out a group of post-graduate students studying heritage conservation to look at various heritage sites. One student, a graduate biologist, was angry to be allocated to Exeter Cathedral as he thought heritage concerned animals and plants. A few hours later he returned, really angry, because he discovered that Exeter Cathedral had the “best collection of lichens west of Bristol, and the architects were scraping them off!”. At the recent meeting of the British Association for the Advancement of Science, English Nature made a plea for more countryside to be given over to housing, especially houses with large gardens. The future of several species would be much healthier in the hands of gardeners than of farmers. Conserving the church tower implies also conserving the bats inside it, the lichen on the wall and the falcon on top.

How do we prevent gentrification, the best known of all my weeds? In northern Europe, it no longer causes any surprise that areas designated and conserved for their attractiveness soon become the property of comparatively wealthy migrants. A whole range of legal frameworks have tried to restrict this. In Exmoor National Park all new building is restricted to local people with local jobs. But if they wish to move on, ten years later, to a job in an expensive part of the country, they cannot then get a proper market price for their home. In any case, in these days of the internet, what constitutes a local job? In the Czech Republic the houses in the village of Hola_ovice, a world heritage site, now host mostly large cars with Prague number-plates, and several with Nürnberg or München number-plates, despite the ban on foreign ownership.

In southern Europe, the flight from the land has been much more recent, and the return to it by the wealthy is only now beginning, but the problems will be similar. In many cases, the wealthy incomers will be foreign. The British and Dutch colonies in France or on the Spanish coast are only the best-known examples. If the move to protect cultural landscapes actually merely creates ghettos for the wealthy, we shall have a job justifying ourselves to local people. Every attempt to control this process needs to be carefully monitored and the results effectively promulgated throughout Europe. We need answers fast.

Then how do we protect landscape when it is claimed by different cultures? Many of our cultural landscapes are along borders, present or past. The Šumava/Bayerischerwald has quite different meanings to Czech visitors and to German visitors. In this case there are scarcely any inhabitants with a continuous family settlement in the area, and Czech scholars have advanced the idea of the central district with economic capital and the periphery with cultural capital. And here we are in Alsace! We cannot in Europe forget that much of our landscape was forged and changed as result of power struggles, whether between princes or between nations, or between regions. Belchite in Spain is a village protected in its ruinous state to commemorate its defence by nationalist villagers in the Civil War. The Austerlitz memorial near Brno is the intellectual cultural property of at least three nations. The poor Welsh are asked carefully to conserve their World Heritage Site of the castles built by the English to eradicate Welsh identity.

But such cultural differences are not only international. In Northern Ireland there are two opposed cultural landscapes almost on every corner. I was recently taken to Solovetski, islands in the White Sea, where the Russian Orthodox church is busy restoring the cathedrals to magnificence, almost completely ignoring the use of this island and these buildings as the first great Gulag.

If we are agreed that we must enhance the economic lives of the local inhabitants, how do we stop them becoming “domestic pets”? The Sorbisch people of Niederlausitz and the Spreewald now have their language and way of life carefully protected. So do the Sami of northern Norway, and in southern Italy they are now working on protection for the Greek speaking villages. But how easy is it for a Sami girl to graduate as a nuclear physicist? Or does such protection involve keeping a group of people in cultural servitude to provide camera fodder for the tourists? In Bulgaria I believe there were villages maintained as living and working museums, where the people were simply not allowed to advance. A living history museum full of volunteers is very different from compulsion.

Planners must not assume that local inhabitants want to be a designated place – a growing number do not. We must recognise that many local people wish to be part of the real, modern, world, and that they would like a McDonalds, and a hypermarket. Local

people on Dartmoor cannot use mobile phones because of the aesthetic problems of erecting masts. And local people do see things differently. One study in East Anglia, after the great gales which destroyed most of the forests, showed that the local people largely preferred the landscape without the trees!

Should we involve artists? Art seems to be commonly perceived as part of the solution in cultural landscapes that need an economic boost. I have worked for many years in an Art School, and quite close to Dartington, and I regret to say that art is more likely to be part of the problem despite some honourable attempts by, for example, Common Ground. Artists are the shock troops of the gentrification process. Most cultural committees are packed with Fine Art, Drama, Music and Literature, and agriculture finds it difficult to find a seat. At Pentadattillo in Calabria where the local Greek-speaking inhabitants have already fled, then the plan to convert it to an art village may be viable. Similarly those carefully designed landscapes which we call gardens are sufficiently full of artifice that the artifice of art can be absorbed. But the “community” that is served by “community art” is very rarely that of the local inhabitants. Is a local custom or a local handicraft served well or ill by becoming an artform with all the metropolitan attention that involves? Is Guggenheim at Bilbao better than McDonalds, simply because the social class of the visitors is different?

How do we allow our perceptions of cultural landscapes to change? Research on the landscapes painted by English artists was helpful in demonstrating one possible way of measuring the cultural significance of places. How many paintings were done of this place compared with that place? But it very clearly demonstrated that preferences change. The landscape that the mid-nineteenth century thought was wonderful has now been superseded by later tastes. The love of open moorland only dates from 1870 in England, earlier in France with the Barbizon painters. Nowadays artists concentrate on the extreme vernacular – the very opposite of a tidy hygienic, packaged and conserved cultural landscape. Culture now embraces the empty coke can, the broken greenhouse and the roll of old barbed wire and corrugated iron. Are we doomed to conserve the landscapes that we love, only to be damned by our grandchildren for having destroyed the ones that they come to love.

What do we owe to the rest of the world? Do we substitute the subsidies paid to farmers for growing crops a different subsidy in order to maintain the landscape (which is the British version) or to provide better traditionally produced food (which is the French version). Will these subsidies be any fairer on Africa than the present ones? Is the cost of protecting our cultural landscape a continuance of the protectionism that Group 21 so determinedly resisted during the World Trade Organisation meeting in Cancun?

And finally, what degree of environmental responsibility do we owe to the rest of the world and to our children? The carefully maintained landscape of the Waddensee has,

as its main local product, prawns. Everyday in the Bauernmarkt of the area you can buy fresh Waddensee prawns, caught yesterday. True, but last evening they were flown to Morocco to be peeled and returned in time for the market. Cultural landscapes may not be bio-diverse, and are not necessarily sustainable. Certainly special cultural landscapes that act as tourist magnets, such as many of the great gardens of Europe, here at Tivoli, must accept some responsibility for too much travel. Honourable efforts by the National Trust in England to promote public transport have not been overwhelmingly successful.

So there are plenty of weeds in this field of parsnips. One I have not raised is authenticity. Most of us would love to find an entirely authentic cultural landscape somewhere in Europe, where the local people, quite unselfconsciously, continue their way of life. These days you can have authenticity, or you can have unself-consciousness. You cannot have both. The wonderfully authentic Norwegian farms, complete with trans-humance, are run by people with at least one other job – almost certainly professional. In my own village, the characters in the pub are actually doctors, lawyers and professors quietly playing the part of locals.

Despite all the weeds, there have been some extraordinary success stories. In Britain the work of the National Trust (my own village is NT owned) is surely one. The Czech Village Restoration scheme, where the village itself determines the priorities for action, is another. Some of the best French écomusées – I am particularly fond of Lozère – Cévennes, with an extraordinary programme of *animations*. Also the regeneration of Versailles after the millennium storm is a lesson in a particular kind of cultural landscape.

We certainly need critical reviews, where neutral specialists write seriously critical reviews of cultural landscape developments against a tough set of priorities. Books, plays and films have to face harsh reviews, but very rarely those responsible for the landscape of our continent.

New challenges in the field of spatial planning: landscapes

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This presentation will use a few examples to discuss new challenges in the field of spatial planning related to “landscape”. As a representative of ECLAS, the European Council for Landscape Architecture Schools, I will also address the role of education and research in spatial planning with a holistic, interdisciplinary and cross-sectoral focus on “landscape”. The term “landscape architecture” encompasses landscape planning, landscape design and landscape management. In this paper my focus is primarily on the landscape planning scale. I will therefore rather use the term “landscape planning” as a topic that is established in teaching and research in many higher education institutions across Europe.

The current transformation of rural and urban landscapes in Europe creates tasks for spatial planning that are more complex and demanding than previously. New challenges emerge from a higher pressure on land, a higher degree of environmental impact, and problems that are transboundary and require joint actions. In addition there are higher level concerns about the need to promote socially, culturally and ecologically sustainable development, including landscapes for human health and wellbeing. Challenges are also related to how we interact and communicate, how adaptable we are to new ways of thinking, how ideas behind policy and decision-making are developed and how research questions are formulated. New challenges in spatial planning are hence not only those that exist “out there” but also those that are linked to our culture of education, research and the professions.

This presentation will focus on the implications of bringing landscape as a more powerful concept into spatial planning. Planning for landscape quality, aimed at integrating aesthetic, social, historical, cultural, biological, environmental and economic concerns, is however not a new activity, it has been a challenge for landscape planners for more than a century. The aim of landscape planning and design can simply be expressed as aiming to conserve and create good outdoor spaces, through the arrangement and composition of landform, water, vegetation and structures. Landscape planning also seeks to look beyond the visual aspects of landscape as scenery to the landscape structures and processes, which are the factors that influence the creation and evolution of landscapes. A distinguishing feature of landscape planning is its holistic approach, aiming to look beyond some of the thematic “borders” within which many related professions operate – it should cover everywhere and integrate all aspects and viewpoints, combining for example the perspectives and ideas about landscape of ecologists and archaeologists.

Society is still, however, dominated by sectoral thinking in the way laws, regulations, planning and administration for landscape are drawn up in separate divisions, and where values related to nature and culture are separated from each other and from experiential and social landscape values. Good intentions and ideals of creating spaces, places and landscapes to increase the quality of human life within an integrated, holistic framework are not new, but the means for implementing them are still inadequate. Because the European Landscape Convention recognises landscape in its own right, it will inevitably add a new significant weight to existing calls for a more holistic approach to landscape planning.

One of the most urgent challenges for spatial planning is how to handle the process of growing urbanisation – in a sustainable way. The aim of this will be to maintain global ecological factors such as biodiversity and climate, to safeguard natural resources and at the same time improve the quality of the local human environment in terms of infrastructure, aesthetic quality, cultural heritage, health, social functions, public open spaces, and access to nature. Currently, the world is undergoing an exceptional rate of urban growth, with nearly half of its population living in urban areas and an intense demand on urban land. In Europe, the growth in the density of town and cities often takes place through the development of remaining green field sites within the urban area. This results in loss of green spaces and structures, with negative consequences for urban recreation and local distinctiveness within the city, but it also has other negative environmental impacts through loss of habitats and corridors for urban wildlife, reduced water infiltration and poorer air hygiene.

While arguing for the importance of urban green spaces in planning situations, it is often difficult to defend the “soft” social, cultural, aesthetic and even environmental values of urban parks and open spaces against the demand of more profitable needs such as the development of office buildings or a more efficient infrastructure network. Research has however presented strong evidence of the restorative effect of green spaces in cities, such as green environment for hospitals, schools and other public houses, urban parks and urban forests, as a resource for mental and physical health. This can be turned into monetary values for society through decreased costs for public healthcare. Such research can better provide convincing arguments for politicians: urban landscapes must contain high quality green spaces for human wellbeing and the quality of urban life. In this context, the European Landscape Convention can also provide a powerful tool to establish the position of the urban design issue as comprising a landscape dimension.

Towns and cities are home to some eighty percent of Europeans, yet we fail to consider their landscape as an overall resource. Urban open space, which of course includes traditional parks and gardens, but is also made up of many more types of spaces, from streets and squares to roadsides and railway embankments, is a continuous matrix which binds our towns and cities together and links them to the surrounding

landscape. There is an urgent need to take an integrated overview of its planning and management which goes beyond the current sectoral thinking of municipal departmentalism.

The spread of urban fringe landscapes into the adjoining countryside is another consequence of the urbanisation process. The resulting urban sprawl often takes the form of anonymous fringe areas with industry, business-parks, supermarkets, fuel-stations and housing developments, merged with elements from the rural landscapes turned into new uses for the urban population. Those urban fringe areas that are deficient in a strong history and character most clearly succumb to “landscape globalisation”. They are nevertheless everyday landscapes for people who live and work there, and perhaps one of the most distinctive cultural landscapes of our time. The dispersal of urbanisation may bring about some of the most challenging current responsibilities for landscape planning and design, with one of the major problems being that urban and rural areas tend to be thought of quite separately in planning terms. Examples of integral character with the attempt to provide an increased landscape quality of urbanised regions can however be found today in Europe. The so-called City-Landscapes vision in the Netherlands is an example of a planning approach in which policies and planning of city and countryside are more co-ordinated.

The rapid expansion of power – and infrastructure landscapes has spawned the development of compensation and mitigation tools, often focusing on environmental impacts. These measures are often developed by technical experts, and need to be transparent and comprehensible in order to be applicable. Can compensation and mitigation measures be efficient and applicable also when it comes to meeting the objectives for the European Landscape Convention, with a respect for landscape identity and quality for the everyday landscape? Can they deal with cultural and historical values or the local sense of place, or is there a danger that we will face an expansion of character-less and ultimately unsustainable “compensation landscapes”?

A further challenge is the question of what will be the mental landscapes of tomorrow for the groups of the population that may have lost their roots and connections to the landscape, such as the young generation who spend their time in “virtual landscapes”, or immigrants who have settled down in a new and unknown environment? This is also to challenge the ongoing paradox with limitless communication within the virtual reality and at the same time increasing restrictions within the real world. Landscape planning can be a resisting force against “virtualisation of relations”. It is not just a question of preserving landscapes for nostalgic reasons, but a question of creating everyday landscapes for humans and human relations in the first place. Landscape policies and planning must aim to avert the trends towards segregation in urban areas and support landscape developments that have a capacity to integrate a diversity of humans. Landscapes provide an important contribution to people’s identity with their homeland, in all senses, and planning and design enforce the glue that gives the bond

between people and the landscape. The landscape architect profession makes a distinctive contribution to this field.

The changing appearance of landscapes with former rural land uses raises new demands in order to maintain human, physical and ecological structures at a time when they are under threat from depopulation and the economic downturn in some sectors of agriculture. Professionals trained to think holistically must work for an integration of agricultural policies into spatial planning and a higher concern about landscape issues. This challenge is acute in many upland and marginal areas, not least in central Europe, where during the next decades many new countries will become full members of the European Union.

An emphasis on landscape as a holistic concern raises the need for bringing the cultural, aesthetic, social and ethical dimensions also into the development of greenways, ecological networks and similar green infrastructure systems, and the planning of catchments and rivers. Though protected landscapes are important and have to be continuously maintained and developed, there is today a growing concern about the need to consider the planning of the wider countryside, not merely the designation of reserves, to achieve an ecologically well functioning landscape. For that, planners will have to think more in terms of landscape processes and dynamics rather than of landscapes as separate and spatially static zones. This is not least important when it comes to facing the challenge of unpredictable landscapes, such as the dramatic landscape transformations, which will certainly be brought about by climate change and other environmental impacts. A constructive approach is to think, instead, in terms of landscape regions, such as for example the concept of “seascapes” in Ireland and Wales, than to be trapped in the conceptual division between urban, peri-urban and rural. The interconnections between these are very complex and integral, be it politically, ecologically, socially, or economically, and the processes that influences these landscapes are not restricted to these narrow boundaries. There is much to gain from a holistic conceptualisation of these fringe zones.

To be realistic as a landscape planner is, however, to accept the limitations within planning in democratic societies. Most landscape changes are not the direct results of physical planning but occur through the pursuit of economic and social goals. A key issue is how to implement many of these challenges. One of the most important challenges for landscape scholars and landscape planners will be to see, read and explain landscape changes, i.e. to enhance our capability to predict the outcomes and effects on the landscape of decisions in the public and private sectors. Today’s environmental legal systems are remedial, reactive constructions with different techniques for limitation and compensation. If large-scale problems, like climate change, are to be dealt with by a landscape approach, then we need pro-active, anticipatory simulation techniques and methodologies for landscape forecasting and scenario building that are informed by an understanding of how landscape works and how it has developed

through time. This will provide a basis for foreseeable and unforeseen developments, including new landscape frameworks that allow for local identity. The challenge of explaining landscape changes embraces the combined aim of securing public participation in design and planning processes, and of providing politicians and the media with a more thorough basis for information, communication and decision making. The traditional expert roles of landscape planners and landscape designers may henceforth be transformed into another form of expert role, that of the expert communicator and mediator of scenarios. This may be a way to work towards more effective legal protection and representation for landscapes on different levels of decision-makers bodies.

There exist a range of European environmental planning themes, all of which have a direct and profound impact on our landscapes, yet which currently are not co-ordinated in a rational way, or even perceived as part of the same problem. These include EIA, the Common Agricultural Policy, the Water Framework Directive, Trans-European Networks, regional policy and Interreg. Only the European Landscape Convention takes a holistic approach and recognises the potential of a landscape planning approach for providing an integrated method for the co-ordination of these fields of environmental policy that all have a direct impact on the European landscapes. There is a need for a “joined-up” policy approach to deal with them in a co-ordinated and therefore more efficient manner. A territorial landscape planning approach could be the key to this, and will mean that we need to train specialists in synthesis and cross-boundary thinking.

The role of education and research in moving towards a holistic, interdisciplinary and cross-sectoral approach within the field of landscape planning

The wide-ranging nature of landscape architecture means that the field for education and research is one of unusual breadth, integrating not only material from the two sides of the traditional divide between the arts and sciences, but also incorporating many aspects of the humanities and technology. This complexity is reflected by the diversity of approaches within the landscape discipline, which can be found throughout Europe, and the range of different types of higher education institutions in which teaching and research in landscape architecture has been established. This reaches from universities specialising in the fine arts to those dedicated to agriculture and forestry, and encompasses technical universities as well as the more broadly based general universities.

Developing from the design-based roots of the discipline, more recently, the field of landscape planning has expanded to cover wider environmental concerns, by combining approaches from the natural sciences and the planning disciplines, developing

strategies, methods and techniques for the assessment and amelioration of environmental impacts and for the management of issues associated with sustainability and conservation of the cultural landscape heritage. For this, landscape schools across Europe educate students to use a range of different methods and approaches of analysis and the development of proposals, as well as in communication with the different actors of the planning processes. A combination of courses from natural, social sciences and humanities, encompassing landscape topics in a very wide sense, gives an extensive knowledge base to use in planning, design and management of landscapes. Landscape architects that are trained in synthesis and cross-boundary thinking have the prerequisites for the understanding of different perspectives, which in turn facilitate a holistic, interdisciplinary and cross-sectoral, approach to landscape planning issues. At the same time, the effort to cover so many subject areas has tended to be an obstacle in the development of a strong and independent research culture within the field, in comparison with more established related disciplines with more clearly defined boundaries. This may be one reason why landscape planning in Europe has a strong tradition as an expertise-based profession but up to now has been relatively immature as a research topic.

This situation is expected to change over the coming years. During the present decade, there has been a clearly growing interest in integration between different approaches to landscape research and an increasing concern to deal with landscape issues across traditional subject boundaries. Areas of landscape research with an explicit objective to work in an interdisciplinary fashion are now moving towards the application of science within planning and policy as a key issue. This development is visible through a series of international conferences, workshops and PhD courses during recent years, in which landscape planners have been taking a more active part. To handle future challenges in landscape planning, a more intensive interaction between the different subject areas within landscape research is needed, as a precursor to integrated planning approach. A further development of research and education, within core areas of landscape planning and in related areas, can strengthen the role of landscape planning in policy and politics and hence contribute to the implementation of the European Landscape Convention.

Furthermore, the Contracting Parties of the European Landscape Convention undertake to provide specialists with training in landscape appraisal and landscape operations and multidisciplinary training programmes on landscape policy, protection, management and planning, and school and university courses which cover relevant landscape related values and issues of landscape protection, management and planning. The existing landscape architecture programmes for training landscape planners, designers and managers in the different countries of Europe will provide an appropriate basis for this, not least because these already work in the approach of the European landscape convention. In this context, I would like to mention the three-year

European Union funded thematic network in landscape architecture, “LE: NOTRE” (“Landscape Education: New Opportunities for Teaching and Research in Europe”) aiming at encouraging co-operation between universities and higher education institutions concerned with teaching and research in landscape planning, design and management, with an important aim of increasing the quality of teaching and research within this field. The “LE: NOTRE” Project has also built up a set of internet-based communication tools to aid co-operation between members of the network, which could provide a fruitful model for the development of collaboration between universities and public authorities in the field of landscape planning, design and management. The extension of the network idea to the field of co-operation between universities and public authorities would seem to present a range of realistic and promising opportunities for tackling a wide range of the issues and challenges facing Europe’s landscape which have been raised in this paper.

Questions

Finally, I would like to address a few questions for a discussion:

- are the biggest challenges in planning for “landscape” problems that exist “out there” in the physical environment or, are the biggest challenges linked to our culture in education, research and profession or, to the sectoral thinking in society?
- why are the means for implementing good intentions and ideal of creating spaces, places and landscapes to increase human quality of life, in for example urban areas, still inadequate?
- can landscape policies and planning avert the trends towards segregation in urban areas? Can they take any responsibility for what will become “the mental landscape” of tomorrow?
- what can be done to change the prevalent thinking in conceptual divisions such as rural-urban, farming-forestry, reserves-everyday landscapes, nature-culture, that prevent us from a holistic approach to landscapes?

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La Huerta de Murcia – Lignes directrices de paysage pour un territoire périurbain

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Une approche territoriale et patrimoniale d'un paysage périurbain

Le paysage est une qualité propre au territoire, à tous les territoires, voire les plus banals en apparence, les plus modifiés par des changements d'usage récent et ceux qui souffrent de la dégradation de leurs valeurs et traits d'identité, des processus qui sont habituels dans les espaces périurbains. La Huerta (plaine irriguée de cultures horticoles) de Murcia constitue un bon exemple de ce type de transformation.

Le présent rapport aborde quelques conclusions et résultats de l'étude: « Analyse, évaluations et recommandations sur le paysage de la conurbation de Murcia (région connue sous le nom de Huerta de Murcia) et Vega Media (Cours moyen du fleuve Segura) ». L'étude a été réalisée au cours des années 2001 et 2002, à la demande du Département du Tourisme et de l'Aménagement du Territoire de l'Administration Régionale de Murcia. Elle visait à connaître l'état, les valeurs et l'évolution du paysage de l'Aire métropolitaine de Murcia (et particulièrement de sa plaine irriguée) et à élaborer des recommandations d'aménagement et de valorisation du paysage en tant qu'élément de qualité de vie urbaine et en tant qu'atout touristique. La région analysée est la grande plaine alluviale de plus de 250 km², proche de la Méditerranée, à forte aridité et avec des précipitations annuelles inférieures à 300 mm, mais traditionnellement irriguée et intensivement cultivée (*huerta*). Sa population permanente y est actuellement de plus d'un demi-million d'habitants.

Parmi les diverses approches conceptuelles et méthodologiques des études du paysage, nous avons choisi, d'un commun accord entre l'Administration régionale et l'équipe technique, une vision essentiellement territoriale et patrimoniale du paysage, qui s'adapte bien aux caractéristiques de la zone. L'étude a permis en outre de développer les principes et objectifs de la Convention européenne du paysage dans un espace métropolitain, très dynamique, où vivent plus d'un demi-million d'habitants. Tout au long de l'étude, aussi bien durant la phase d'analyse que lors des conclusions, nous avons prêté la plus grande attention à la participation du public, dans les limites de temps et de moyens disponibles, tel que stipulé par l'article 5.c de la Convention,

et ceci bien que cette exigence ne soit pas prévue dans le cahier des charges de l'Administration pour l'octroi de l'étude.

Le traitement en tant que patrimoine du paysage de la Huerta de Murcie, formé au cours des siècles sur la base de la gestion de l'eau pour l'irrigation et d'un système original d'établissements humains en harmonie avec l'environnement, consiste à aborder ce paysage comme un produit historique de la culture et de l'intervention humaine sur la nature ou, comme l'explique Alberto Clementi, « en tant que totalité contextuelle définie par l'interaction de processus environnementaux, sociaux et culturels qui constituent les fondations de l'identité locale » (Clementi, 2002:18). En même temps, pour appliquer le concept de patrimoine au paysage, il convient d'abandonner la conception partielle et atomisée des biens culturels en tant qu'éléments singuliers de l'espace géographique, et d'étendre ce concept de patrimoine aux relations et trames complexes qui forment et structurent le territoire. Le paysage apparaît ainsi comme une espèce de grande charte, une voie pour comprendre le monde, inhérent à l'expérience esthétique qu'implique la contemplation paysagère.

Malgré les transformations profondes dans l'usage du terrain et les atteintes au paysage des environs de Murcie, la Huerta constitue encore un espace représentatif des paysages méditerranéens de l'Europe, mélange de zones irriguées traditionnelles et d'urbanisation. La Huerta représente également l'un des principaux traits d'identité et un signe de qualité dans un tissu urbain proche de la saturation. Dans un tel contexte, où les éléments physiques et biologiques sont peu significatifs, les espaces écologiques présentent une faible cohérence et souffrent de graves problèmes de pollution, l'intérêt et les atouts du paysage reposent sur l'importance et la particularité de la Huerta dans son ensemble, sur certains de ses éléments, et surtout, sur un habitat rural complexe de source historique, avec des éléments patrimoniaux de grande valeur, liés à une culture hydraulique séculaire. De plus, la Huerta présente d'excellentes conditions d'observation et de lecture du paysage, grâce à sa topographie. Le territoire est une vaste plaine alluviale qui s'étend d'ouest en est, et il est entouré de massifs montagneux au nord et au sud.

Les dimensions de la région à étudier nous sont apparues particulièrement opportunes car il s'agit d'un paysage avec une 'identité propre', cadre idéal pour l'aménagement du territoire. La majeure partie de la Huerta se trouve sur la commune très étendue de la ville de Murcie, héritière de la division administrative chrétienne médiévale (*alfoz* de Murcie). Certaines parties de la Huerta, cependant, appartiennent à d'autres petites collectivités comme Alcantarilla, Beniél et Santomera, qui ne peuvent pas être négligées dans la vision du cadre général du pays objet d'étude. C'est pourquoi les lignes directrices du paysage se réfèrent à un territoire comprenant plusieurs communes.

Participation publique et connaissance dynamique du paysage

L'élaboration de ces lignes directrices du paysage a permis, comme nous le disions ci-dessus, de faire participer le public dans les différentes étapes de l'étude. Dans un territoire comme celui de la Huerta de Murcie, avec une population stable de plus de 500 000 personnes, il n'est pas facile de mettre en place des processus de participation qui intéressent l'ensemble des acteurs sociaux. Par conséquent, après un long débat en tenant compte des moyens techniques de l'équipe, nous avons opté pour la méthode Delphi qui permet d'incorporer au processus de participation un nombre limité de personnes, mais, hautement qualifiées et très représentatives. Nous avons demandé la collaboration de 47 personnes. Dans ce groupe varié, il y avait des spécialistes des processus qui se déroulent dans la Huerta, des experts en irrigation traditionnelle méditerranéenne, et des personnes potentiellement affectées par les lignes directrices du paysage.

La mise en œuvre de la méthode *Delphi*, avec ses trois questionnaires successifs, a été conçue en tant qu'élément transversal de l'étude. Ainsi, nous avons pu inclure les conclusions, préliminaires dans un premier temps, définitives ensuite, à chaque étape de l'étude, et, plus important, les intégrer aux recommandations finales. Le questionnaire a été rédigé autour de trois axes:

- caractère et valeur du paysage (éléments et zones caractéristiques du paysage, points de repère, atouts);
- processus de transformation et conflits à propos du paysage;
- recommandations visant à la protection, la gestion et la mise en valeur du paysage.

L'un des objectifs fondamentaux de l'étude a été de fournir à l'Administration régionale une connaissance exhaustive et dynamique du paysage de la Huerta (ce qui lui manquait totalement jusqu'alors). A partir de l'analyse des éléments structurants ou permanents du paysage, dont l'identification a été rendue possible grâce à l'expertise des techniciens et à la collaboration du public, nous avons délimité et caractérisé quinze unités de paysage. Ces unités, de caractère éminemment morphologique et fonctionnel, expriment à la fois la diversité interne du grand cadre paysager de la Huerta, divers modèles évolutifs (surtout, en matière de périurbanisation et d'usage agricole du sol) et divers niveaux d'importance et d'intégrité du paysage. Certaines de ces unités, plus exactement, celles qui montrent les paysages les plus remarquables et les mieux préservés, ont constitué la base de quelques-unes des zones de protection définies dans les recommandations d'aménagement de l'étude.

Nous avons également pris en considération dans le processus d'analyse paysagère, en plus des connaissances des experts et des suggestions du public, quelques représentations culturelles du paysage (picturales et littéraires), qui reproduisent artistiquement certains éléments du paysage de la Huerta et reflètent la transformation récente

de ces images. Un bref aperçu des romans et de la peinture de la Murcie du XX^e siècle montre clairement le passage des images lyriques, idéalisées, du jardin édénique et fertile de la première moitié du siècle, à celles de la lutte pour l'eau et la dégradation du paysage rural des années 70 et 80, avec le fleuve Segura, jouant le rôle principal, en tant qu'être vivifiant et fertilisant, sec et putréfié à la fois.

L'eau et sa gestion sont les caractéristiques fondamentales du paysage dans un environnement méditerranéen, alluvial et semi-aride. La forme et le fonctionnement de la Huerta reposent sur le sinueux fleuve Segura, qui crée une plaine fertile d'inondation, et est étroitement lié à un réseau de canaux et rigoles d'origine arabe, denses et hiérarchisés. L'identité régionale et les représentations sociales du paysage reposent également, en grande partie, sur cette même structure. La participation publique a mis en relief le rôle fondamental de l'eau en signalant les principaux éléments, les lieux et les traits du paysage, et aussi, les problèmes dont il souffre. Les massifs montagneux, contrepoint géographique du paysage de la plaine qu'ils encerclent, et éléments scéniques de premier ordre, ont été de même étudiés. Il s'agit de la chaîne Cresta del Gallo, les cônes de déjections de sa base et les cabezos, d'importants coteaux du côté nord. Bien qu'ils ne fassent pas partie de la plaine irriguée, ces éléments sont associés au paysage de la Huerta, comme l'indiquent les résultats de l'enquête publique et les peintures des paysages de la Murcie du siècle passé.

Le reste des éléments structurants du paysage sont associés au chemin de l'eau et à son évolution:

- la division du territoire en petites propriétés et la mosaïque des cultures horticoles, d'orangers, citronniers et arbres fruitiers, avec des différences très claires entre les jardins potagers anciens, situés en aval de la ville de Murcie, et caractérisés par leurs périmètres irréguliers et chemins tortueux, et les propriétés plus rationnelles et régulières, aux formes orthogonales, apparues lors de la colonisation des zones inondables au cours du XVIII^e siècle;
- un système dense de chemins ruraux qui suit le réseau hydraulique permet l'accès à toute la plaine et facilite la reconnaissance en détail de son paysage;
- les arbres présents au long des canaux et rigoles, mais très rares ou inexistantes sur les rives du Segura qui a été récemment endigué;
- finalement, un système d'établissements humains également très dense, essentiel dans un paysage fortement peuplé depuis des siècles et en voie de réaménagement à présent. Ce système se caractérise par sa hiérarchie et une configuration morphologique cohérente avec les particularités physiques de la Huerta et son réseau d'irrigation: la ville de Murcie sur le fleuve Segura au centre de la plaine; des petits villages aux pieds des montagnes sur les grands canaux, des hameaux dans la plaine d'inondation traversés par des canaux et rigoles et des maisons éparpil-

lées, traditionnellement à usage agricole, mais aujourd'hui principalement résidentielles.

En plus du traitement des questions morphologiques et fonctionnelles du paysage, l'étude a prêté une grande attention aux aspects perceptifs et scéniques, en identifiant les belvédères plus ou moins établis et d'autres points d'observation, ainsi que quelques itinéraires paysagers significatifs. Nous avons évalué également les niveaux de fragilité visuelle de chacune des unités de paysage établies, en considérant leurs valeurs et leur contenu visuel. Pour la sélection des points d'observation et des itinéraires paysagers, nous avons utilisé trois sources d'information: le travail de champ avec l'utilisation de technologie en trois dimensions, les conseils de la littérature de voyage et les guides touristiques, et le processus de participation publique. Nous avons évalué ces points d'observation du paysage en fonction des dimensions des vues panoramiques et des lectures de proximité possibles, de la richesse des paysages alentours et de ses référents externes, et de l'état de conservation des paysages visibles.

Etat de conservation du paysage et lignes directrices d'aménagement

La méthode d'évaluation du paysage s'est basée sur l'état de conservation de ses principaux composants et sur quelques volets de la gestion paysagère (ou son absence). L'évaluation a tourné autour de cinq grandes questions:

- la dégradation des paysages aquatiques du fleuve Segura sur son cours endigué et historique, et ceux du réseau d'irrigation ainsi que les éléments hydrauliques qui la composent, quelques uns d'une grande valeur patrimoniale; il s'agit de deux éléments du paysage signalés comme trait d'identité et cause de problèmes tout au long du processus de participation publique;
- bilan négatif de l'urbanisation de la Huerta. Nous avons constaté des modèles morphologiques divers en fonction des chemins et du système traditionnel d'établissements humains. C'est un processus étendu et croissant, qui montre différents niveaux d'intensité selon les territoires, et qui provient d'un manque de discipline chronique dans l'aménagement;
- transformation des usages agricoles du sol: extension des cultures d'agrumes, perte de sol cultivable, diversité et intensification des cultures horticoles et culture intensive des bords de la plaine sur des steppes dédiées traditionnellement aux cultures de céréales;
- manque de gestion du paysage en tant que ressource territoriale: dégradation et abandon des bâtiments d'intérêt patrimonial de la « Huerta »; absence de routes paysagères et belvédères; état préoccupant des points d'observation existants, de leurs accès, et, fréquemment, de leurs environs.

Les recommandations élaborées dans cette étude sont issues de l'évaluation résumée ci-dessus et de la collaboration du public. Ce sont des lignes directrices paysagères d'application supra-municipale exposées ci-après qui devront s'incorporer aux règlements subrégionaux d'aménagement du territoire de l'aire métropolitaine de Murcie, selon la Loi d'aménagement du territoire (1/2001) de la région de Murcie.

Programme de sensibilisation sociale

Les initiatives de sauvegarde et de mise en valeur du paysage dans un espace métropolitain exigent la connaissance et la diffusion du patrimoine paysager afin de favoriser la culture territoriale de la population et son engouement pour le paysage où elle habite ou bien qu'elle visite. Nous avons donc élaboré un programme de sensibilisation sociale dont l'objectif est d'arriver à une connaissance approfondie (pas purement panoramique) du paysage de la Huerta de Murcie. Le programme prévoit quatre actions principales:

- création d'un centre d'interprétation du paysage de la Huerta (dans un musée déjà existant ou dans un bâtiment de grande valeur patrimoniale à réhabiliter);
- rédaction d'un programme spécifique d'éducation environnementale au sujet des paysages de la Huerta (ceux qui sont en place actuellement ne traitent que de la diversité biologique, sujet peu significatif dans cet espace);
- organisation d'une exposition sur les paysages de la Huerta de Murcie (à installer dans les différentes communes de la région);
- rédaction et publication d'un guide paysager de la Huerta.

Programme d'amélioration de la vue panoramique du paysage

L'analyse et l'évaluation des aspects perceptifs du paysage ont montré, d'une part, les excellentes possibilités d'observation à différentes échelles de la Huerta, et d'autre part, l'état d'abandon des belvédères existants ou des lieux appréciés du public et qui pourrait atteindre ce statut. Nous avons constaté aussi le manque d'offre d'interprétation du paysage et d'itinéraires d'intérêt touristique. Les belvédères sont des vecteurs d'attraction du tourisme. L'amélioration de l'offre paysagère liée au très important patrimoine culturel existant dans la plaine pourrait s'ériger comme un nouvel élément pour la promotion du tourisme rural à partir de la ville de Murcie bien que son aire métropolitaine ne soit pas une destination touristique habituelle.

Le programme a proposé le traitement intégral du réseau de belvédères de premier ordre déjà existant, avec pour objectif leur formalisation, promotion et signalisation, ainsi que le réaménagement des accès, des parkings, de l'information paysagère et des environs des belvédères.

Nous avons également dessiné un nouveau réseau de belvédères et itinéraires paysagers, pour augmenter l'accessibilité et la qualité d'observation des paysages principaux de la Plaine. Il s'agit, en définitive, de mettre en valeur les ressources paysagères, en rendant les espaces plus ouverts à la population locale et, dans certaines zones, au tourisme de passage par la ville de Murcie et la Communauté autonome homonyme.

Sauvegarde et conservation: délimitation des zones et des éléments de grand intérêt paysager – Critères d'aménagement

Il s'agit de la recommandation qui exige le plus grand consensus public autour du territoire, car elle implique l'identification et la délimitation de certaines Zones de grand intérêt paysager (ZGIP) afin de garantir leur protection et leur aménagement. Les critères de sélection des ZGIP sont les suivants:

- unités de paysage à grande valeur objective et engouement social (Rincones del Segura et Sierra de la Cresta del Gallo);
- zones de la Plaine qui forment les premiers plans ou plans moyens des belvédères principaux (appréciation de la trame des champs horticoles et de grande fragilité);
- environs des belvédères (actions de conservation et réaménagement);
- haut lieux du patrimoine de la Huerta et ses environs, soulignés au cours du processus de participation publique (barrage ancien – « azud » – La Contrapasada, roues hydrauliques d'Alcantarilla et La Ñora, et moulins de Funes et Alfatego – XVII^e et XVIII^e siècles – et Palais de la Soie).

Les critères d'aménagement varient dans leurs détails en fonction des zones, mais, dans tous les cas, ils comprennent:

- la régulation stricte des usages afin de sauvegarder les traits d'identité du paysage rural;
- les actions de réhabilitation des bâtiments patrimoniaux prioritaires dans les ZGIP;
- les actions de réaménagement paysager, si nécessaire, et le développement d'un programme agri-environnemental;
- l'intervention patrimoniale de l'administration.

Réaménagement et récupération du paysage

Les recommandations visent la récupération et le réaménagement des paysages et éléments paysagers dégradés de la Huerta (des paysages très appréciés par la population). Elles ont aussi pour objet le traitement paysager des zones les plus importantes d'un point de vue panoramique, comme les environs de quelques routes et les premiers plans des belvédères. La réhabilitation de certaines façades et des limites des aggro-

mérations est une autre recommandation. L'application de ces conclusions implique l'intervention des administrations locales, régionales et de l'Etat. La plus remarquable des recommandations est « la récupération des paysages aquatiques » qui requiert l'élaboration d'un projet spécifique de réhabilitation, ou la création lorsque cela est nécessaire, des bois alluviaux du Segura et le traitement paysager des méandres coupés et du réseau de canaux majeurs (identifiés dans l'étude). La « récupération des aires et paysages dégradés » concerne des carrières extrêmement visibles, des points de décharge sauvage des ordures et certains abords des agglomérations qui peuvent encore être intégrés dans le tissu rural de la Huerta.

Gestion urbanistique et agri-environnementale

Les projets d'aménagement du paysage doivent s'appuyer sur une base juridique claire, des échéances d'application et toute mesure qui favorise la viabilité des recommandations. Au début de l'étude, il était prévu d'élaborer un Programme d'action territorial, une régulation définie dans la Loi d'aménagement du territoire (1/2001), qui permet, exceptionnellement, une rédaction autonome sans que les articles soient contenus dans des instruments d'aménagement territorial supérieurs. L'Administration régionale a décidé que les recommandations du paysage allaient s'ériger comme lignes directrices paysagères de l'instrument juridique de planification subrégional qui prévoit la Loi citée ci-dessus (Lignes directrices d'aménagement du territoire).

L'étude considère extrêmement nécessaire le développement d'un Programme agri-environnemental qui prévoit des actions pour la maintenance et la promotion des activités agraires, en tant qu'activité principale ou secondaire. L'appui à des initiatives de sauvegarde et de réaménagement des éléments traditionnels du tissu rural (des haies, des arbres éparpillés, des limites et bornes des parcelles, la maintenance et réhabilitation des machines et constructions agricoles, etc.). L'évolution de l'agriculture et des usages du sol dans la Huerta ces dernières décennies, étant donné la proximité des centres urbains, suggère une approche chaque fois plus environnementale de l'espace agricole, surtout si l'intensification et la modernisation de l'irrigation a lieu en dehors de cet espace, dans des endroits sans limitations structurales pour les nouveaux systèmes de production et arrosage focalisés (voir le « Campo » de Carthagène, dans la région de Murcie). Le paysage de base rurale se convertit ainsi en un élément patrimonial et identitaire de l'espace aux environs des villes, et devient un objectif d'aménagement pour les modèles territoriaux équilibrés et durables. Ces modèles sauvegardent, améliorent et intègrent les trames rurales dans de nouveaux tissus urbains et, préservent dans le même temps, les ressources alluviales des plaines cultivées, rares et de grande valeur.

Gestion des paysages de vallée dans le cadre du contrat de rivière Semois

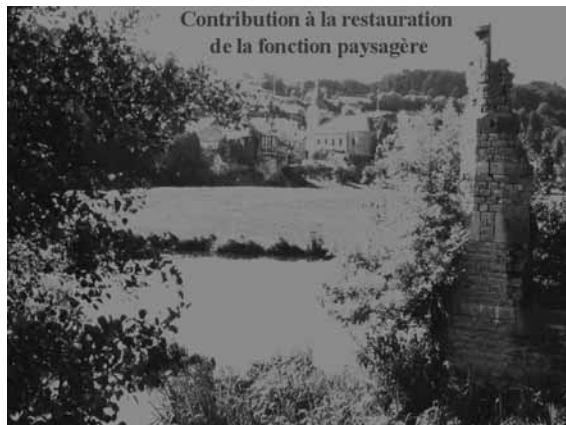
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Introduction

Parmi les multiples fonctions liées aux cours d'eau, la fonction paysagère est assurément prioritaire pour une vallée « naturelle » à vocation touristique comme la Semois.

Dans le cadre de l'application du contrat de rivière Semois, plusieurs actions locales de restauration ont été mises en œuvre. Mais auparavant, une amélioration des connaissances quant à la compréhension de l'évolution des paysages de la Semois a pu être apportée à travers une première étude réalisée dans le cadre du programme Interreg II et qui a conduit à la rédaction d'un cahier d'aide à la gestion des paysages de la Semois ardennaise. En prolongement à ce travail, la mise en place d'un Observatoire du paysage couvrant l'ensemble du bassin transfrontalier a été initiée début 2003, dans le cadre du programme Interreg III Semois/Semoy.



Ces analyses viennent en appui à une série d'actions concrètes de restauration entreprises par des acteurs locaux engagés dans le contrat de rivière. A côté du projet phare de restauration des méandres du Tombeau du Géant et de Frahan (programme LIFE environnement mené par la commune de Bouillon et l'Office Wallon de Développement Rural du Ministère de la Région wallonne (OWDR), d'autres aménagements moins spectaculaires ont été mis en œuvre: restauration de cours d'eau et des

milieux annexes, mise en valeur de points de vue, mise en lumière d'affleurements rocheux, etc.

Après une présentation succincte des contrats de rivière en Région wallonne (Belgique), le présent document, structuré en trois phases (observer, comprendre, agir), exposera l'expérience poursuivie dans le cadre de la mise en œuvre du volet paysage du contrat de rivière transfrontalier Semois/Semoy¹.

Contrat de rivière et paysage

En Région wallonne, le contrat de rivière est défini comme étant un protocole d'accord entre un ensemble aussi large que possible d'acteurs publics et privés sur des objectifs visant à concilier les multiples fonctions et usages des cours d'eau, de leurs abords et des ressources en eau du bassin². Celui-ci se décline en un programme d'actions de restauration par lequel chaque partenaire concerné est amené à apporter sa contribution en fonction de ses compétences, responsabilités et budgets propres. Cette démarche volontaire consiste en un engagement moral de tous les acteurs, membres du comité de rivière et signataires du contrat. La mise en œuvre du contrat s'appuie sur une gestion participative et la recherche permanente du consensus.

A ce jour, 45% du territoire wallon sont couverts par treize contrats de rivière en préparation ou en phase d'exécution. 50% des communes sont engagées dans ce nouveau mode de gestion participative de l'eau. Parmi les 13 contrats existants, le contrat de rivière du bassin de la Semois est le seul à développer un aspect transfrontalier englobant la partie française du bassin jusqu'à la confluence de la Semoy avec la Meuse à Monthermé. L'approche wallonne est donc doublée d'une démarche transfrontalière initiée dans le cadre du programme Interreg II Wallonie/Champagne-Ardenne et poursuivie par Interreg III Wallonie-Flandre-France.

Lancé en 1993, après la mise en œuvre avec succès d'un premier contrat, un second programme d'actions signé en septembre 2002 est en cours d'application. Le nouveau contrat de rivière est structuré en dix thèmes prenant en compte les multiples fonctions et usages de l'eau dans le bassin versant. A la fonction paysagère de la Semois correspond l'objectif 6 du contrat qui vise à promouvoir un programme de mise en valeur du patrimoine paysager.

1. Au passage de la frontière, la rivière change de nom, la Semois belge devenant Semoy française.

2. Définition du contrat de rivière inscrite dans la Circulaire ministérielle du 20 mars 2001 relative aux conditions d'acceptabilité et aux modalités d'élaboration des contrats de rivière en Région wallonne.

Observer les paysages

De la source à Arlon, à la frontière française en aval de Bohan, la Semois attire chaque année des milliers de visiteurs belges et étrangers qui tombent sous son charme. « La plus femme de nos rivières, la plus enveloppante, celle qu'on arrive à aimer comme une ensorcelante maîtresse ... », disait d'elle Adrien de Prémorel, est aussi la maîtresse des paysages exceptionnels qu'elle a façonnés au fil du temps. Mais que serait la rivière sans ses méandres creusés dans le schiste et qui laissent apparaître ses affleurements rocheux, sans sa plaine alluviale élargie en zone agricole et qui se referme dans le massif forestier aux versants abrupts, sans ses signes d'humanisation qui ont permis de l'appivoiser et qui rehaussent çà et là la beauté patrimoniale des paysages.



Des paysages naturels variés aux paysages humanisés au riche patrimoine culturel, la vallée de la Semois possède de nombreux atouts: les points de vue, les affleurements rocheux, les ponts et passerelles, les bâtis remarquables... illustrant cette harmonie née d'une interaction permanente entre l'homme et la nature. La Semois présente encore de nombreux sites au caractère sauvage comme certains tronçons bien préservés avec une riche végétation rivulaire, des rochers dégagés laissant apparaître une flore saxicole particulière, des îles avec leurs roselières et gravières, des annexes hydrauliques variées telles les noues¹. La forêt occupe une place prépondérante tandis que les cultures et villages occupent les replats et les pentes douces. Tout au long du cours d'eau, villages, fermes, églises, moulins, maisons remarquables offrent aux visiteurs un

1. Noue : bras mort alimenté par la rivière par sa partie aval. Il s'agit d'une zone d'eau calme généralement peu profonde très riche pour sa biodiversité floristique et faunistique et ses potentialités hyalieuques

patrimoine architectural qui vient enrichir le paysage. Les ponts et passerelles sont des points d'appel visuels importants au niveau de la vallée.

Une première étude réalisée dans le cadre du programme Interreg II a permis d'observer les paysages de la vallée. L'examen de la structure de base du paysage définie par le relief et de la couverture du sol a permis de définir une typologie des unités paysagères¹ de la Semois ardennaise. Une carte situant les limites de dix unités paysagères plus ou moins homogènes a pu ainsi être réalisée. Des blocs diagrammes permettent d'illustrer de manière schématique des situations particulières observées dans ces unités paysagères. Cette étude a conduit à la rédaction d'un cahier d'aide à la gestion des paysages en Semois ardennaise. L'objectif poursuivi par cette publication est de mieux faire comprendre les paysages de la vallée, leur genèse et leur évolution récente. Elle trace des pistes qui devraient permettre de dégager de nouveaux moyens de gestion afin d'assurer une nécessaire évolution en harmonie avec le passé.

Comprendre pourquoi les paysages changent

Avec Interreg III, l'étude des paysages se poursuit par la mise en place d'un Observatoire transfrontalier du paysage. S'appuyant sur la méthodologie française, l'Observatoire développe trois approches complémentaires: le séquençage, l'itinéraire « ce jour-là » et l'étude des photos anciennes. Le séquençage consiste en la réalisation d'une série de photographies saisonnières, prises chaque fois au même endroit, tout en respectant un cadrage identique. Au fil des saisons et d'année en année, il est possible d'observer les mécanismes et facteurs influençant le paysage. Cinq thèmes sont pris en compte dans le bassin transfrontalier de la Semois: le milieu ouvert et l'agriculture, le milieu forestier, le bâti, l'aspect réseau (routier, distribution électrique), et le milieu rivière. L'itinéraire baptisé « ce jour là » porte sur une série de prises de vue aléatoires réalisées par un observateur se promenant le long d'un itinéraire défini et à une date précisée. Enfin, sur le plus long terme, l'évolution paysagère d'une trentaine de sites est étudiée en référence à des photos anciennes et cartes postales.

De plus, la confrontation de différentes représentations cartographiques de la vallée (vers 1775: la carte de l'occupation du sol du Comte de Ferraris, 1853: la carte de Vander Maelen, les cartes de l'Institut géographique national Bruxelles), complétée par la comparaison entre photographies anciennes et actuelles, permet de se rendre compte des changements importants intervenus au fil des siècles.

1. Unité paysagère: sous-espace présentant une certaine homogénéité pour un certain nombre de facteurs qui lui confère une ambiance propre (relief, occupation du sol, structure).



Vue de la vallée entre Poupehan et Frahan, évolution entre la situation ancienne et actuelle (Photo récente: D. Thoen, FUL). Fermeture du paysage, mutation et parcellisation de l'occupation du sol sont bien visibles dans cet exemple.

En 1855, la culture du tabac dans les plaines alluviales va marquer profondément le paysage de la Semois ardennaise pour faire place un siècle plus tard, à des peuplements d'épicéas toujours très bien représentés dans le paysage sylvicole ardennais. Le déclin de la culture du tabac et la déprise agricole vont par ailleurs laisser des espaces libres pour de nouvelles activités comme le tourisme qui va renforcer la fonction sociale du paysage.

Par l'analyse comparative des documents anciens et récents déjà cités, il a été permis de dégager les grandes tendances évolutives. On retiendra en priorité, l'avancée de la forêt conduisant à une fermeture généralisée des paysages. Ensuite, une occupation hétérogène du sol, évidente en de nombreux endroits, rend floues les limites entre les grands types d'occupation du sol (forêt, agriculture, habitat) par essaimage d'un type à l'autre. Enfin, des changements culturels et économiques engendrent des mutations de l'occupation de la vallée avec l'émergence du tourisme de passage ou résidentiel.

Agir ou quelques pistes pour une restauration et une gestion des paysages

Alors que les grandes tendances évolutives décrites plus haut résultent essentiellement des conséquences de l'intervention humaine, il revient également à l'homme de pouvoir intervenir positivement en termes d'occupation de la vallée. Aussi les actions de restauration portent en priorité sur une réouverture de la vallée permettant de redécouvrir des vues profondes et sur un recadrage et une homogénéisation des différents secteurs d'activités (forêt, agriculture, habitat, tourisme) pour une meilleure lisibilité des paysages. Mais les actions peuvent être mises en œuvre à différentes échelles.

Actions sur le cours d'eau, lit mineur et berges

A titre d'exemple, en haute Semois, le gestionnaire du cours d'eau (DCENN¹) vient d'entreprendre des travaux de récréation de méandres au niveau d'un tronçon rectifié par le passé. Ces courbes « naturelles » redessinent un paysage qui dégage une ambiance harmonieuse.

En basse Semois, la gestion de la végétation rivulaire consiste à reconstituer, par génie végétal, la frange d'hélophytes disparue suite à des problèmes d'érosion. Des berges végétalisées en pente douce assurent dès lors une continuité entre le cours d'eau et la plaine alluviale contrairement à des renforts de berges par gabions ou enrochements qui créent un décrochage et une rupture « agressive » entre la rivière et son lit majeur.

Actions au niveau des annexes aquatiques

Les noues et bras morts font l'objet d'une attention particulière. La remise en eau de certains bras morts, la gestion de la végétation rend à la rivière sa diversité et recrée des paysages variés.



Actions en fonds de vallées

Jadis occupés par des prés de fauche, les fonds de vallée ont subi un enrésinement massif au cours de la période de 1950 à 1970. Actuellement, la tendance est inversée et l'objectif consiste à des mises à blanc de résineux pour retrouver des espaces

1. En Wallonie, les cours d'eau appartiennent au domaine public. Région, province et commune sont concernées en fonction de la catégorie. La Direction des cours d'eau non navigable (DCENN) est un des gestionnaires.

ouverts propices à la réinstallation des prés de fauche. Ceux-ci offrent une transition visuelle et écologique intéressante entre la rivière et les forêts de versant, toutes proches.

Une vaste opération réalisée par la commune de Bouillon et l'OWDR dans le cadre du programme LIFE Environnement vient de se terminer. Plus de 10 ha de résineux ont été exploités et sont remplacés par des prés de fauche au niveau du prestigieux site du tombeau du géant à Botassart, site faisant partie du patrimoine exceptionnel de la Wallonie. Le méandre de Frahan également reconnu en tant que site patrimonial exceptionnel fait l'objet d'aménagements divers: mises à blanc de résineux, restauration d'un séchoir à tabac et d'un lavoir, placement en souterrain du réseau d'alimentation électrique...

Cette tendance d'ouverture des vallées forestières se répercute également au niveau des vallées secondaires. On assiste là aussi à une véritable mutation paysagère des fonds de vallée avec la redécouverte de fonctions et usages abandonnés: usages agricoles, fonction biologique renforcée, valorisation touristique, etc. C'est le cas des vallées de la Madeleine et des Munos sur la commune de Bertrix, des vallées de la Membrette et du Rebais sur la commune de Vresse.

Autres actions

La mise en lumière des affleurements rocheux et le dégagement des points de vue renforcent également le caractère exceptionnel de ces paysages de la vallée de la Semois. Par contre, l'intégration paysagère des campings est à améliorer, en maintenant par exemple, une zone tampon arborée entre les installations de camping et les bords de l'eau. Enfin, les détails ont aussi leur importance avec notamment une meilleure intégration et une harmonisation des panneaux de signalisation qui doivent, par une plus grande qualité de l'information, réellement inviter à la découverte.

Conclusion

Un développement durable de la vallée de la Semois ardennaise doit pouvoir permettre la poursuite d'activités économiques tout en veillant au respect du patrimoine. Les paysages constituent assurément un des points forts de ce riche patrimoine de la Semois ardennaise. N'est-ce pas la raison principale pour laquelle, chaque année, des milliers de visiteurs choisissent cette région pour occuper leurs temps de loisirs et de repos?

Ces activités économiques liées au tourisme ne pourront se poursuivre que si les paysages qui les ont générées conservent ou retrouvent leurs atouts. Cette publication a mis en exergue quelques actions concrètes de restauration et de gestion impliquant divers acteurs. Tout en s'inscrivant dans l'esprit du contrat de rivière, cette démarche de gestion participative des paysages de la vallée transfrontalière de la Semois peut

également être perçue comme une expérience parmi d'autres dans le cadre d'une concrétisation sur le terrain de la Convention européenne du paysage.

Quelques questions

1. A l'instar de la vallée de la Semois, les fonds de vallée en Europe ne sont-ils pas des milieux sensibles soumis à de multiples pressions ? Comment concilier les différentes fonctions et usages, dont la vocation paysagère, avec un développement durable de ces milieux ?

2. L'Observatoire du paysage est une des méthodes d'étude de l'évolution des paysages. Quels seraient les indicateurs à définir pour permettre de mieux

poser un diagnostic, comprendre cette évolution et évaluer les actions de restauration entreprises ?

3. Comment organiser la gestion participative des paysages ? Le mode contractuel permet aux acteurs de s'engager. Pourquoi ne pas promouvoir l'approche française de « contrat pour le paysage » ?

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Paysage et aménagement du territoire: l'expérience roumaine

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La Convention européenne du paysage

La Roumanie a été parmi les premiers pays signataires de la Convention européenne du paysage et, en juillet 2002, l'a ratifiée.

Les préoccupations liées au paysage sont cependant encore peu présentes, tant au niveau de la population et des pouvoirs locaux, qu'au niveau de la réflexion des professionnels et de celui de la planification du développement spatial. Tout cela se retrouve dans le système législatif, dans la pratique de l'aménagement du territoire, de l'urbanisme et, surtout, dans des changements souvent brutaux du territoire.

Le contexte roumain

Pour analyser la situation roumaine, il convient de tenir compte de l'histoire récente du pays, qui a eu des conséquences directes sur les problèmes liés au paysage et sur notre attitude face à ces problèmes. L'année 1989 a marqué, à cet égard, un tournant décisif.

Au cours de la période précédant 1989 et tout spécialement au cours des années 70 et 80, de gros changements sont intervenus au niveau du paysage, notamment à l'intérieur et à l'extérieur des villes. On doit parler dans ce cas de vrais bouleversements à grande échelle. D'innombrables paysages ont alors été gravement détériorés ou complètement détruits par:

- de grosses structures industrielles, en particulier dans le domaine des transports: le canal Danube – mer Noire, dont la construction s'est prolongée sans qu'aucun argument économique ne continue à le justifier;
- de grands projets utopiques qui visaient à remplacer entièrement des villages ou des morceaux entiers de villes par le biais d'opérations de démolition-reconstruction. Ces projets se proposaient de manière programmatrice d'imposer une nouvelle image du paysage en remplacement des vrais paysages.

Parmi ces opérations, certaines ont connu une bien triste notoriété (la démolition de villages entiers ou d'une immense partie traditionnelle de la ville de Bucarest par exemple) mais l'ampleur du phénomène est incomparablement plus grande.

Il s'agissait d'une période pendant laquelle la centralisation de la décision était totale. Mais, ce qui va avoir des conséquences importantes aussi par rapport à la Convention du paysage, ce fut une période de sévère isolement du pays. Cela a produit une rupture avec le mouvement très riche de réflexion autour des directions suivies par le développement spatial dans l'Europe de l'après-guerre. Après 1989, le pays a dû réapprendre tout un pan de la culture professionnelle et administrative acquise dans les autres pays d'Europe.

Les changements radicaux déclenchés alors ont engendré tous les effets auxquels on peut s'attendre dans de pareilles situations: le centralisme absolu de la décision fut remplacé par la déréglementation qui a accompagné le changement, la difficile remise en marche du pays, dans le contexte des efforts d'alignement avec les autres pays européens. Et, à plus petite échelle, au gré des opportunités d'investissement, les paysages, urbains ou ruraux, et tout le territoire entier, en ont subi les conséquences. Tous ces bouleversements ont eu bien sûr des conséquences très lourdes au niveau du paysage. La soudaine libéralisation du marché allant de pair avec un niveau d'investissement insuffisant, ont exacerbé la domination des raisons économiques dans la réalité de la transformation du territoire.

L'expérience INTERREG II: le projet *Let's Care*.

Avec une équipe de l'institut dans lequel je travaille – l'Institut national pour la recherche dans le domaine de l'aménagement du territoire et de l'urbanisme, URBANPROIECT, de Bucarest, qui est placé sous l'autorité du Ministère roumain des Transports, du Bâtiment et du Tourisme – nous avons eu l'opportunité de travailler, dans le cadre du Programme Interreg II C, à l'élaboration du projet *Let's Care Method (Landscape Environment Assessment and Cultural Heritage Restoration)*. Dans ce cadre, nous avons eu l'occasion de prendre connaissance et de travailler sur les propositions pour le texte final de la Convention européenne du paysage, de connaître les débats autour de ce texte, autour des concepts, les différentes positions déterminées par les différentes traditions culturelles européennes.

Dans le cadre du projet, l'équipe roumaine, à laquelle se sont joints des professeurs de l'Université d'architecture et d'urbanisme de Bucarest, a étudié la possibilité de l'utilisation du paysage comme instrument d'urbanisme pour les villes de l'Europe orientale. Ces villes appartiennent à un modèle urbain distinct, très peu étudié jusqu'à présent – ce n'est qu'à partir de la dernière décennie du XX^e siècle que l'on a commencé à reconnaître leur spécificité et à les étudier. C'est justement cette spécificité qui rend leurs paysages plus fragiles face à la spéculation foncière et immobilière.

Le projet roumain s'est construit autour de la situation concrète de la ville de Bucarest, qui se caractérise par:

- une morphologie urbaine extrêmement variée et complexe;

- une structure urbaine caractérisée par une faible occupation du sol;
- un niveau très élevé de dégradation du patrimoine construit;
- une gestion difficile des problèmes soulevés par la restitution à la propriété privée des terrains et des immeubles;
- un faible pouvoir d’achat de la population qui n’a pas, dans sa grande majorité, les moyens financiers nécessaires au rachat d’un terrain urbain, d’un immeuble, ou d’un appartement;
- des biens immobiliers le plus souvent délabrés et récupérés par le circuit de la spéculation urbaine.

Compte tenu de cette situation, il nous est apparu intéressant d’étudier l’approche de la ville en termes de paysage. Cela nous a permis de beaucoup mieux comprendre et de mettre en évidence les spécificités et les qualités des différents paysages urbains; de mieux définir aussi les objectifs de développement qui en tiennent compte.

Dans le cadre du projet Let’s Care Method, nous avons organisé à Bucarest, dans les locaux de l’Université d’architecture et d’urbanisme, un Séminaire auquel ont assisté des professionnels venant de différents domaines intéressés, des représentants de plusieurs institutions, et des étudiants, qui ont suivi les débats avec un réel intérêt.

La situation actuelle

En ce moment, notre institut est engagé, entre autres, dans un projet intitulé LOTO. (*Landscape Opportunities for Territorial Organisation*), lancé dans le cadre du Programme Interreg III B. Le LOTO se revendique du Let’s Care Method et se propose d’aller plus loin en

déterminant des instruments appropriés à gérer l’évolution du paysage à travers la connaissance des dynamiques des transformations, en concevant le paysage comme le cadre de référence de tout projet ... cadre qui a pour but de rassembler les instruments de la planification et du projet pour le territoire de manière complémentaire.

Dans ce cadre, l’équipe responsable du projet se propose de reprendre l’étude de Bucarest, en y ajoutant les problèmes liés à son ancrage dans le territoire, dans le but de définir des éléments d’une méthodologie de l’approche de la ville en termes de paysage. Et, à nouveau, nous souhaitons organiser un séminaire que l’on conçoit comme une nouvelle occasion de débattre tous les problèmes du paysage et de la mise en application de la Convention.

Notre participation au projet LOTO a été possible grâce à un financement assuré par le Ministère roumain des transports, du bâtiment et du tourisme, sous l’autorité duquel fonctionne notre Institut et qui a en charge le développement du territoire. Ce ministère a également financé une documentation sur la Convention européenne du paysage

ainsi qu'un guide pour l'approche de l'aménagement du territoire et de l'urbanisme en termes de paysage. Les deux se retrouvent sur le site du ministère.

Dans un avenir proche, nous espérons réussir un projet en cours depuis quelque temps: en collaboration avec l'Université d'architecture et d'urbanisme de Bucarest et avec le soutien du Ministère des transports, du bâtiment et du tourisme et de celui de la culture et des cultes, organiser avec l'Association des architectes en chef des villes une Conférence nationale du paysage dans le but de mieux préparer les professionnels qui pourraient par la suite expliquer et soutenir les efforts nécessaires à la mise en application de la Convention européenne du paysage.

Questions

Afin de centrer nos débats sur la relation entre la planification spatiale et le paysage, et nous permettre d'avancer dans l'application de planification spatiale de la Convention européenne du paysage, je voudrais vous soumettre les questions suivantes:

- serait-il utile d'organiser, dans le cadre de ce programme, un Atelier consacré à des analyses comparées plus spécifiques, afin de nous aider à définir les directions à suivre dans l'effort d'articulation des politiques et des pratiques des divers pays signataires, dans le domaine du développement spatial, en accord avec les objectifs de la Convention du paysage ? Et même, pour préparer un tel atelier et ses débats, ne serait-il pas utile de réaliser une étude comparée afin de pouvoir utiliser ses résultats et les données obtenues ?
- comment peut-on concevoir un programme de partenariat d'intégration des villes et des communes dans la gestion des paysages ? Peut-on assurer une assistance spécialisée efficace aux autorités locales, en tenant compte des diverses pressions auxquelles elles sont soumises par le besoin d'attirer des investissements, par la concurrence dans laquelle elles sont entraînées, autant en ce qui concerne la gestion des paysages que l'élaboration des programmes de développement spatial qui soient en accord avec les objectifs de la Convention ? Et, à ce propos, ne serait-il pas utile de poser déjà le problème de l'enseignement en matière de paysage ?

**Additional contributions/
Contributions additionnelles**

Paysage et aménagement du territoire en Italie

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Le Document que nous soumettons aujourd'hui à la Réunion des Ateliers pour la mise en œuvre de la Convention européenne du paysage s'inscrit dans la lignée directe des travaux qui se sont tenus à Rome les 10 et 11 novembre 2003 dans le cadre de la Conférence internationale sur « Le Paysage dans les politiques européennes », organisée par le Ministère italien pour les Biens et les Activités Culturelles.

Cette Conférence a en effet été un pas de plus vers la définition d'une méthodologie commune aux différents Etats de l'Union européenne, pour la planification des interventions sur le territoire et pour une meilleure utilisation des outils d'urbanisme en vigueur dans les différents pays.

Lien entre aménagement du paysage et aménagement du territoire

Les lois italiennes en matière de paysage (L.1497 de 1939 et L.431 de 1985), malgré les adaptations déjà en vigueur et à l'étude (*Testo Unico* L.490 de 1999, *Accordo tra Stato e Regioni e Provincie autonome* de 2001, *Nuovo Codice dei Beni Culturali* en cours d'approbation), prévoient uniquement deux types de liens possibles entre l'aménagement du paysage et l'aménagement du territoire et des espaces urbains, aux différents échelons de l'administration (régional, provincial, municipal), dans le respect des différentes lois régionales en la matière. En effet, soit les études et les instruments pour l'aménagement du paysage sont autonomes par rapport à l'aménagement du territoire, soit les études et les instruments pour l'aménagement du paysage sont partie intégrante de l'aménagement du territoire et contiennent en ajout des aspects paysagers spécifiques.

En Europe, les deux modalités sont présentes: dans certains pays, comme l'Allemagne, le Plan paysager est en général un instrument autonome, même si sa mise en œuvre dépend souvent de la réglementation en matière d'aménagement du territoire à tous les niveaux; dans d'autres, comme la France, l'aménagement de l'espace urbain municipal (POS) doit forcément prévoir l'étude de la composante paysagère avant de formuler les différents choix pour l'occupation des sols, mais il existe aussi des études et des instruments pour l'aménagement du paysage à grande échelle qui sont autonomes par rapport à l'aménagement du territoire.

A la lumière des expériences européenne et italienne vécues à ce jour, il nous semble juste de suggérer quelques pistes:

- la nécessité de définir un parcours spécifique pour l'identification et la qualification des caractères paysagers du territoire, qui fasse appel à des études locales menées par des professionnels spécialisés même si ces études sont élaborées, utilisées et mises en œuvre dans le cadre d'instruments plus généraux d'aménagement du territoire;
- l'intégration au cœur des études et des plans qui concernent le paysage, non seulement d'indications normatives (comme c'est souvent le cas dans l'expérience italienne) mais aussi d'orientations et de programmes de mise en œuvre des choix (plans pour l'entretien et la gestion) en recourant à des instruments comme les lignes directrices, les mesures d'incitation, les subventions, les contrats avec les agriculteurs, l'assistance technique et scientifique à l'adresse de l'administration publique, et des particuliers, les activités de mise en valeur, les primes, etc.). Les Plans de gestion des zones protégées, comme les parcs naturels et régionaux, les sites Unesco et autres, sont un bon modèle;
- l'importance d'une attention toute particulière, aussi bien au cours des différentes études sur les caractères et les dynamiques du paysage qu'au moment de la formulation des normes, des orientations et des programmes de mise en œuvre, en liaison avec les autres politiques sectorielles (agriculture, écologie, tourisme, travaux publics, etc.), en impliquant, dès les premières phases d'étude et autant que possible, les différentes administrations responsables, aux différents niveaux et secteurs, qui interviennent dans la transformation du territoire: en Italie, il existe des collaborations et l'on stipule des contrats, surtout au niveau régional, pour des accords de collaboration entre les organismes administratifs publics impliqués dans la protection du paysage (les Surintendances) et les Régions (Ligurie, Emilie-Romagne, etc.). Depuis peu, on travaille à l'élaboration d'accords entre différents secteurs d'une même administration (Région Ombrie: secteur aménagement du territoire-paysage et agriculture);
- la nécessité de considérer, dès le début, les études et les plans pour le paysage comme un instrument pour la diffusion des connaissances en matière de paysage et pour l'engagement responsable des populations (locales et concernées) dans le processus de connaissance et de qualification et dans les actions de gouvernement.

Nous tenons à souligner que dans le *Nuovo Codice dei Beni Culturali*, qui est en cours d'approbation, les thèmes décrits aux points 1-2-3 sont repris et décrits de manière détaillée dans plusieurs articles. On y décrit également les phases procédurales relatives à l'aménagement menées conjointement par les administrations centrales et locales, une condition fondamentale pour une nouvelle conception d'une « politique de protection » active du paysage.

Objectifs, instruments et méthodes pour la connaissance du paysage à l'échelle municipale: la contribution de l'histoire¹

L'un des principaux objectifs cités dans la Convention européenne est celui du maintien de la diversité et de la spécificité de chaque site, afin de garantir la conservation de l'identité des populations. Depuis bien longtemps et au fil de ses expériences, l'Italie a consacré une grande attention aux traces de l'histoire des sites et la contribution qu'elle peut apporter dans la définition de principes méthodologiques généraux susceptibles de servir de référence aux autres pays européens concerne, entre autres, les instruments de connaissance et de planification de la connaissance historique: cette dernière a fait l'objet de nombreuses expériences en Italie, tant dans le domaine de la recherche scientifique que dans le domaine des instruments de planification.

Les conditions essentielles sont les suivantes:

- une connaissance approfondie et ponctuelle des transformations que les sites ont subi au fil du temps (lecture diachronique) et l'identification, dans la mesure du possible, des traces matérielles et immatérielles de ces événements que l'on retrouve dans le palimpseste de leur état actuel (lecture synchronique);
- une analyse de l'« architecture » des sites qui soit intimement liée à l'analyse historique: les pleins et les vides, les murs, les éléments caractérisants, les éléments émergents, les vues, les relations visuelles, etc., mais aussi les systèmes historiques du paysage. La connaissance doit s'appliquer aussi bien aux caractères formels qu'aux caractères matériels, aussi bien à grande échelle qu'à une échelle de détail, et considérer aussi bien les ouvrages construits à partir de la matière minérale (bâtimens, ameublements, infrastructures routières, terrassements, etc.) que ceux construits à partir de la matière végétale (champs, forêts, haies, rangées d'arbres, etc.).

Les systèmes historiques du paysage

A la différence des méthodes cognitives généralement utilisées, les expérimentations les plus récentes essaient d'aborder le paysage en le considérant avant tout comme un système de liens historiques entre les composantes, en dépassant ainsi son acception courante qui le limite à un recensement des ouvrages historiques (depuis les plus classiques comme les bourgs, les châteaux, l'archéologie industrielle, l'architecture rurale, etc., jusqu'à ceux qui n'intéressent les chercheurs que depuis peu comme les

1. Le point 2 du document se veut la conséquence et la suite de la contribution de caractère général qui avait été présentée lors de la Conférence sur «Le Paysage dans les politiques européennes», Rome 10-11 novembre 2003, organisée par le Ministère italien pour les Biens et les Activités Culturelles (Lionella Scazzosi: «Le paysage, patrimoine culturel et historique: lecture et évaluation»), que l'on trouvera dans les Actes.

jardins, les architectures végétales, les routes historiques, les centuriations, etc.). La méthode traditionnelle la plus courante et la plus reconnue, en Italie, et ailleurs, est nettement insuffisante lorsque l'on considère le paysage dans son ensemble car il ne s'agit plus de le lire en additionnant ses composantes mais plutôt en trouvant des liens fonctionnels, spatiaux, visuels, symboliques et autres entre les parties.

L'identification de « systèmes historiques du paysage » représente un double progrès conceptuel et méthodologique: sur la base des enquêtes historiques et en fonction de la spécificité de chaque territoire examiné, on définit des « types », qui peuvent être des zones (par exemple: les systèmes agricoles des bourgs; les systèmes des assainissements ruraux; les implantations des villes) ou des réseaux (par exemple: les systèmes religieux, les systèmes des fortifications militaires). Il s'agit d'identifier les différentes unités spécifiques, et leurs éventuelles sous-unités, qui peuvent également être présentes simultanément et s'imbriquer sur un même territoire donné. On observe la persistance des systèmes historiques dans leur état actuel.

Ceci permet alors de dépasser la lecture du paysage par unités géographiques et culturelles homogènes contiguës. Cette dernière lecture est certes valable pour une approche à grande échelle (par exemple pour les Atlas des paysages, très courants, ou pour les subdivisions par zones auxquelles de nombreux plans paysagers régionaux ou provinciaux italiens ont recouru) mais elle s'avère insuffisante pour une description du paysage à une plus petite échelle, qui est la base nécessaire pour fournir des orientations ponctuelles en matière de protection, d'innovation compatible, de réhabilitation des sites dégradés, etc.

Les persistances du passé

Les persistances du passé dans l'état formel et matérielle actuel du paysage (palimpseste) sont présentes sous différentes formes et selon différents degrés de conservation (qui va de l'intégrité de la plupart des principales composantes, malgré les inévitables transformations imposées par le temps, jusqu'aux simples restes ou traces): les « persistances du dessin » des sites, comme le parcellement du territoire agricole, la localisation des implantations, les tracés de différentes natures, le réseau hydrique et les canalisations, etc. (les plus étudiées en Europe); les « persistances des caractères matérielles » (un terrassement caractérisé par l'utilisation des matériaux et des techniques de construction traditionnels; une rangée d'arbres centenaires, une ancienne zone boisée, etc.); les « persistances des modes d'utilisation », tels que la production, le divertissement, etc. comme l'utilisation des pâturages, l'utilisation des terrains ou des forêts à usage agricole et productif, etc.; les « persistances des modes et des techniques de culture et des méthodes d'entretien traditionnels » (par exemple une vigne « mariée », une oliveraie ou un verger sans installation mécanisée, etc.); les « persistances des significations attribuées » à des éléments et

des sites: les lieux de la mémoire, associés aux fêtes, aux événements historiques, aux traditions culturelles, etc., ou célébrés dans la culture spécialisée à travers l'icongraphie historique et récente, la photographie, les textes d'intellectuels, de voyageurs, de gens de lettres, etc.

Qualification

La phase de qualification a recours aux paramètres généralement reconnus et utilisés dans la culture actuelle en Italie et ailleurs:

- elle fournit des informations sur les éléments qui semblent être porteurs de qualité et ceux qui, par contre, ne font que diminuer la qualité des sites: depuis les éléments émergents qualitatifs et/ou porteurs de significations, en passant par les éléments qui nuisent à la qualité (par exemple les régions périphériques à problème, les zones périurbaines), jusqu'aux épisodes d'une véritable dégradation formelle et bien souvent aussi fonctionnelle (zones abandonnées, décharges, infrastructures linéaires dépourvues de tout lien avec le contexte, etc.);
- elle souligne les éléments et les parties qui permettent d'attribuer une valeur historique et culturelle (en qualité de « document historique, d'antiquité, de mémoire ou de symbole »);
- elle signale les valeurs naturelles (biotopes, zones naturelles, etc.).

Pour chaque élément et chaque site, il faut souligner les caractères dignes d'un intérêt particulier et les potentialités, mais également la fragilité et les dangers.

L'objectif principal est d'identifier, quel que soit le lieu et jusque dans le détail, les parties (ou les éléments) qui requièrent des interventions de conservation ou une amélioration de la qualité, ou encore la réhabilitation des sites dégradés, et de fournir des indications ponctuelles afin de guider les transformations et les innovations et d'obtenir une qualité d'ensemble. Toute l'installation méthodologique est tournée vers la recherche de la compatibilité du «nouveau» avec la protection des éléments pré-existants.

L'importance des problèmes liés à la connaissance et à la qualification des paysages, que la Convention reconnaît comme étant la phase opérationnelle, première et fondamentale, pour la protection du paysage, requiert un réel échange d'information et des connaissances méthodologiques et opérationnelles entre les opérateurs des différents Etats: on propose d'organiser des moments de présentation, d'échange et de discussion des différentes expériences vécues par chaque Etat, et que ces rencontres soient itinérantes (éventuellement accompagnées par une exposition qui s'enrichirait au fur et à mesure des nouvelles contributions).

Un exemple concret: la localisation des installations éoliennes pour la production d'énergie électrique

En Italie, il existe depuis quelques années un vaste débat autour des problématiques liées à l'utilisation de la source d'énergie renouvelable que sont les installations éoliennes. L'indéniable aspect positif que représente l'absence de tout impact sur les composantes environnementales de la qualité de l'air doit pourtant faire face à l'indéniable poids critique quant à la « qualité » du paysage. La réponse que l'on a essayé d'apporter à cette opposition est un instrument consensuel qui se propose d'impliquer les différentes Administrations locales et centrales chargées de la gestion du territoire, par le biais d'un Protocole d'entente entre les Ministères pour les Biens et les Activités Culturelles, pour l'Environnement et la Protection du territoire, pour les Activités productives et les Régions et les Provinces autonomes.

Pour résumer, disons que, grâce à une analyse territoriale détaillée du Paysage, la concertation entre les Administrations donnera naissance à une cartographie des zones potentiellement utilisables pour la localisation des installations. On a essayé de cette façon d'éviter que les organismes, aussi bien publics que privés, ne proposent des localisations incompatibles avec le paysage, et toutes les conséquences qui en découleraient au niveau des procédures de refus et, simultanément, d'éviter aussi que les installations de faible puissance ne soient exclues de l'Etude de l'Impact environnemental. En effet, le Protocole spécifie la documentation technique à présenter et les composantes environnementales sur lesquelles l'étude doit centrer les analyses d'impact.

Reading and assessing the landscape as cultural and historical heritage

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The landscape as cultural and historical heritage

The European Landscape Convention brings with it a modern, rich and ample conception of landscape. It is a conception based on the cultural experiences matured in the various States, in international and national legislation, and in tangible policies, but it is also a concept with elements that are novel to all, that attempts to respond adequately to new problems posed by the contemporary situation.

Awareness is gradually gaining that *landscape*, *environment* and *nature* do not correspond to diverse *objects*, but rather to diverse *concepts*, or rather *different modes* of understanding, of planning and governing (as if we were using each time different *coloured glasses*) a single and broad object: the place where people live without any distinction between natural and man-made, between the extraordinary and the ordinary, between urban and extra-urban, between deteriorated, destroyed or well-conserved, or between modern and historical. “Landscape” is actually a term of many meanings. On the one hand it expresses our cultural relationship with the world and our gaze on the sites around us, a gaze loaded with our ancient and recent cultural tradition. On the other hand it depicts sites in a concrete sense. It depicts them either as great, complex *manufacts*, the work of man and nature in a centuries-long process of construction and transformation according to specific techniques and materials, or as *architecture*, with its specific modes of formal and functional ways of organising space.

At present, landscape policies and cultures differ notably among the various European Countries. The meaning given to the term “landscape” can itself give rise to significant difficulties in understanding – the linguistic roots of the term actually differ between southern and northern European Countries.

The European Landscape Convention states that recognition is the fundamental first step in any action for landscape management (Article 6 regarding “identification” and “assessment”). Each country has developed instruments and methods for these purposes, adapted to the management tasks which it faces. These instruments have been developed in keeping with the cultural traditions, the geographical and historical realities and the more recent problems of each Country, and in accord with the legislative, administrative and operational solutions that have grown and taken hold. Although it may differ according to the specificities and articulations, the “visual-perceptive” and “natural-environmental” approach is certainly the most widespread and

best-developed (United Kingdom, Germany, the Netherlands, Spain, etc.). However in recent years there has also been a strong interest in reading and assessing the historical-cultural character of sites, whose preservation is seen as fundamental for maintaining and nurturing social identity, both in the local and the wider population. The European Landscape Convention addresses this concept in Article 5a.

This new form of interest has its roots in the 20th century, in the culture of academic and professional figures, among these being historians, geographers, philosophers and intellectuals, artists and specialists in the field of cultural properties. The development of new interests can be traced through the 20th century, in the modification of the concept and of the field of historical heritage and cultural property. The field had long included churches, villas and castles as monuments, but it also came to include historic town centres, industrial archaeology, vernacular rural architecture and peasant culture. During the 1970s there was a realisation of the value of historic gardens and plantations, as well as the products of Modernism, and most recently there has been the recognition of the historical value of the products of the 1960s, including buildings, industrial sites and infrastructure. The interest was no longer only in the high profile and the exceptional, but also in the lesser fabric of cultural material, gathering in all the testimony of the life of man. It was only a short step from this path to a further conception of the entire landscape as a manifold rich with traces of natural and human history. In this concept the landscape is the result of centuries of small elements of construction and transformation carried out by farmers and peasants, punctuated by single great events, such as drainage works, works by large land-holders, and the construction of new urban settlements. The most recent ICOMOS Charter on the Conservation and Restoration of Cultural Heritage (Krakow, 2000) gathers the fruit of the new concept. For the first time the landscape, “understood as cultural heritage”, takes place as an item of interest, alongside other movable and immovable cultural properties. It is now recognised that the collective memory of a population, the source of its identity, is based on the awareness of evidence of the past, both in a physical and symbolical sense, and thus ultimately on the preservation of cultural and natural specificity and differences.

Sites are no longer read only in the visual sense, as simple architectural spaces, or as natural habitats in the ecological-environmental sense, but are seen as documents. These documents permit growth in the awareness of past cultures of man, modes of life and work, agricultural techniques and construction materials, land uses, festivals and symbolism of parts or elements, but also climate, vegetation, etc. Landscapes constitute immense *archives*, full of tangible and intangible traces of human and natural history. They are a presentation as unified *palimpsest*, not a simple stratification of historical evidence. They compose a single testimony in which evidence of a great sequence of pasts entwines with the new evidence of the present, producing a continuously changing *open work*. The landscape is a reading of the world in all its

complexity, a means for contemplating our history and constructing a future based on awareness of the past.

We may first think of readings rich with traces of the past, including the morphology, the sub-strata, waterways and visual character of the land itself, or its manufacts, such as terracing, tree plantings, woods, canals and roads, or of readings in historic human settlements, from isolated buildings to urban centres. However areas where recent changes prevail are also loaded with more historic imprints than may first be apparent. The periphery, peri-urban areas, and linear urban-like development are types of modern landscapes which still contain the *ground plan* of historic systems, such as the geological sub-strata, land divisions, canal networks, roads and streets. They may also contain *material relics* of previous landscape systems, such as villas with grounds, farmhouses with small pieces of agricultural land, and other small pieces of farmland. There may also be *isolated elements* left within newly transformed contexts, which still retain visual, symbolic, spatial and functional links with the context from which they originated. The landscape is always a unified palimpsest, rich with intertwined traces of the past and present, if we only have the capacity and the wish to read it.

Understanding the landscape: current problems and Italian contributions

The reading and assessment of permanencies in urban built areas and single architectural manufacts is quite well established in Italy and in other Countries, however landscape reading still demands clarification of concepts and methodologies, by means of further theoretical and experimental work.

Italy has long focussed careful attention on the traces of its own history, both by means of sector legislation for preservation of cultural heritage and by means of historical reading of sites during normal urban land use planning, and to a lesser extent non-urban regional planning. Italy can also offer useful experience from its first experience with introducing techniques of historical reading in its landscape planning instruments.

However there are still a number of open theoretical and methodological questions under examination and experimentation, both in Italy and abroad.

Historical studies are often limited to reading landscapes by era and by broad geographical classifications, giving an overall outline of the principle temporal changes. They more rarely search for and signal the smaller traces that may be left by the passage of events.

Type inventories of historical objects in a given territory are often used as instruments, in the conviction that a systematic and detailed sum of data can amount to a thorough, or at least sufficient, awareness. These inventories are often quite detailed and may

deal both with large and small scale items and with many types, extending from churches, castles, villas, historic urban centres and settlements, to landscape gardens, industrial archaeology, and vernacular rural architecture and up to the more recent enlargements in the concept of human heritage such as land divisions, roads, canals and terracing.

There has been little experimentation in reading landscapes as systems. The landscapes we inherit are not simply composed of sums of objects, but rather of multiple *landscape systems* – they are not a set of points, lines and areas, but rather a system of interconnections, among these being *visual, spatial and symbolic relations*, as well as *functional and environmental relations*. These systems must be understood and managed as wholes, for example as in the cases of Venice and its lagoon, historic villas and their grounds, rural settlements, regions of agricultural lands, or historic routes with their engineering manufactures. Systems can also sometimes appear as *areas* (for example an agricultural settlement with its pertaining fields and lands), at other times as networks of links between non-adjointing elements (for example, systems of major and minor historic military manufactures), and in other cases as linear elements (for example as roads or historic canals, with all their accompanying historic engineering manufactures). The systems can at times intermesh and superimpose one another in the same region, in whole or in part. Likewise, cities and historic town centres cannot be studied, understood or managed simply by means of examining and diagnosing the problems of their single buildings and manufactures and then summing up their problems. Although this is an important and useful type of knowledge, it is also necessary to have a reading of the relationships between the parts.

The landscapes we have inherited, particularly rural landscapes, are complex constructions realised by minute steps of construction and maintenance, carried out by many single individuals and dispersed through lengthy periods of time. Today's reading and management cannot be limited solely to the general form and character of the landscape. It is also necessary to achieve awareness and management of the materials and building techniques represented by every single terrace, boundary hedge, planting and other element. Refined survey and study of individual landscape components is necessary, examining their design, materials and construction techniques, just as is now conducted for buildings. The potential for management can also be bettered by the study of traditional technical and material solutions, which are often rich in forgotten or undervalued knowledge. Traditional know-how can be integrated with contemporary knowledge and adapted to contemporary life and work. Experience has been gathered in this area, but there is as yet no wide-spread and systematic method.

Assessing the landscapes

An examination of the methodologies for reading and assessing landscapes in European Countries reveals that several criteria of assessment are quite well consoli-

dated in the present culture, but also shows that there are needs for theoretical and experimental enrichment.

The value of a *document* for collective memory which is acknowledged for the past manufactures (buildings, urban centres, parks, etc.) can also be extended to entire landscapes and their material and immaterial components. In the present situation, all evidence of the story of man and nature, even the most recent, is seen as having *documentary value*, but only sites and manufactures that we no longer consider to be part of contemporary life have *historical documentary value*. In actual fact, traces of the past survive in the living palimpsest in forms such as design, materials and practices, and these traces are found not only single manufactures but also in the relationships between them, meaning in every single landscape system.

The *value of antiquity* or the immediate readability of the non contemporaneity of the work, is awarded value, although to a lesser extent and in a more confused way, by both experts and the general public. This value has also been termed “historical substance” or “integrity” in some countries. It is primarily understood as the permanency of past materials and techniques which can be seen in manufactures, but also as the remains of the original planning and uses. It is apparent that a more complex and articulated permanency is equivalent to higher value.

Sites that serve as social *symbols* have recently been given unique assessments, even if the sites do not present specific manufactures (battlegrounds, sites that have been depicted in art or literature, sites associated with religious traditions or with ceremonies and feasts, among other places). Studies of “sites in memory” are more frequent and systematic, in part due to the growing role of the public in identifying landscapes and participating in government designation of sites.

Studies to understand *cultural lenses* also constitute a growing sector. In an unconscious process, these lenses form over time and contribute to defining and assessing sites, adding to their fame or notoriety. Intellectuals and art historians have long studied representations of landscape in ancient and contemporary iconography, such as in prints, paintings, drawings, literary descriptions, tourist guides and accounts of travel. Studies for landscape planning and management are also beginning to make systematic use of these types of evaluations, as well as evaluations based on very recent sources such as film and photography.

Concepts such as *authenticity*, *integrity*, *completeness* and *entirety* are often used in assessments. Terms such as *restoration*, *rehabilitation*, *conservation* and *preservation* are also being taken up, adapted from their semantic roots in the field of building and monument restoration. However landscapes are products in a state of continuous and unavoidable transformation, and it is therefore necessary to give careful consideration to the precise terms and contexts for an adequate glossary. Work is necessary at theoretical, methodological and experimental levels, using the valuable work that has been

completed, such as the case studies and *Guidelines* for landscape reading and assessment which already exist in a number of nations.

Concepts such as *alteration*, *continuity*, *overlapping*, *contrast*, *harmony* and *de-contextualisation* are seen repeatedly in landscape management instruments, perhaps more so than in theoretical discussions. These terms refer to problems in the rapport between new developments and the pre-existing situation. The problem of achieving creative quality and raising the quality of contemporary places is being defined and is attracting study, criticism, development, and experimentation in a wide variety of applications, such as buildings, infrastructure and parks. This may be in part because of the climate that the European Landscape Convention has stimulated, with its affirmations of the right to quality in all types of places. Specific international documents and national legislation and norms have appeared, including European Union resolutions and laws for architectural quality in France and Italy. Retaining or recuperating the unique quality of sites in order to protect their inhabitants' identity means overturning the *logic of innovative planning*. In this logic, efforts focus on responding to requests for new forms and uses, and the site is seen primarily as a simple support or container, almost a blank page. Instead it is now necessary to begin from careful, precise and minute attention to the sites themselves, and to their architectural and material character. The aim is to insert new choices and new forms in a compatible fashion, with respect for that which has preceded, even if it is of very recent creation. At the same time, there is also care to avoid mimicry, false reconstructions of the old or doomed attempts at halting progress.

The time is right to reflect on the themes of *indicators* and *parameters to assess* landscapes. Experimentation in recent decades has concentrated on indicators and evaluation methods using mathematical methods of awarding points to elements or parts of landscapes, on a scale of absolute values (very good, good, moderate, poor; high, medium, low; etc.). These systems have shown notable limitations. They have attempted to use quantitative principles and parameters analogous to those used in assessing nature and ecological-environmental problems. However, when working with historical and cultural values it is necessary to work on the *description* of pertinent factors, problems and the motivations for negative assessments. Experience has already been gathered from a variety of experiments in course, analysing sites and manufactures in terms of their own characteristics (rarity, extension, localisation, connection with other systems, state of conservation, historical value, visual impact, etc.), or in terms of their availability/opportunity/potential for use, re-use, or other development. Assessments have also dealt with the risks of deterioration and loss, described in terms of fragility, external pressure, and other factors. Ample, well-articulated, punctual and well-motivated description of sites and manufactures permits the specification of immediate broad operative limits, choices for protection, for innovative development, planning and programming of works. Such descriptions should be given from the

many and diverse points of view that characterise our present culture. These descriptions favour effective communication with the population. It should be noted that instruments such as guidelines, manuals, and frameworks of directions are becoming ever more common for this type of work.

It is always necessary to maintain awareness that every reading and every assessment constitutes a *process*. As time passes, significant new attributes are added to landscapes, whether through evolution and elaboration of the cultural context, or because time renders once-new objects old and historical, or because we develop new modes of understanding the environment – new theorists and specialists come to bear and we change our actual forms of awareness and assessment. Landscapes evolve over time and social and economic conditions change, and society actually comes to change its view of the potential of places and their elements.

The complexity of the problems posed by landscape management calls for collaboration between multiple competencies, both in the phase of reading and assessing sites and in that of defining guidelines and interventions. The most advanced experiments in the Italian context are searching for modes of preventive collaboration between institutions, meaning a common understanding at the beginning of the decision-making process. The administrative bodies concerned are those that are directly occupied with landscapes (the Ministry for Cultural Properties and Activities, and its superintendencies or peripheral departments, and the regions, provinces, and municipalities that have direct competence) together with other government institutions that have indirect competencies, such as those in the agricultural, forestry, environmental, tourism, and cultural sectors. The direct actions of the latter group of institutions have a remarkable effect on the landscape, but these actions are not coordinated with the work of the first group of institutions. The transversality of the landscape issue among the sector policies and the necessity to integrate instruments and actions are among the first and most important items to discuss, both at the international level and within many individual European countries.

Implementing the European Landscape Convention in Norway – a brief status report

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Ministry of the Environment, Norway

Within the Ministry of the Environment, the Department for Regional Planning and the Department for Nature Management have joined the Department for Cultural Heritage in the implementation of the Convention.

European landscape information

The Nordic brochure on the Landscape Convention is planned to be distributed to all municipalities, county councils, land use sectors, ministries etc. within the end of this year.

The Ministry of the Environment:

- has carried out a survey on people's attitudes to landscape, and whether and how they would like to contribute in influencing the development;
- is preparing information and examples to be published on the Internet, hopefully inspiring the general public, local authorities and developers;
- may decide to highlight the Landscape Convention during the Norwegian Chairmanship of the Council of Europe next year (13 May-4 November 2004), tentatively focusing its significance for intercultural understanding and the prevention of ethnic conflicts;
- is supporting an international conference to be organised 10-13 June 2004 in Norway, on the occasion of the anniversaries of the European Foundation for Landscape Architecture (EFLA) and the Norwegian Association of Landscape Architects.

Protection

The Norwegian Institute of Land Inventory (NIJOS) and the Directorate for Cultural Heritage are further developing a landscape region classification system that embraces the aspects of nature as well as the cultural history. This may go straight into the work on the European Landscape Convention (regarding mapping and overview of our landscapes).

The Directorate for Nature Management and the Directorate for Cultural Heritage are carrying out a joint pilot project on cultural heritage and cultural environment within national parks. The project aims to involve instruments, participation and information procedures, which may ease the establishment of future national parks and their subsequent management, and contribute to clarify roles.

Management

The Ministry of Agriculture, the Ministry of the Environment and the farmers' unions have started monitoring the state and the result controls in the cultural landscape of farming (3Q). The intention is to develop nationwide indicators for, and monitor the state and changes in the farmland regarding area structure, biological diversity, cultural heritage and public access.

The Ministry of the Environment has prompted the Research Council of Norway to strengthen research activities on cultural heritage and cultural environment in the research programme "Landscape in change – use and management of cultural environment and natural resources".

Planning

The Ministry of the Environment is organising a Nordic Seminar 2004 on how to integrate the European Landscape Convention into local and regional politics and planning within the Nordic countries. The seminar should also strengthen contacts and networks among professionals working with various aspects of local and regional planning, landscape protection and management.

In the current revision of the Norwegian Planning and Building Act, the commission proposes that landscape be included in the preamble. The protection of land should be accomplished on the basis of planning and plans according to the Planning and Building Act. The Act is likely to provide opportunities for legally binding regulations on a regional level, across municipal borders. The municipal plans may contain regulations limiting the impacts of field roads, motorised traffic, etc.

The Directorate for Cultural Heritage organises meetings with the educational institutions, to make sure that education curricula at universities and university colleges meet the demands of private and public sector. A course module called "Cultural Environment and Landscape in Community Planning" (counting fifteen in the weighting) is starting next year at Stavanger University College.

"Nettsted for tettsted" (Internet site for urban areas – only in Norwegian <http://www.ra.no/tettsted/>) is the web site of the Directorate for Cultural Heritage for dissemination and exchange of information on town and village development. It is going to contain relevant materials on ongoing activities and projects, and in depth information and guidance on specific issues. The first theme is dealing with the use of local analysis in spatial planning and community development.

Protection, gestion et aménagement du paysage dans le Parc Naturel Sierra Norte de Séville (Espagne)

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Introduction

Signification et importance du paysage

Actuellement, le paysage est considéré comme un élément de bien-être social et de qualité de vie des citoyens. Il est également l'expression de la culture territoriale de chaque société et la manifestation visuelle des liens établis par cette société avec le territoire sur lequel elle mène sa vie quotidienne. Le paysage peut donc constituer un indicateur net de l'existence d'un modèle de développement durable dans un territoire quelconque ou bien, au contraire, d'un modèle de gestion et d'utilisation peu respectueux du territoire et, à long terme, non durable.

Le paysage, d'ailleurs, est en train de devenir un facteur important de localisation des activités, notamment de loisirs, ludiques et touristiques; il agit également de plus en plus comme un facteur déterminant dans l'implantation et le développement de beaucoup d'autres industries liées au territoire. La qualité paysagère des différents espaces commence donc à être entendue comme un élément de plus qu'il faut prendre en considération lorsqu'il s'agit d'évaluer les ressources économiques d'un lieu.

Cette évaluation et considération croissantes des ressources paysagères ne s'accompagnent pas de mesures pour éviter la dégradation et la transformation irréversible subies par le paysage, souvent de manière inconsciente, et qui est en train d'amoindrir une richesse territoriale et culturelle dont la reconnaissance pris longtemps.

Cette situation de perte progressive des ressources paysagères demande une réaction ferme qui empêche la dégradation des espaces les plus vulnérables, la perte d'éléments d'identité patrimoniale et culturelle des territoires, la banalisation des espaces vécus et, enfin, la dégradation constante des paysages quotidiens.

Le paysage dans les espaces naturels protégés

Les espaces naturels protégés, qui possèdent en Andalousie un régime de protection environnemental dans une certaine mesure développé, ont permis, dans le processus de planification physique que comporte ce régime, l'établissement d'un ensemble de normes de base. Celles-ci règlent l'aménagement et la gestion des ressources naturelles de la région et contrôlent et règlent les implantations d'activités afin de préserver les valeurs environnementales. Cependant, et malgré une situation de départ privilégié

giée par rapport à d'autres espaces qui ne possèdent pas des caractères aussi remarquables, les espaces naturels protégés de la région n'échappent pas à la dégradation progressive subie par les paysages andalous en général, puisque les constructions, installations et activités sont implantées sur le territoire sans prendre en considération les répercussions sur le paysage, qui sont de plus en plus nombreuses.

On constate ainsi une augmentation croissante d'éléments ou de facteurs qui ont une incidence négative sur la qualité paysagère d'un grand nombre de ces espaces protégés du point de vue environnemental. Dans le cas des aires de sierra où il s'est produit, au cours des dernières décennies, un remarquable exode de population qui a favorisé le développement de processus d'abandon progressif d'activités et de mises en valeur traditionnelles, on peut identifier les points suivants (A. Hildenbrand, 1993):

- reboisements massifs introduisant de forts contrastes qui sont dus à leur physionomie générale, leurs formes géométriques et leur manque d'adaptation à la configuration du terrain;
- des espaces affectés par des incendies de forêt ou par des tailles sans discrimination qui ne sont pas accompagnés de mesures de restauration écologique et visuelle;
- des paysages mal entretenus résultant de l'abandon d'activités agricoles et qui présentent actuellement des systèmes de mise en valeur peu productifs;
- perte d'éléments traditionnels des paysages de sierra, tels les murs en pierre, les voies pécuaires et chemins ruraux abandonnés, les chapelles et hameaux en ruine, etc.;
- apparition de nouvelles constructions agro-industrielles possédant une grande capacité d'incidence visuelle;
- dégradation visuelle de certains éléments ou espaces de grande valeur environnementale et sociale (cours d'eau et rives, bosquets, vallées...) pour cause de pratiques ou activités touristiques peu respectueuses;
- modification et occultation réitérées des vues d'ensemble des noyaux traditionnels, ainsi que l'apparition de nouveaux développements urbains qui ne respectent pas les typologies ni les matériaux traditionnels des lieux;
- disparition graduelle de certains espaces agricoles tels les ruedos, les enclos, les vergers..., qui ont produit une perte de variété et d'ordre par rapport aux ressources visuelles.

Le paysage du Parc naturel Sierra Norte de Séville

Bien qu'un grand nombre des circonstances précédemment mentionnées s'applique au cas du Parc naturel Sierra Norte de Séville, il faut souligner qu'en général, la situation des ressources paysagères de cet espace de sierra est assez positive, donnant un

espace géographique qui possède des valeurs scéniques remarquables, dérivées de l'équilibre fonctionnel et formel existant entre les conditions naturelles du milieu et les utilisations qui s'y implantent.

Dans ce sens, il est possible d'établir les appréciations suivantes par rapport à l'état des ressources paysagères du Parc:

- la conjonction harmonieuse que l'on peut apprécier entre les facteurs naturels et les processus anthropiques dans le Parc naturel Sierra Norte de Séville est le facteur fondamental de la perception de naturalité et faible transformation de cet espace, malgré l'intervention notable et continue que les utilisations traditionnelles qui s'y développent depuis des siècles impliquent;
- l'existence, l'abondance et la qualité d'espaces singuliers significatifs des points de vues différents – territorial, environnemental et scénique – du Parc (les barrages du Pintado et de Ribera de Huesna, les marges des cours d'eau, le Cerro del Hierro, certains parcours panoramiques et points de vue naturels, certaines vues d'ensemble des noyaux urbains...), renforcent l'image du Parc naturel en tant qu'aire riche, qualifiée et singulière du point de vue paysager dans le contexte des paysages de la province de Séville;
- ces espaces contribuent d'ailleurs à la diversification paysagère du Parc naturel qui, parmi ses traits formels les plus remarquables, présente une homogénéité scénique significative, qui est une conséquence directe de l'extension superficielle des formations de quercus qui existent dans ce secteur de la Sierra Morena et surtout, de l'abondance et la grande valeur de ses dehesas;
- cette nette prédominance des quercus, qui cache une considérable variété à des niveaux plus détaillés (dehesas avec différents degrés de couvert arboré et/ou arbustif, bois de quercus moins transformés, aires de broussaille noble, textures différenciées selon les divers emplacements topographiques...), donne une plus grande valeur paysagère aux espaces occupés par d'autres formations végétales, qui se manifestent comme des aires ou des éléments de diversification visuelle sous certaines perspectives ou trajets. Dans ce sens, on peut remarquer l'importance scénique et environnementale des formations de rivière et de certaines plantations arborées, parmi lesquelles les rouveraies et les châtaigneraies;
- certains travaux publics (barrage de El Pintado, Pont des Tres Ojos...), des constructions rurales traditionnelles (haciendas, cortijadas, habitat isolé...), ainsi que d'autres édificiations ou habitats singuliers (chapelles, édificiations de certains travaux publics, usine de El Pedroso, hameaux miniers tel celui de Cerro del Hierro ou d'autres...) qualifient leurs espaces scéniques respectifs, en leur donnant également des significations historiques, identitaires et patrimoniales.

Dans ce contexte de qualité scénique généralisée, on signale du point de vue paysager les espaces environnant les noyaux urbains comme étant les plus conflictuels; ces

noyaux urbains se caractérisent par un plus grand désordre territorial et visuel que les autres secteurs du Parc, par la présence de constructions ayant des traits formels qui contrastent avec l'image rurale/naturelle prédominante, ainsi que par l'implantation d'utilisations et d'infrastructures visuellement conflictuelles sans les mesures adéquates d'insertion paysagère.

Parmi les éléments qui contribuent le plus à la dégradation du paysage des environs des noyaux urbains, on peut souligner:

- des édifications résidentielles ou d'équipement qui sont discordantes avec leur environnement du point de vue volumétrique, chromatique et de leur composition;
- des constructions agricoles ou d'élevage et des enclos réalisés avec des matériaux allochtones;
- des hangars ou des fronts de petites zones industrielles sans intégration paysagère;
- présence d'antennes de radio-télévision et de téléphonie mobile dans des emplacements inadéquats (silhouettes caractéristiques, intrusion dans des vues panoramiques significatives...);
- présence de panneaux publicitaires ou d'identification inadéquats par leur dimensions ou emplacements;
- petites aires dégradées par la présence de déchets et d'ordures.

En dehors de ces espaces environnant les noyaux urbains, dans lesquels l'incidence des impacts visuels augmente à cause de leur grande fréquentation, les conflits scéniques les plus significatifs sont liés souvent aux activités extractives, à l'absence de mesures correctives dans certains talus ou rabais des infrastructures routières, à l'abandon suivi par la ruine d'édifications rurales isolées, ainsi qu'à l'absence d'intégration paysagère de certaines constructions et installations agricoles et d'élevage. L'incidence de ces conflits varie en fonction de l'accessibilité physique de l'espace dans lequel ils s'implantent, du degré de ruralité/naturalité de l'endroit dans lequel ils s'inscrivent, de leur emplacement et des liens qui s'établissent avec les points depuis lesquels ils sont visibles, de l'adoption de certaines mesures de minimisation, etc.

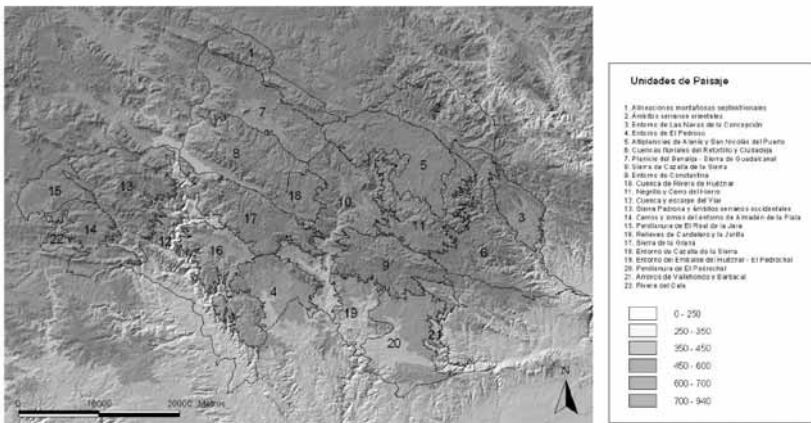
Reconnaissance des ressources paysagères

Suivant les trois axes traditionnels des études du paysage (géosystémique, analyse visuelle et de fragilité et de préférences sociales), on présente ici les résultats de la reconnaissance générale des ressources paysagères du Parc naturel Sierra Norte de Séville. Selon cette triple conception, on a réalisé quatre cartes qui ont été indispensables pour le commentaire des unités du paysage et qui constituent la base de cette approche du paysage de la Sierra Norte.

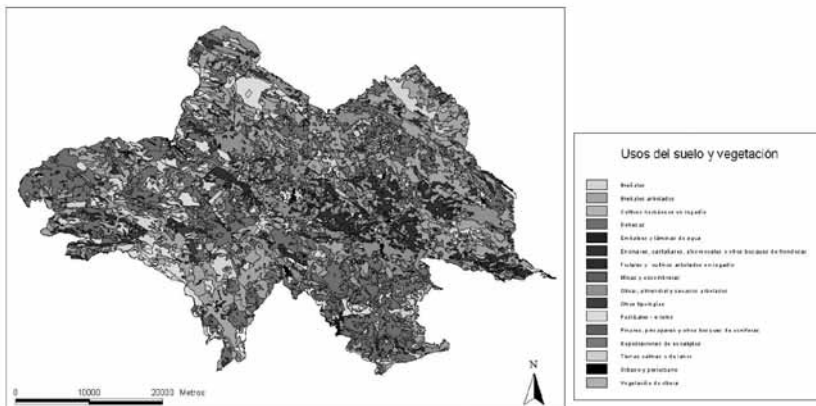
A partir de l'analyse de la cartographie sur papier et digitale, ainsi que de la consultation de sources diverses de type scientifique et de divulgation, on a établi vingt-deux unités de paysage:

1. Alignedements montagneux septentrionaux
2. Espaces de sierra orientaux
3. Environs de Las Navas de la Concepción
4. Environs de El Pedroso
5. Hauts-plateaux d'Alanís – San Nicolás
6. Bassins-versants de Retortillo – Ciudadreja – Mazacán
7. Plaine du Benalija – Sierra de Guadalcanal
8. Sierra de Cazalla
9. Sierra et environs de Constantina
10. Bassin-versant du Ribera del Huéznar
11. Cerro Negrillo – Cerro del Hierro
12. Bassin-versant et escarpement du Viar
13. Sierra Padrona et régions de sierra occidentales
14. Collines et coteaux des environs d'Almadén de la Plata
15. Pénéplaine d'El Real de la Jara
16. Reliefs du secteur Candellero – Las Jarillas
17. Sierra de La Grana
18. Environs de Cazalla
19. Environs du barrage de Huéznar – El Pedrochal
20. Pénéplaine de El Pedrochal
21. Ruisseaux de Vallehondo et Barbacal
22. Rivera del Cala

MAPA 1: UNIDADES DE PAISAJE DEL PARQUE NATURAL SIERRA NORTE DE SEVILLA

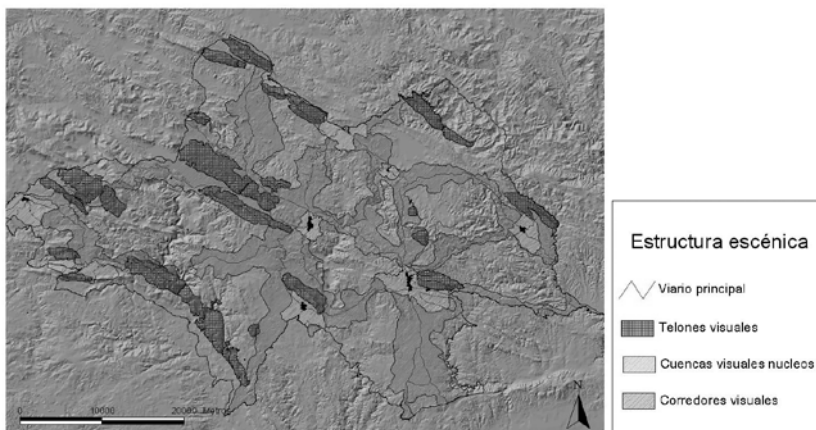


MAPA 2: USOS DEL SUELO Y VEGETACIÓN DEL PARQUE NATURAL SIERRA NORTE DE SEVILLA



Ces unités, qui apparaissent représentées sur la carte 1, répondent fondamentalement à des critères morpho-topographiques, et essaient de délimiter d'abord les ensembles de sierra qui peuvent être individualisés clairement dans l'ensemble du Parc Naturel par leur orientation, leur altitude relative dans le contexte de la sierra, leurs pentes, leur morphologie prédominante. Cependant, dans certains espaces du Parc, ce critère

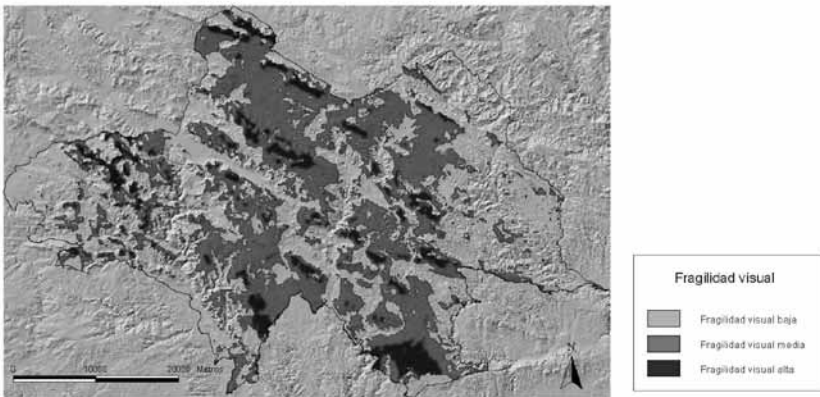
MAPA3: ESTRUCTURA ESCÉNICA GENERAL DEL PARQUE NATURAL SIERRA NORTE DE SEVILLA



morphologique a été davantage étudié en se référant à l'information de la carte de l'utilisation des sols et de la végétation (carte 2) et de la carte de structure scénique réalisée à partir du réseau routier de base du Parc naturel (carte 3). L'information apportée par ces deux cartes a permis d'établir, notamment autour de certaines localités (Cazalla, Constantina, El Pedroso, Las Navas de la Concepción), des unités qui répondent à des critères scéniques ou de mise en valeur qui se superposent à la structure physique du territoire.

L'analyse de fragilité visuelle a été réalisée à partir des modèles numériques du terrain de 100 m. et 20 m. de résolution correspondant à l'extension du Parc naturel. Le résultat graphique de cette analyse est la carte de fragilité visuelle (carte 6 ci-dessous). Cette carte, qui provient de la superposition de trois autres cartes a permis de faire des analyses d'inter-visibilité: celle d'une série de points situés de manière équidistante dans le territoire du Parc, l'inter-visibilité depuis les différentes infrastructures routières qui parcourent le Parc et enfin, l'inter-visibilité depuis cent-trente points culminants situés dans les principaux reliefs du Parc.

MAPA 6: FRAGILIDAD VISUAL DEL PARQUE NATURAL SIERRA NORTE DE SEVILLA



Le résultat de la superposition de ces analyses préalables est une carte de fragilité visuelle du Parc naturel qui établit trois catégories de base pour l'ensemble du territoire:

- fragilité visuelle élevée: catégorie qui comporte les principaux reliefs du Parc, ainsi que d'autres espaces de topographie moins abrupte mais qui sont proches de voies très fréquentées;

- fragilité visuelle moyenne: liée aussi à la proximité de certaines voies de communication ou à des espaces visibles depuis un nombre de points significatifs;
- fragilité visuelle réduite, dans laquelle s'insère le reste d'espaces du Parc.

A partir des analyses précédentes, de l'information recueillie lors des sorties de terrain et des lectures réalisées, une reconnaissance générale des ressources paysagères du Parc naturel a été réalisée en prenant comme des espaces de référence les différentes unités identifiées. Ensuite, un bref commentaire de chaque unité a été élaboré, en soulignant les circonstances les plus significatives concernant leur morphologie, leur utilisation prédominante, leur accessibilité et leur fragilité visuelle.

Évaluation générale et établissement de lignes générales pour l'inclusion du paysage dans l'aménagement du sol non urbanisable du Parc naturel Sierra Norte de Séville

Évaluation générale des ressources paysagères du Parc naturel Sierra Norte de Séville

Selon les circonstances observées pendant l'étude et les résultats des entretiens et des enquêtes réalisés dans l'espace du Parc naturel Sierra Norte de Séville, les valeurs paysagères aux caractéristiques suivantes devront être conservées et développées:

- la sensation générale de naturalité que présente l'ensemble de cette espace. Cette sensation, étroitement liée à la prédominance de typologies paysagères naturelles ou de grande valeur environnementale (formations arborées de moyenne montagne méditerranéenne, espaces de dehesa, formations riveraines, zones de broussaille noble...) et au caractère ponctuel et limité dans l'espace des conflits paysagers de la région. Ces circonstances, qui contrastent de manière significative avec les traits scéniques d'autres espaces provinciaux et régionaux et qui procurent une reconnaissance institutionnelle des valeurs environnementales et paysagères du pays (déclaré Parc naturel et Réserve de la biosphère), lui confèrent un caractère propre et singulier qui doit être entendu comme un avantage comparatif par rapport aux stratégies de développement de cet espace;
- un autre trait qui contribue à la spécificité du Parc naturel est son relief. Encadré par les sierras de basse et moyenne montagne de la région, la Sierra Norte présente une configuration topographique qui s'oppose nettement aux espaces plats ou doucement ondulés de la Vallée du Guadalquivir, ce qui donne sa singularité à la Sierra Norte dans le contexte provincial et qui représente aussi une offre paysagère fortement attractive pour la population de l'agglomération urbaine de Séville;
- on peut observer dans la Sierra Norte de Séville, à l'instar d'autres espaces de montagne méditerranéenne, un modèle de distribution spatial des utilisations du

sol dans le territoire développé comme une stratégie adaptative aux contraintes naturelles du milieu et qui devient un des facteurs fondamentaux permettant d'expliquer l'ordre territorial et visuel observé dans ces espaces, ainsi que le maintien de niveaux de qualité environnementale considérables. Ce modèle, qui distribue autour des centres d'habitat compacts les différentes activités productives (huertas, plantations herbacées et ligneuses propres au monde méditerranéen, espaces mis en valeur par l'agriculture, l'élevage et la sylviculture et formations de végétation naturelle) suivant les conditions topographiques, pédologiques et d'accessibilité, peut encore être observé dans la plupart des municipalités du Parc naturel;

- dans cette logique spatiale, le rôle de la *dehesa* en tant que référence identitaire, environnementale et paysagère de la Sierra Norte, mérite une considération spéciale. Les *dehesas* de la Sierra Morena en général et celles de la Sierra Norte en particulier constituent un bon exemple de durabilité, dans lequel la conservation du milieu naturel et l'utilisation rationnelle des ressources ont donné lieu à une interrelation équilibrée entre l'homme et le milieu. Aussi, les *dehesas* sont-elles devenues l'expression culturelle d'un mode de vie rural, dans lequel la tradition séculaire a parsemé le territoire d'édifications et de constructions de grande valeur patrimoniale (*haciendas, cortijos, caseríos, zahúrdas, tribunas, chozos...*). Pour ces raisons, la protection et le maintien de la *dehesa* doivent être entendus comme des aspects préférentiels dans le maintien de l'image paysagère de la Sierra Norte.

Il faudrait ajouter aux circonstances précédentes, situées au niveau général, les valeurs et les potentialités que le Parc représente pour ses habitants. Dans ce sens, la protection du paysage de la Sierra Norte doit prendre en compte les espaces et les éléments qui, ne possédant pas de valeurs environnementales et paysagères remarquables, sont reconnus et fréquentés par les populations locales (barrages, parcours aux alentours des localités, espaces de loisirs, lieux qui ont des vues intéressantes...). En même temps, la protection du paysage de la sierra ne peut se faire sans reconnaître le fait que la Sierra Norte constitue le milieu dans lequel se développent les activités socioéconomiques qui doivent permettre le progrès des sociétés locales. L'établissement d'un contrôle réglementaire ou de restrictions orientées vers le maintien des ressources paysagères ne doit pas devenir un obstacle insurmontable au développement normal des activités productives de la région.

En ce qui concerne les conflits ou les menaces qui, en général, peuvent être observés dans l'ensemble du Parc naturel, on peut remarquer les points suivants:

- par rapport à ce qui a été indiqué dans le paragraphe précédent, on peut noter que la menace la plus importante pour la conservation des valeurs paysagères du Parc naturel est celle de l'abandon des activités et des pratiques culturelles qui ont donné lieu avec le temps à la configuration actuelle des paysages de cet espace de sierra. L'abandon, à défaut de rentabilité économique, des *dehesas* constitue l'une

des menaces les plus importantes pour les paysages de sierra; la viabilité et la continuité de ce type d'agrosystèmes représente donc une priorité en termes de paysage. Cette viabilité, qui exige probablement la modernisation et l'augmentation de la productivité des exploitations, ne doit pas ignorer les activités (défrichements, tailles d'amélioration des arbres, sélection de nouveaux pieds, rotations dans l'élevage) et les éléments traditionnels (enclos, constructions dispersées...) qui façonnent et caractérisent du point de vue paysager les *dehesas*;

- les modalités actuelles de mobilité spatiale (utilisation de véhicule privé), avec l'apparition de nouvelles demandes et de phénomènes sociaux ou productifs (tourisme rural, édifications de résidences secondaires dans le milieu rural, recherche d'une plus grande accessibilité de la part de certaines activités...) d'une part sont en train de provoquer l'abandon de l'habitat dispersé avec la dégradation consécutive de certaines constructions d'intérêt patrimonial et, d'autre part, elles produisent de nouveaux modèles d'occupation de l'espace qui suivent des logiques contraires à la compacité traditionnelle des noyaux de populations de la sierra, générant ainsi des espaces désordonnés du point de vue territorial et paysager aux bords des localités du Parc;
- très souvent, le désordre territorial et visuel introduit par ces modèles d'occupation, ainsi que les extensions récentes des noyaux s'accompagnent de l'apparition de nouveaux modèles constructifs, empruntés d'espaces qui ont des caractéristiques urbaines différentes du point de vue typologique et même volumétrique des édifications et de l'urbanisme traditionnel des villages du pays;
- également, au cours des dernières décennies, on a assisté à la prolifération d'infrastructures techniques aux alentours de centres d'habitat qui, en raison de leur caractère nouveau et de l'absence de critères paysagers bien définis par rapport à leur implantation, sont considérés comme conflictuels ou discordants pour une société qui demande de plus en plus l'adoption de mesures d'intégration pour ce type d'installations techniques.

Critères généraux pour la considération du paysage dans l'aménagement du sol non urbanisable des municipalités incluses dans le Parc naturel Sierra Norte de Séville

Principes et critères généraux pour la protection et la gestion durable du paysage

Dorénavant, toute action urbanistique qui se développe dans le cadre spatial du sol non urbanisable du Parc naturel Sierra Norte de Séville devra évaluer son incidence sur la configuration du paysage. Dans ce sens, les utilisations, constructions et installations soumises à l'obtention de licence urbanistique pour leur implantation et développement dans cet espace devront éviter la perte ou la dégradation injustifiée des res-

sources paysagères du Parc naturel, en assurant leur protection, aménagement et gestion durable.

Les projets correspondant aux différentes utilisations, constructions et installations, notamment ceux qui par leur forme ou leur emplacement peuvent avoir une incidence négative sur l'intégrité de l'image paysagère des différents secteurs du Parc, devront procurer et justifier une intégration paysagère adéquate lors des étapes de leur implantation et lors du développement de leur fonction, en assumant les mesures ou les réglementations que les administrations publiques peuvent adopter afin de favoriser leur adéquation aux conditions paysagères du Parc.

Les administrations publiques veilleront au respect des conditions et des critères établis en vue d'assurer l'intégration paysagère des actions urbanistiques.

Afin de favoriser la protection et la gestion adéquates du paysage dans le cadre spatial des sols non urbanisables du Parc Naturel Sierra Norte de Séville, les critères généraux suivants ont été établis:

- sauf dans des cas exceptionnels et avec les mesures d'intégration ou de restauration paysagères correspondantes, la pente naturelle du terrain et les éléments topographiques ou géologiques présents (petits saillants sur les versants, grands rochers, talus naturels...) devront être préservés;
- les constructions, infrastructures et installations doivent être adéquates à la topographie du terrain sur lequel elles s'implantent, en évitant la défiguration des silhouettes et des fonds scéniques, ainsi que la création de lignes et de formes qui se heurtent à celles du relief;
- on évitera le développement d'actions susceptibles de provoquer la destruction de vues scéniques, en particulier celles qui provoquent l'occultation des éléments paysagers singuliers, la réduction des champs visuels ou la rupture de la séquence visuelle sur les voies de communication principales du Parc naturel;
- on évitera une altération des caractéristiques formelles des paysages (couleurs, textures, formes...) injustifiée ou excessive; les actions urbanistiques devront être en adéquation avec la géométrie et les modalités d'organisation du terrain, et des éléments naturels et artificiels préexistants;
- dans les espaces de plus grande valeur patrimoniale, naturelle, culturelle ou dans les espaces de plus grande valeur patrimoniale, naturelle, culturelle ou les plus appréciés par la société, les actions devront utiliser les typologies, matériaux et finitions les mieux adaptés aux caractéristiques environnementales, culturelles et formelles du lieu;
- les infrastructures et les équipements techniques utiliseront les technologies les moins nuisibles pour le paysage dans chaque cas;

- il faudra encourager le recours à des emplacements partagés par les différentes utilisations et actions, particulièrement dans les cas visuellement conflictuels, afin d'éviter la prolifération des impacts paysagers.

Paysages gouvernés et paysages partagés – Vers un processus partagé et durable pour la construction de l’environnement de vie

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La Convention européenne du paysage est un instrument qui peut porter vers deux interprétations qui ont toutes les deux des points communs mais qui agissent dans des directions différentes: nous les avons appelées « *Paysages gouvernés* » et « *Paysages partagés* ».

La première interprétation, que nous avons appelée « modérée », correspond à une planification fonctionnelle, moderne et actuelle qui associe le paysage à l’urbanisme et à la planification environnementale. Cette planification propose des règles et des principes pour maîtriser les transformations du territoire en utilisant tous les instruments à disposition, en jouant le rôle de médiateur entre les diverses exigences, en produisant plans et projets et en recherchant le consensus et l’opinion des populations.

Mais nous avons trouvé dans la Convention un message et des contenus fortement innovants, que nous voulons faire apparaître. Si nous nous référons au texte de la Convention, il s’agit:

- du caractère dynamique et temporel du paysage;
- de sa structure systémique et de relation;
- de sa valeur holistique, écologique et culturelle, et par rapport à la biodiversité naturelle et culturelle.

Cela apparaît tout particulièrement lorsqu’on fait référence au « phénomène social ».

Cet aspect représente en effet la grande innovation qui donne l’empreinte pour un vrai changement dans les attitudes et les approches, en faisant du paysage un phénomène complètement nouveau, postmoderne mais en même temps contemporain. Le paysage se présente comme phénomène complexe, qui se structure dans le territoire, mais qui existe seulement quand il est perçu par la population qui l’habite/qui le vit. Le paysage est donc structure territoriale, sa formation (et information) historique, sa

perception sociale (et esthétique) contemporaine, tous les éléments sont liés entre eux et constituent un processus dynamique. Ce phénomène évolutif concerne l'apprentissage, l'écologie de la nature et l'écologie de l'esprit. Le paysage est un « processus en formation » et non pas une « donnée ». Le paysage existe donc comme processus bio-évolutif et socio-mental, partagé. Le paysage est une perception et une construction partagée dans un processus continu.

Une fois le paysage devenu l'expression d'une démocratie où la communauté partage ses exigences, on assiste à des conséquences scientifiques, socio-politiques, culturelles et de comportements assez importants et innovants: posée ainsi, toute procédure demande de l'expérimentation, que l'on va au fur et à mesure mettre dans un réseau de « bonnes pratiques » en guise de repère.

Cela correspond d'ailleurs aux divers laboratoires, ateliers, workshops, que nous avons réalisés et que nous sommes en train de développer avec d'autres associations, dont l'activité est basée sur les activités de connaissance scientifique interdisciplinaires, les procédures de perception sociale du paysage, au recours à la créativité pour arriver de façon partagée aux « nouveaux paysages » (milieux de vie), qui soient contemporains, soutenables, durables et aussi dynamiques.

Il se représente ainsi un modèle de « gouvernance » qui a comme objet les « processus de paysage » dans lesquels les programmes font référence aux divers documents tels que l'agenda 21, aux Programmes urbains, à des projets de financement communautaire, à l'urbanisme traditionnel en développant le nouveau processus qui précède et suit la définition du plan qui devient ainsi le passage qui permet la codification des divers choix repensés et partagés.

La conséquence de cette nouvelle procédure comporte des changements des rôles des acteurs et des pratiques: il n'y aura plus d'actes de gouvernement de l'extérieur et d'en haut, même si ceux-ci sont concertés, mais plutôt l'intégration des protagonistes dans les dynamiques de façon à ce qu'ils deviennent co-auteurs (co-participants) dans la création des milieux de vie. Dans ce cadre, le rôle des administrateurs reçoit une nouvelle et importante fonction: celle de « garant du processus », qu'ils doivent soutenir, instruire, orienter, promouvoir en accord avec les spécialistes et les experts, selon les principes qui sont clairement indiqués dans la Convention.

- L'Atelier s'engage par conséquent avec ses collaborateurs, ses associés et ses organismes à développer ces sujets, à expérimenter ces activités de « bonnes pratiques ».
- L'Atelier souhaite que les pouvoirs locaux et régionaux, les régions, les ministères concernés (de l'agriculture, des biens culturels), les ministères européens concernés, puissent recueillir les messages innovants de la Convention. L'interprétation que nous avons voulu exposer (paysages partagés) devrait contribuer à favoriser du point de vue financier, le développement d'expérimentations.

- L'Atelier demande enfin que ce document soit discuté et pris en considération lors de la Conférence de Strasbourg des 27-28 novembre 2003, en considérant que les expériences, les activités effectuées et les propositions de ce document peuvent trouver de la place dans les prochains documents qui seront élaborés au Conseil de l'Europe, en particulier dans le Guide de la Convention européenne du paysage, auquel nous désirons être associés.

**Closing of the meeting/
Clôture de la réunion**

1. Mr Enrico Buergi, Chair of the Conference of the Contracting and Signatory States to the Convention, summed up the discussions:

Workshop 1 — Integration of landscapes in international policies and programmes and transfrontier landscapes

- Internal co-ordination within the Council of Europe would be facilitated with the assistance of the compendium of texts prepared by the Secretariat;
- the question of accession by the European Union to the Convention should be examined in the framework of the Conference of the Contracting and Signatory States to the Convention;
- the development of synergies with Unesco and the Secretariat of the Black Sea Convention should continue;
- through the implementation of operational activities, the European Outline Convention on Transfrontier Co-operation could help improve the application of the European Landscape Convention at transfrontier level;
- it would be desirable for the Convention's work programme to include the drafting of a recommendation on taking account of landscape considerations in transfrontier impact studies and encouraging public participation in projects with a transfrontier dimension.

Workshop 2 – Landscapes and individual and social well-being

- The concepts of well-being and quality of life which the European Landscape Convention aimed to promote were closely related to human rights and democracy;
- convergence between individual and general interests was very important. It should lead to a better environment and a higher quality of life;
- the concept of well-being involved perception with all the senses and was symbolised by the French term “*terroir*” (country/rural);
- landscape was the expression of a type of governance, and awareness needed to be raised among elected representatives and other players.

1. M. Enrico Buergi, Président de la Conférence des Etats contractants et signataires de la Convention européenne du paysage, présente un résumé des débats:

Atelier 1 – L'intégration du paysage dans les politiques et programmes internationaux et les paysages

- la coordination interne au sein du Conseil de l'Europe sera facilitée avec le concours du recueil des textes préparé par le Secrétariat;
- la question de l'adhésion de l'Union européenne à la Convention en vertu de l'article 14 de la Convention devrait être examinée dans le cadre de la Conférence des Etats contractants et signataires de la Convention;
- le développement de synergies avec l'Unesco et le Secrétariat de la Convention pour la mer Noire devrait se poursuivre;
- la Convention-cadre européenne sur la coopération transfrontalière pourrait, par la mise en place de travaux opérationnels, contribuer à mieux appliquer la Convention européenne du paysage au niveau transfrontalier;
- une concertation entre les Convention de Florence et de Madrid serait utile afin de trouver les réponses aux enjeux de la coopération transfrontalière;
- il serait souhaitable d'insérer dans le Programme de travail de la Convention la formulation de recommandations tendant à favoriser la prise en compte du paysage dans les études d'impact transfrontalières et de faire participer le public à des projets ayant une dimension transfrontalière.

Atelier 2 – Bien-être individuel et social et paysage

- les notions de bien-être et de qualité de vie que la Convention européenne du paysage s'efforce de promouvoir, ont un lien étroit avec les droits de l'Homme et la démocratie;
- la convergence entre les intérêts individuels et collectifs est très importante. Elle doit aboutir à des meilleurs cadre et qualité de vie;
- le concept de bien-être se manifeste par la perception par tous les sens et le mot français « terroir » symbolise cette notion;
- le paysage est l'expression d'une gouvernance et il convient de sensibiliser les élus et les autres acteurs.

Workshop 3 – Spatial planning and landscape

- In accordance with Recommendation Rec (2002) 1 of the Committee of Ministers on the Guiding principles for sustainable spatial development of the European continent, spatial planning should ensure a type of development that met the needs of future generations, while preserving the natural, cultural and landscape heritage;
 - it was necessary to promote a forward-looking and dynamic vision and to take account of the space/time dimension;
 - it was advisable to promote horizontal co-operation and define criteria that could be used appropriately;
 - it was possible to highlight notably the experience of Slovenia, which had introduced a very interesting methodology and approach to landscape in connection with spatial planning.
2. The participants also took note of the Congress of Local and Regional Authorities' plans for an observatory on implementation of the European Landscape Convention and agreed that the decisions involving governments would be discussed at the Conference of contracting and signatory states to the Convention.
3. The Chair thanked the session chairs and the experts for their contributions.

He also extended warm thanks to Mr Ter Stepanian, Ambassador, Permanent Representative of Armenia to the Council of Europe and Ms Ruzan Alaverdyan, Deputy Minister for Urban Development of Armenia, for the beautiful exhibition of Armenian children's drawings "Settlements, nature and the landscape through the children's eyes" held at the Council of Europe.

4. In conclusion, he announced that the 3rd Conference of the Contracting and Signatory States to the European Landscape Convention, which would be the first following the Convention's entry into force, would be held on 17 and 18 June 2004.

Atelier 3 – Aménagement du territoire et paysage

– conformément à la Recommandation Rec (2002) 1 du Comité des Ministres relative aux Principes directeur pour le développement territorial durable du continent européen, l'aménagement du territoire doit être interprété comme un développement territorial qui réponde aux besoins des générations futures et qui permette de préserver les patrimoines naturels, culturel et paysager;

- il convient de promouvoir une vision prospective et dynamique du territoire et de prendre en considération l'échelle espace/temps;
- il y a lieu de promouvoir une coopération horizontale et de définir des critères susceptibles d'être utilisés de manière appropriée;
- il est possible de mettre en exergue notamment l'expérience de la Slovénie, qui a instauré une méthodologie et une approche très intéressante du paysage en liaison avec l'aménagement du territoire.

Les participants prennent par ailleurs connaissance du projet d'observatoire de la mise en œuvre de la Convention européenne du paysage du Congrès des Pouvoirs locaux et régionaux du Conseil de l'Europe et considèrent que toute décision impliquant les gouvernements sera examinée lors de la Conférence des Etats contractants et signataires de la Convention.

Le Président remercie les modérateurs et les experts pour leurs contributions.

Il remercie également bien vivement M. Christian Ter Stepanian, Ambassadeur, Représentant Permanent de l'Arménie auprès du Conseil de l'Europe ainsi que Mme Ruzan Alaverdyan, Vice-Ministre du ministère du Développement urbain d'Arménie pour la très belle exposition sur « Le paysage à travers le regard des enfants d'Arménie » présentée au Conseil de l'Europe.

Il conclut en indiquant que la 3ème Conférence des Etats contractants et signataires de la Convention européenne du paysage, première Conférence après l'entrée en vigueur de la Convention se tiendra pendant deux jours les 17 et 18 juin 2004.

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