Landscape dimensions

Reflections and proposals
for the implementation
of the European
Landscape Convention

COUNCIL OF EUROPE
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Council of Europe

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Contents

Preface

The Council of Europe European Landscape Convention (ETS No. 176) is a ground-breaking international treaty adopting an approach to spatial development that takes account of the landscape, in other words the quality of the environmental life of individuals and societies. In keeping with the Organisation's concerns with regard to human rights and democracy, it invites member states to involve the public at all stages of landscape policies.

Since the European Landscape Convention was adopted by the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe in Strasbourg, and opened for signature in Florence in 2000, the Council of Europe has examined and illustrated some of the themes relating to the convention; in other words, certain "dimensions of the landscape":[1]

- landscape and wind turbines;
- management of the territory: landscape management as a process;
- landscape and education;
- landscape and leisure;
- landscape and advertising;
- landscape and economy: an approach from the European Landscape Convention;
- wealth and variety of terms, instruments and approaches to landscape in Europe;
- landscape and democracy.

1. See the previous publication: Council of Europe (2006), *Landscape and sustainable development: challenges of the European Landscape Convention*, ISBN 92-871-5989-0, Council of Europe Publishing, Strasbourg, and Council of Europe (2012), *Landscape facets: reflections and proposals for the implementation of the European Landscape Convention*, ISBN 978-92-871-7080-4, Council of Europe Publishing, Strasbourg, available at: www.coe.int/en/web/landscape/publications.

This publication is a collection of the relevant reports drawn up by Council of Europe experts, in the light of the conclusions of the meetings of the workshops, for the implementation of the European Landscape Convention.[2] These reports were also presented at Council of Europe conferences on the European Landscape Convention, held at the Palais de l'Europe in Strasbourg on 3 and 4 May 2011, 26 and 27 March 2013 and 18 to 20 March 2015. The representatives of governments and international governmental and non-governmental organisations who participated in these were able to discuss the issues addressed in order to make progress in the implementation of the convention.[3]

Following the order in which these reports were presented, we would like to express our gratitude to the experts for the high quality of their work and for their important contributions: Mr Emmanuel Contesse; Mr Jaume Busquets Fàbregas and Mr Albert Cortina Ramos; Mrs Annalisa Calcagno Maniglio; Mr Niek Hazendonk, Mr Jean-Philippe Strebler; Mrs Marlies Brinkhuijsen, Mrs Chantal de Jonge, Mr Hugo de Jong, Mr Dirk Sijmons; Mr Joaquín Romano; Mr Jean-François Seguin; and Mr Yves Luginbühl.

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2. Proceedings of the Council of Europe workshops for the implementation of the European Landscape Convention, Council of Europe Publishing, European spatial planning and landscape series, available at: www.coe.int/Europeanlandscapeconvention; www.coe.int/en/web/landscape/publications.
3. Conference reports, cf. documents of the Council of Europe, European Landscape Convention: CEP-CDPATEP (2011) 18; CEP-CDCPP (2013) 12 and CEP-CDCPP (2015) 34 available at: www.coe.int/en/web/landscape/conferences.

Chapter 1

Landscape and wind turbines

Emmanuel Contesse, Council of Europe expert

SUMMARY

The purpose of this report[1] is to provide the Council of Europe member states with a basis for wind energy development which integrates the landscape dimension. It is divided into four parts. The first introductory part sets out the general terms of the problem and summarises the feedback from the questionnaire sent by the Secretariat of the Council of Europe to member states.[2] The second part is dedicated to spatial planning, which should be the basic tool for wind energy development in a state or region. The third part, in conjunction with the second, gives an overview of the process involved in developing a landscape project for the construction of wind turbines. Lastly, the fourth part sets out the main principles to consider in order to take into account the landscape dimension.

In the current development and growth context, planning of spatial development is a vital guarantee of the legibility of the landscape and its attractiveness for future generations. Spatial planning tools facilitate co-ordination with other types of planning and infrastructure and ensure overall spatial coherence.

A plan to integrate wind turbines into the landscape, on a site or area level, calls for extensive preliminary work to "read" the landscape. Morphological, historical and sociocultural factors must be considered. Technical (access, etc.) and biological (species and biotopes) aspects also need to be taken into account in the early stages of planning. The analysis stage is essential to identify the issues at stake in order to define an integration strategy which guarantees landscape coherence. Furthermore, it must be comprehensible to a substantial proportion of stakeholders in the region concerned. Communication should accordingly have an important place in the landscape project.

1. This report has been produced in the framework of the Council of Europe activities for the implementation of the European Landscape Convention with the support of the Federal Office of the Environment of Switzerland.
2. Council of Europe, CEP-CDPATEP (2011) 12 Bil.

The criteria for landscape evaluation of wind turbine construction vary from one region to another and it is impossible to have uniform criteria for all territories. There are, however, some basic principles which apply to all cases. These mainly concern factors related to the morphology of the area and the proportions of the landscape. It is also important to consider aspects relating to the co-visibility of wind turbines. Lastly, it is important to define strategies for special and/or legally protected landscapes, and to establish exclusion zones.

In conclusion, it is recommended that the harnessing of wind energy be planned on a wide scale and that siting strategies be drawn up as far in advance as possible of any specific projects that may be submitted to local or regional authorities.

INTRODUCTION

Individual wind turbines are often viewed positively by observers, whether they are local residents or visitors. Assessments of entire wind farms are more nuanced. The degree to which the landscape in which the wind farm is located is enhanced or, on the contrary, degraded by their presence is more difficult to gauge.

Wind turbines cannot be hidden. Their large size, combined with the very large areas required for the construction of wind farms, makes them particularly conspicuous features in the landscape. As spatial planning with regard to wind turbines cannot (or only with difficulty) apply the principle of landscape integration, the underlying assumption of this recommendation is that their spatial integration has due regard to the specific characteristics of the receiving landscape. Wind turbines can thus become a landscape management tool which enhances or preserves the value of an area. The construction of wind turbines must therefore form the subject of a landscape project in the same way as any other type of infrastructure. It is also important to undertake landscape assessments for offshore wind turbines. Coastal zones and the open sea should be regarded as landscape in the same way as land areas. This project-based approach takes all factors into account – large or small, exceptional or ordinary, natural or man-made – and can determine the absorption or transformation capability, ensuring coherence of the landscape and, hence, a positive perception by the population and visitors.

According to the definition given in the European Landscape Convention, landscape results from human action on the environment. The aim of this recommendation is not therefore to protect "valuable" landscapes from the construction of wind turbines. On the contrary, the aim is to define a method for placing wind turbines in the landscape while preserving its coherence.

This report sets out the main, general and theoretical aspects which apply to all landscapes and whose criteria and detailed analysis vary according to the particular area.

Background and issues

The sources of renewable energy production, which include wind power, are essential for future energy independence. As a new feature in the landscape, wind turbines

and their "landscape integration" are the subject of much discussion. At the same time, there are growing pressures on landscapes and recurrent conflicts of interest. The exponential development of wind energy presents member states with an additional landscape issue. In view of their large size and the problems connected with energy transportation, noise and shadow (among others), wind turbines constitute a particularly difficult problem in spatial planning.

Approach

This report outlines the main issues associated with the development of wind farms and possible approaches to ensure their successful integration in the landscape, as defined in the European Landscape Convention. It does not claim to be exhaustive or to offer a detailed approach to wind energy planning that could be implemented in every member state. The specific landscape, cultural and political features that define each area, and the way they are perceived, vary greatly from one state to another.

The first part of the report defines the general approach to be applied to landscape planning in connection with wind energy and the main project stages. The second part deals with the landscape principles to be taken into consideration in every wind energy project. This means all the general aspects which are decisive for the proper integration of wind turbines into a landscape, or their exclusion, having due regard to its specific characteristics. These two parts apply not only to individual wind farm projects but also to master planning, when a region has several potential wind farms.

The spatial planning processes and landscape principles expounded in this document are also valid for coastal wind or offshore farms. These areas should be considered in the same way as the rest of the territory and siting strategies should ensure that areas of particular value (for example, the view from and towards coasts) are preserved.

The aims of the report are to:

- provide a general approach to landscape planning in connection with wind turbines, without defining a fixed methodology, in order that it can be applied in all the member states;
- suggest tools and a general methodology for drawing up plans for wind farms that are compatible with the landscape;
- define the landscape principles that should be taken into consideration when deciding on the location of wind turbines, or excluding them.

1. SPATIAL PLANNING

1.1. Need to plan spatial development

As a result of economic growth and the expanding needs that accompany it, territories (and hence landscapes) undergo rapid and continuous change. If that development is not planned and controlled, landscapes may become more difficult to "read". The population may therefore cease to identify with its landscapes which may lose their

special character. It is for this reason that the public authorities have put in place spatial planning instruments which can be used to influence spatial development.

One of the challenges of spatial planning is to preserve or restore the coherence of landscapes, whether they are areas of "beauty" or special interest, or have no exceptional characteristics.

Wind turbines, like other infrastructure (roads, industry, housing, etc.) have to be incorporated into the spatial planning processes. This means considering not only wind turbines in themselves, but also all ancillary infrastructure required (power lines, roads, etc.).

1.2. Inclusion of wind turbines in spatial planning

This section sets out the general principles to be applied when including wind turbines in spatial planning. The specific landscape-related aspects (landscape analysis, criteria, selection, exclusion, etc.) are dealt with in the following section.

Wind energy planning is usually the subject of a sectoral plan which will be included in an overall plan. The wind energy plan has to be co-ordinated with the administrative authorities of neighbouring areas. In all cases, wind energy facilities should be planned at the highest administrative level of the state concerned. Co-ordination with other sectoral plans (tourism, housing, industry, etc.) is also important to avoid conflicts in planning and achieve optimum spatial concentration of the different types of infrastructure.

To sum up, it is necessary to:

- assign wind energy planning to the highest possible supra-regional authorities within the state;
- co-ordinate planning principles with neighbouring states or administrative regions;
- co-ordinate wind energy planning with other sectoral plans;
- apply the principle of concentration at regional level when designating planning or exclusion zones;
- encourage grouping with other types of infrastructure to form clusters dedicated to renewable energies and other compatible industrial uses.

2. PROJECT-BASED APPROACH TO LANDSCAPE INTEGRATION

A landscape project for the integration of wind turbines should not be carried out in isolation. It forms part of a whole, consisting of all the other parallel or prior studies that have to be carried out in order to achieve coherent spatial planning. In short, it may be said that good planning consists of:

- negative planning: exclusion of areas for reasons which may be technical (connection to the grid, wind energy potential, noise, etc.), biological (protection of birds and bats) or landscape-related (protected or emblematic areas); and

- positive planning: selection of favourable areas in terms of wind and infrastructure.

All these sectoral studies should form part of an iterative process with ongoing co-ordination. The landscape project comes in mainly after the negative planning stage. This will ensure that the project is as coherent as possible, because it will then be unnecessary to make frequent adjustments to it, and the underlying concept will not be constantly called into question.

2.1. Defining the area to be studied

Wind turbines can easily reach a total height of 140 metres (180 metres in the case of the latest models) and are visible from over 10 kilometres away in overcast conditions, and from much greater distances in clear weather conditions. Given their size, they form highly conspicuous and imposing structures exceeding the usual proportions of landscape features. In comparison, the spire of Strasbourg cathedral rises to a height of 142 metres.

Consequently, when designing a wind farm or drawing up a master plan, we must extend our analysis well beyond the planned location. Ideally, the whole area in which the wind turbines will be visible should be considered. Within this wider area, issues of co-visibility with other wind farms must be included in the analysis. In areas within a radius of 5-10 kilometres (depending on the number of wind turbines planned and their size) questions of scale and proportion will play an important role. In these close areas, all landscape principles must be taken into account.

Provision must be made for co-operation with regions adjacent to the planning area, in order to increase the coherence of the landscape project and make it more acceptable to the local population.

2.2. Assessment of non-landscape aspects

In landscape planning, every effort should be made to deal with the other, non-landscape aspects (wind energy potential, access, energy transportation, conservation of species) in advance, so that any problems can be foreseen and, if necessary, the planned location(s) can be abandoned or adapted. In the case of master planning by a regional or local authority, such preliminary analyses are more difficult because of the costs to which they may give rise. Financing arrangements can be found, however, through co-operation with the various stakeholders involved in wind energy production.

2.3. Technical aspects

In addition to the wind energy potential, the energy transportation and access possibilities must be known. A classification of areas can be produced on that basis, showing the sectors which should be selected or excluded, and those for which additional co-ordination is necessary.

Where noise and shadow nuisance are concerned, there are still gaps in scientific knowledge. Some cases of noise problems following the construction of wind turbines have been identified. Allowance should therefore be made for sufficiently large buffer zones around areas where people live. Problems arising from operating restrictions and resulting financial losses can thus be avoided.

2.4. Species and biotopes

The protection of species and biotopes should be addressed prior to landscape planning.

In the preliminary studies, an overall analysis of existing data should be carried out, and a strategy for the preservation of natural areas, protected areas and species should be devised. These areas in question are those protected by decrees or laws (Natura 2000 sites, for example). For all these different areas, it is important to devise an overall strategy at regional or national level, and to keep to it. What must be determined is whether the protection goals of these areas are consistent with the construction of wind turbines or what kind of development is desired for these landscapes in future. It is desirable, however, to exclude listed and/or protected areas in order to limit conflicts and planning difficulties (special studies, etc.).

Birds and bats are two groups of species particularly affected by wind turbines. A badly-situated wind energy facility (migration corridors, hunting or swarming areas for bats) can have serious effects on the populations of these species. Experts on these fauna groups are able to conduct preliminary analyses of an area and make an assessment of the risks. This is a relatively inexpensive process compared with the subsequent costs which may arise as a result of a failure to address these problems. The Swiss Co-ordination Centre for the study and protection of bats (CCS) has devised a method for evaluating wind energy sites, based on five risk levels. Similar studies exist in the case of birds.

2.5. Understanding the existing landscape

A study on landscape integration of wind turbines should be regarded as a landscape project for the future. Prior analysis and understanding of the territory form an integral part of the project. The importance of this phase should on no account be minimised. It enables the planner to apply objectivity to landscape diagnosis. The process of analysing the landscape should be conducted iteratively in conjunction with the projection phase. The ideas contained in the project can thus be tested against the reality in the field, and then adapted as field knowledge increases.

An understanding of the existing landscape, its history, its social characteristics and its development will be instrumental in giving the project a coherent shape and ensuring its continuity. This is not only preservation at any price, but also controlled development in appropriate areas, based on the key features of the landscape, which can be identified through analysis of the site.

2.6. Morphology

In a wind energy project, particular attention must be paid to the morphology of the landscape. This means charting and understanding the sequence of topographical features, their regularity or irregularity, the distance of the horizon and the proportions between landscape components (for example, height of a hill in relation to other landscape features). The landscape units and the relations between them (areas of transition and discontinuity) must be defined. An understanding of morphology is central to a landscape project and will have an influence on subjective aspects related to the cultural aspects of the landscape and how it is perceived.

2.7. Landscape heritage

The landscape heritage is not confined to areas of special interest. As elements are shaped by human action, all landscapes have a specific testimonial value. The difficulty of identifying that value may vary according to its exceptional or ordinary nature. All the components of a landscape's identity must be identified by searching through historical records and drawing on the knowledge of the local population. Land ownership, farming and building patterns are some of the factors to be taken into account. Particular attention should be paid to areas and sites with recognised emblematic value. The construction of wind turbines should not detract from their importance. It is therefore desirable to exclude emblematic areas or sites.

2.8. Sociocultural aspects

Landscape in the "picture postcard" sense is related to the observer's personal experience and social background. Broadly speaking, most inhabitants of a region share a similar perception of what is "beautiful" and what is "ordinary". These constants of landscape perception must be identified and understood in order to guide the landscape project, so that a large proportion of the population can understand and assimilate it. It is important, therefore, that representatives of the local population should be involved in the discussions. In this process of collecting information, the point is not to ask the population whether the wind turbines can be integrated or not. What should be brought out are the key factors or components in their perception of features as being "beautiful" or "ordinary" and a landscape project should be framed accordingly.

2.9. Identifying issues and goals

On the basis of the information obtained during the analysis phase, it will be possible to identify the landscape issues and the other aspects of the plan. It is also during this phase (which must run continuously from the start of the project) that the interrelations between the landscape and the other aspects of the plan will be identified and co-ordinated. All aspects, however insignificant, must be noted. The issues to be addressed will not be identified until a later stage, when a fresh cross-cutting analysis will be made of the factors and interests involved. During this assessment

phase, clear goals will need to be set and approved by as many parties as possible. The goals determine the landscape strategy and prioritise the issues identified. In the case of each area or landscape feature, it will be stated whether the intention is to preserve (through exclusion zones), transform or add, and reasons will be given.

2.10. Drawing up the landscape integration plan

The landscape project can be based on two types of approach: establishing landscape criteria for the selection or exclusion of sites, or producing a drawing of the new landscape with wind turbines justified by explanatory texts.

The first approach involves establishing landscape criteria based on the landscape analysis and the objectives set after identification of the issues at stake. The application of these criteria then makes it possible to exclude or select sites from the landscape standpoint. The criteria must, as far as possible, be pragmatic and comprehensible. It is desirable that these criteria should be approved by as many stakeholders as possible before they are applied. Such consultation makes it possible to reduce the subjective element in the approach, because the criteria have been understood and approved.

The drawing-based approach is more conceptual. Its success depends on sound arguments and high-quality graphic illustrations. It is nevertheless difficult to limit the subjective element.

The ideal solution is to use both methods simultaneously. The conceptual approach provides an overall picture of the wind farm, or a region's sites, and the landscape criteria settle the details relating to specific factors. The establishment of buffer zones around conservation areas or of rules governing the proportions to be respected from certain vantage points are two examples of typical criteria.

2.11. Communicating about the project

Ideally, opportunities for communication should be provided throughout all the planning stages. Consultation during the landscape analysis stage, and that of defining the issues at stake, is as important as the final project. As we have already mentioned, landscape analysis forms an integral part of the landscape project and is instrumental in guiding it. The inclusion of representative figures from the region or various interest groups during the analysis stage and throughout the subsequent stages of the project will give the final document greater credibility.

The other aspects of spatial planning (conservation of species, noise, etc.) should also be included in the communication strategy. This strategy should not focus on the landscape, but should present the overall concept. All the other aspects are equally important and will have a considerable effect on how the population affected by the wind turbines perceive their environment.

Current technologies offer various possibilities for visual communication (3D modelling, photomontage, films, etc.). These tools should be used, but should not be the only means of communicating a project or plan. For example, there is a subjective

element in the choice of a vantage point for a photomontage. When visual aids are used, therefore, a range of vantage points should be selected, including some showing the view from ordinary areas. This provides for some degree of exhaustiveness in relation to the future zones of visibility of the planned wind turbines. It is essential to produce visibility grids based on a digital terrain model (three-dimensional digital model of an area). These can be used to show all the areas from which the wind turbines will be visible.

3. LANDSCAPE PRINCIPLES

This section identifies the main effects of wind farms on the landscape as defined in the European Landscape Convention: that is, both the natural, visual landscape and the subjectively perceived landscape. The categories of effects are described in the sections below.

3.1. Scales, rhythm and coherence of units

A landscape can be divided into landscape units. These may be defined as follows: units that are clearly demarcated and uniform in terms of topography, land use and the features that give the landscape its structure. A unit may be very large, especially in lowland regions, or very small in hilly and mountainous regions. In the case of small units, the views are varied and the horizon is close. An area with small units involves constant changes of morphology and vista.

The geomorphology of the area is one of the key factors in a landscape. It determines the sequence of structures and influences the uniformity or otherwise of the landscape. A landscape with very uneven terrain will offer a wide range of 360° panoramas, each different from the rest. On the other hand, a very uniform landscape will offer less variety and will be shaped, above all, by its vegetation and buildings.

Together with geomorphology, the factors that give structure to a landscape (hedgerows, villages, roads, land ownership, etc.) form the basis for the landscape's identity. Consequently, they are naturally the most important aspects to be addressed in connection with the siting of wind turbines.

In the course of the analysis, the landscape's topographical and structural lines of force should be identified and described. This will make it possible to determine the strong elements which should be preserved or supported by the construction of wind turbines, in order to preserve the value of the landscape or alter it in a coherent manner.

Given their size, wind turbines have a significant effect on the landscape. They are often much larger than the existing landscape components, or are visible from more than one landscape unit.

A landscape plan should consider the geomorphology of the area and its proportions, and the way structures are arranged, in order to prevent the wind turbines from overshadowing the features of the landscape or disturbing its pattern. Wind turbines should therefore be sited in uniform areas and avoid areas of uneven terrain with

many changes of morphology and areas densely structured by various components. Moreover, the geomorphological or structural lines of force should be enhanced or preserved depending on their size and their identity-forming value. When siting wind turbines, it is also important to follow the rhythm imposed by the geomorphology and structures of the landscape. All these principles apply on a small or large scale, depending on the situation. For example, a path may be regarded as an important linear structuring element, as may a river in a valley.

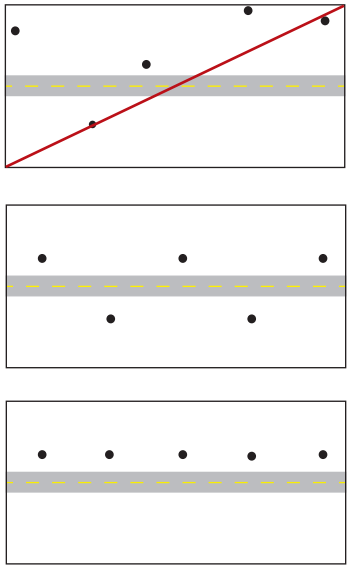
Generally speaking, a wide, relatively even landscape with distant horizons is more suitable for the siting of wind turbines than a hilly or mountainous landscape.

Below are some schematic examples relating to landscape geomorphology and structures.

3.2. Respecting lines of force

Landscapes possess "lines of force" (rivers, roads, valleys, ridges, etc.) which make a major contribution to their coherence. These are often features which have influenced the entire shaping of the landscape over the centuries or, in the case of infrastructure, which have adapted to natural or morphological constraints. The siting of wind turbines should bring out rather than obscure these lines of force.

Figure 1. Example of the siting of wind turbines along a line of force or a major structural element – here it is a road



3.3. Respecting proportion and rhythm

If wind turbines are sited on either side of a high point, one should also be placed at its summit to ensure that it is not visually overshadowed by the other two structures.

Figure 2. Example of wind turbines close to and at a high point; the scale of the landscape must be preserved

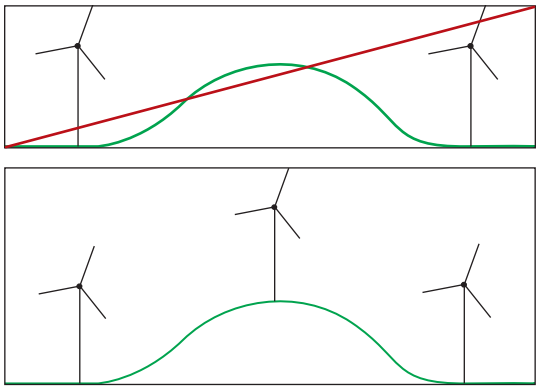


Figure 3. Situation to be avoided: the natural proportions of the landscape are disrupted

Source : Natura biologie appliquée Sàrl

On uneven terrain, wind turbines of the same size should be used for the whole site and they should be integrated with the morphology of the terrain (Figure 4). It is also important to avoid a situation where, owing to the perspective effect, wind turbines no longer respect the morphology of the terrain when viewed from a particular vantage point.

Figure 4. Example of wind turbines in areas of uneven morphology: it is important to follow the pattern of the terrain and reproduce existing patterns

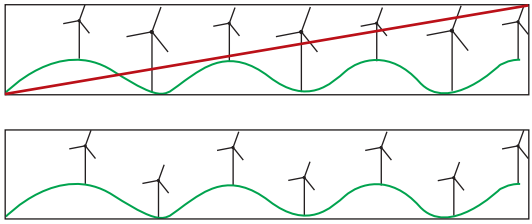


Figure 5. Landscape rhythm imposed by topography

The discontinuous line marks the horizon which wind turbines should follow from a vantage point determined in the landscape survey, in order to respect the rhythm imposed by the topography.

Source: Natura biologie appliquée Sàrl

Wind turbines should not be as tall as the summit on, or near to which they are erected, so as to preserve the scale imposed by the morphology of the landscape. Ideally, the ridgeline should be twice as high as the planned wind turbine.

Figure 6. Proportions to be respected between the height of a wind turbine and that of a summit

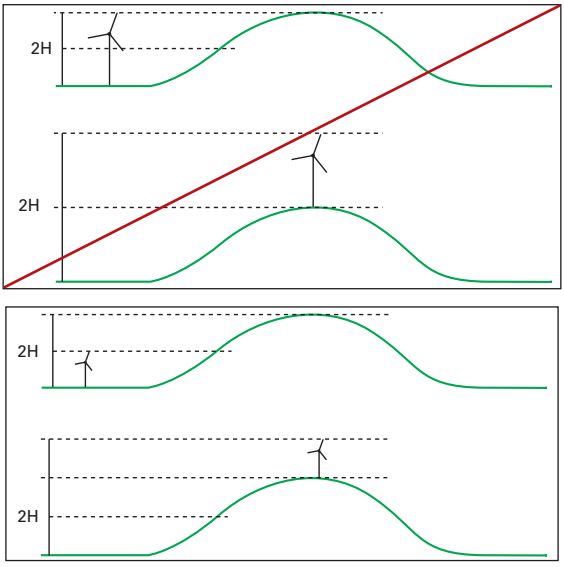


Figure 7. Wind turbines on a low ridge

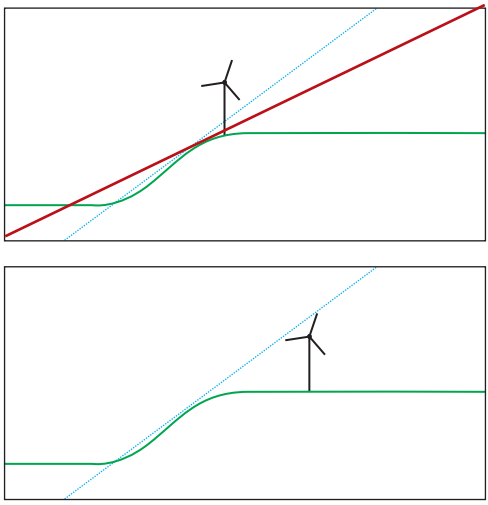
Source: Natura biologie appliquée Sàrl

Figure 8. Wind turbines on a ridge significantly higher than the wind turbines

Source: Natura biologie appliquée Sàrl

The perceived size of wind turbines is significantly increased by optical effects, for example resulting from a low-angle view. Wind turbines should be situated within limits imposed by the existing slope lines in order to avoid low-angle effects.

Figure 9. Wind turbines on top of a ridge



Wind turbines on top of a ridge. Avoid a plateau-edge location to reduce the impression of being overwhelmed when looking up from the valley floor.

3.4. Co-visibility and situation of saturation

Reference is often made to the attractiveness of wind turbines to the public, in view of their novelty and the fact that they symbolise sustainable energy production. However, a saturation point may be reached beyond which wind turbines are no longer an attraction but a nuisance to the population, if too many wind farms are constructed in a region and are visible from the same place. Viewed from a given angle, wind turbines are dominant and highly conspicuous features. If every line of vision takes in wind turbines, observers may experience a sense of saturation or fatigue.

Spatial planning or plans for a new wind farm in a region must therefore address co-visibility issues. This involves cataloguing the areas from which more than one wind farm is visible. Areas with high concentrations of housing, tourist areas recognised for the quality of their landscapes and particular vantage points should not be in a situation where several sites are co-visible. Co-visibility analysis should not only be carried out for sites that are equidistant from a vantage point but should take into account all the wind farms that lie within the area defined at the beginning of the study. The production of visibility grids for wind turbines is a very useful contribution to this analysis of co-visibility.

The term co-visibility is also used sometimes to refer to the simultaneous visibility of a wind turbine and another feature in the landscape, such as a church spire.

3.5. Special landscapes

By this we mean all areas which have a special legal status and for which landscape aspects are of paramount importance. The term may also refer to areas that do not

have a special legal status but which are recognised for the quality of their landscapes, for example an emblematic regional site or a tourist area of special interest in terms of landscape.

The question of special landscapes should no longer arise in the planning of a wind farm, because they should have been excluded at the prior spatial planning stage.

Spatial planning should identify the particular landscapes one wishes to exclude or, on the contrary, enhance, through the construction of wind turbines. This choice should be based on criteria defined in the landscape analysis.

Generally speaking, landscapes enjoying legal protection should be excluded in order to avoid subsequent conflicts of interest. Natura 2000 sites are an example of areas to be avoided. The same applies to areas without any special conservation status. If, however, the construction of wind turbines does seem compatible with the area, a major effort must be made to justify the choice and communicate it. It is the landscape project which must either justify the construction of wind turbines or not. Communication involves describing the entire project process, from the analysis stage to the proposed final result.

The landscape's heritage and historical aspects, its rarity and the number of visitors to it are factors to be taken into account when defining selection or exclusion criteria. Research should also be done into any social, cultural or political events having a connection with the area in question. This can serve to identify aspects which are not immediately visible but which may be an important factor in the value attached to the landscape by the population.

Lastly, when analysing a special or protected landscape, it is important to consider the entire landscape unit or the "viewshed" in which the protected site is located. The quality or special nature of a landscape area recognised by a political decision sometimes extends further than its cartographical boundaries and forms a coherent whole with the surrounding areas. The construction of a wind turbine close to the protected site could therefore have as much impact as if it were constructed within its boundaries. It is therefore advisable to designate buffer zones around special or protected landscapes.

Generally speaking, it is important to consider the landscape as a whole and not simply exclude or select areas on the basis of boundaries set in a political decision.

3.6. Relationship with built-up areas

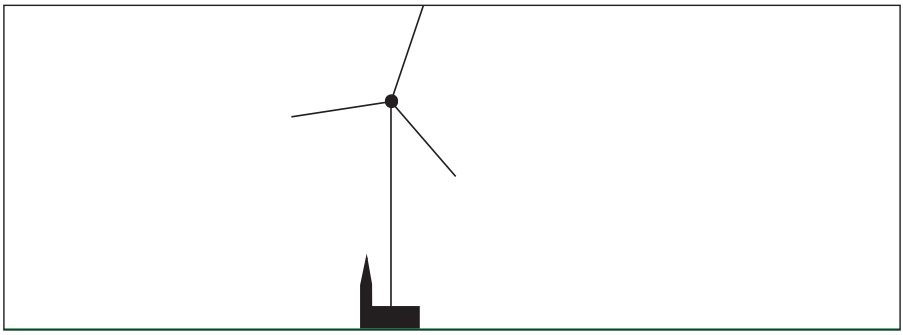
This section is concerned only with the landscape issues associated with built-up areas. It does not deal with aspects such as noise and shadow. It is important, however, that both these aspects should be addressed with a great deal of care and precaution. A study which deals insufficiently with these aspects is likely to give rise to numerous social problems during the operational phase.

Issues of scale also apply to built-up areas. These are major features in a landscape which attract attention and are often linked to natural features in the surrounding landscape, with which they form a coherent whole. In uniform landscapes with distant

horizons, buildings and villages take on an even greater structural importance than in areas of uneven terrain.

Beside a wind turbine, even a large building becomes insignificant and loses its prominence in the landscape. From a given vantage point, a wind turbine situated in line with a village or building should not be more than twice the height of the built structure in question. Ideally, the wind turbine should not be in the line of vision of significant vantage points identified in the landscape analysis.

Figure 10. Wind turbine alignment: situation to be avoided



Avoid constructing wind turbines directly in line with a village or an individual monument.

Figure 11. Buildings dominated by wind turbines: situation to be avoided

Avoid constructing wind turbines on a scale which dominates nearby buildings or monuments.
Source: Natura biologie appliquée Sàrl

The views from a locality towards an unconstructed area should also be considered. The lines of vision offered by streets or squares towards the outside should be avoided in order not to disturb the proportions and perspectives defined by the existing buildings.

CONCLUSIONS

As with other important infrastructures, wind turbines should be planned on an area-wide level based on the application of spatial planning principles. This is the key to successful integration into the landscape and, hence, to overall coherence that is understood and accepted by a large proportion of the population.

This report only sets out general guidelines for proper landscape planning incorporating wind turbines. All the aspects covered should be explored in greater detail, the extent of this depending on the specific characteristics of the state or region concerned. To this end, it is recommended that authorities develop their own landscape criteria in line with the European Landscape Convention, and that they draw up overall spatial plans for wind energy. In areas where wind energy is not yet present, the drawing up of comprehensive plans will make it possible to forestall a good many conflicts that will be more difficult to resolve once specific projects have been submitted to the bodies responsible for authorising them.

There is also intensive pooling of information and experience between member states, as well as a very great demand for support from the Council of Europe. Thanks to this, specific knowledge of the many fields affected by wind turbines, which is still incomplete in some cases, will be able to increase rapidly.

Chapter 2

Management of the territory: landscape management as a process

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INTRODUCTION

Definition and characteristics of landscape management

Landscape management is a recent concept, one which emerged much later than others used in the same field, with which it is sometimes confused. The present report uses the definition of the concept provided in Article 1 of Chapter 1 of the European Landscape Convention:

- "Landscape management" means action, from a perspective of sustainable development, to ensure the regular upkeep of a landscape, so as to guide and harmonise changes which are brought about by social, economic and environmental processes.

The same article sets out the definitions making up the basic conceptual framework of the European Landscape Convention:

- "Landscape" means an area, as perceived by people, whose character is the result of the action and interaction of natural and/or human factors;
- "Landscape policy" means an expression by the competent public authorities of general principles, strategies and guidelines that permit the taking of specific measures aimed at the protection, management and planning of landscapes;
- "Landscape quality objective" means, for a specific landscape, the formulation by the competent public authorities of the aspirations of the public with regard to the landscape features of their surroundings;
- "Landscape protection" means actions to conserve and maintain the significant or characteristic features of a landscape, justified by its heritage value, derived from its natural configuration and/or from human activity;
- "Landscape planning" means strong forward-looking action to enhance, restore or create landscapes.

So we shall be adopting a concept which is defined in the framework of an international treaty, consistently with other parallel concepts closely bound up with the fundamental objectives of the European Landscape Convention, namely "to promote landscape protection, management and planning, and to organise European co-operation on landscape issues".

Drawing on these definitions as set out in the convention, this report will develop the landscape management concept as the process of formulating, articulating and developing a set of strategies geared to enhancing a specific landscape and improving the quality of human life, as part of a sustainable development approach using the appropriate instruments and implementing the programmes and actions set out in a landscape management project.

This definition highlights the four main features of landscape management as one of the objectives pursued by the convention:

1. *the social dimension:* given that landscape is a social product resulting from interaction between nature and society, its management must incorporate the social dimension, with both its aspects of being an object of study and a subject of management. This requirement involves participation by the social partners in the various phases of the management process and consideration of their perceptions of, and ambitions concerning, the landscape;
2. *the sustainable perspective:* given that the convention's objectives include protecting landscape features and values, landscape management must be based on the principles of sustainable development, and foster the establishment of harmonious relations between human activities and the environment in which they happen;
3. *the operational approach:* all the concepts defined in the convention are based on the action principle, which means that landscape management is intended to be operational and influential. That is, it must be geared to action and have an impact on the landscape and the social, economic and institutional players, drawing on the initial objectives and formulations of the management project instigators;
4. *the time dimension:* landscape is changeable in nature and so its management must be conceived as a process providing for programming actions over time, in accordance with a number of local strategies and sequences.

Landscape management aims

The management concept remained secondary to other concepts relating to landscape (analysis, design, protection, planning, programming, etc.), which took pride of place in the research field and in professional practice. So what has been the reason for the increased role taken on by landscape management over recent years? In our view, there have been a number of factors in this change of direction:

a. the increasing pace of landscape change, which has occurred with unprecedented intensity over the last 50 years, and the general spread of

landscape transformation processes to ever larger areas, now covering virtually all regions and geographical environments;

b. the lack of appropriate strategies and methodologies to cope with the changes affecting landscapes with no special protection status (ordinary landscapes), which constitute the majority of landscapes as perceived by individuals;

c. the social concern at landscape changes and the concern to retain democratic control over these changes, which are continuing at a vertiginous rate, as if unavoidably linked to economic growth;

d. consideration of landscape as a useful variable in contemporary urban and spatial planning, similar to other variables traditionally used in these areas;

e. in contemporary societies, the demand for greater well-being; this includes the individual and collective right to a quality environment and a non-depersonalised landscape which embraces significant values that help improve the quality of human life;

f. the status of cultural and natural heritage attributed by society to the landscape, given that an increasing number of landscapes have become a rare, threatened asset which must be cherished and protected.

All these factors point to the fact that landscape management can be a mode of dealing with the landscape and a professional technique which – taking into account the aspirations of the public and the input from the various sectors involved – provides society with a working method for promoting the landscape, sustainable development and quality of human life. The main aims of landscape management are to:

- promote the harmonious preservation of landscapes and creation of new quality landscapes;
- foster local development on the basis of the values and opportunities provided by landscapes;
- improve the quality of life of individuals by rationalising a mode of socio-economic development respecting the landscape;
- improve the efficiency of spatial organisation of local activities;
- help determine landscaping guidelines for subsequent implementation in spatial and urban planning and sectoral policies;
- provide criteria, methods and instruments in pursuit of landscape quality objectives;
- increase the landscape capital of a specific area, landscape being understood as a forefront economic and (natural and cultural) heritage resource;
- trigger social debate on the environment and landscape and help establish consensus by involving the social partners;
- facilitate decision making and development of joint strategies by social and institutional actors in the area, by means of landscape consultation and mediation processes.

1. DEVELOPING A LANDSCAPE MANAGEMENT PROJECT

1.1. Definition of a landscape management project

A landscape management project is an instrument that systematically implements all the stages in a landscape management process (territorial vision, diagnosis, formulation, implementation, dissemination and follow-up to proposals and actions), geared to enhancing a specific landscape and improving human quality of life, in line with the landscape quality objectives established.

The operators and actors in any landscape management project are the promoter, the landscape manager, the landscape management team and the landscape partners.

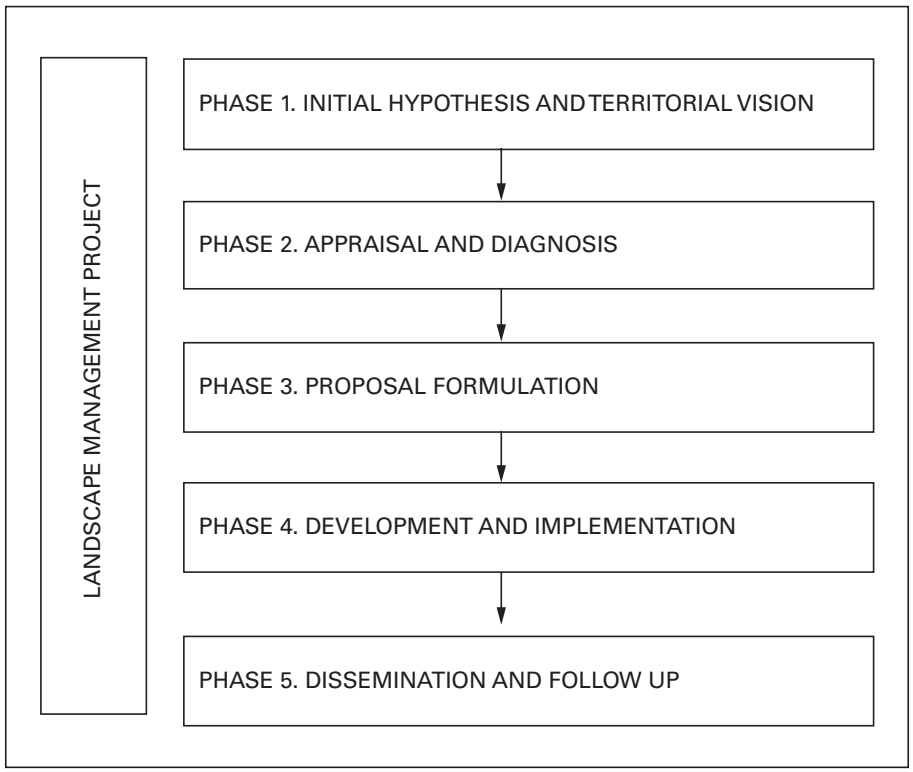
- the landscape management promoter may be a social, economic, institutional or professional operator implementing or instigating landscape management processes and projects, and taking the requisite action for their success. This may include providing the manager or management team with the necessary resources for developing the project;
- the landscape manager is the professional directing or actively participating in the teams working on landscape management processes or projects;
- the landscape management team is interdisciplinary, comprising professionals and experts who play an active part in developing the project, co-ordinated by a landscape manager;
- the landscape partners are a group of social, economic and institutional operators working in a given area who participate throughout the management process, interacting with the manager or management team.

1.2. Phases in the landscape management project

Landscape management is a dynamic process which embraces the formulation, articulation and development of a set of strategies, geared to enhancing a specific landscape and improving human quality of life by using the appropriate instruments and developing programmes and activities set out in a landscape management project. Under this process, all landscape management projects break down into five main phases (see Fig. 12), which run seamlessly into each other.

The first phase, "the initial hypothesis and territorial vision", involves entering into contact with the local area and the landscape phase 1 to be covered by the project. Drawing on the initial hypothesis put forward by the project promoter, the landscape manager or management team uses their professional experience and interdisciplinary knowledge to conduct a preliminary analysis of the territory and provisionally delimit the area to be covered by the management project, put forward a number of key ideas and present an outline description of the themes to be developed on the ground. We refer to this professional activity as producing a territorial vision.

Figure 12. Phases in the landscape management project



Source: Jaume Busquets and Albert Cortina

The second phase, "appraisal and diagnosis", is geared to guaranteeing that the project is based on a thorough and systematic analysis of the landscape. This phase involves finalising the delimitation of the chosen area and working at the territorial level most suited to the management project in question. The territorial analysis, the diagnosis of the current and prospective future state of the landscape, its tendencies and dynamics, knowledge of existing studies and documentation, the relevant prescriptive and planning framework, the interaction with the landscape partners by means of interviews with the major social, economic and institutional operators and identification of their social networks: all these factors help the landscape manager or management team to present a diagnosis that will enable them to instigate the subsequent management phase.

After this initial appraisal and a diagnosis, both rigorous and single-minded and focused on confirming the initial hypothesis and the territorial vision, we come to phase 3, "the proposal formulation phase". Here, via an opposite process of social participation, the objectives of the management project are finalised, its key ideas and the basic project description defined. During this phase, which has both methodological and creative dimensions, the manager or management team confirms or corrects the initial hypothesis and territorial vision with an eye to articulating the objectives and key ideas, by means of a main thread or argument providing

for a consistent interpretation of the various themes and actions to be proposed for the specific landscape.

Up to now this has been a non-linear, interactive, two-way exercise facilitating progress through the successive stages of defining the strategies for establishing the key ideas and the criteria for achieving the objectives, and for formulating the proposals and definitive actions in the landscape management project. The whole process is organised, as mentioned above, around social participation.

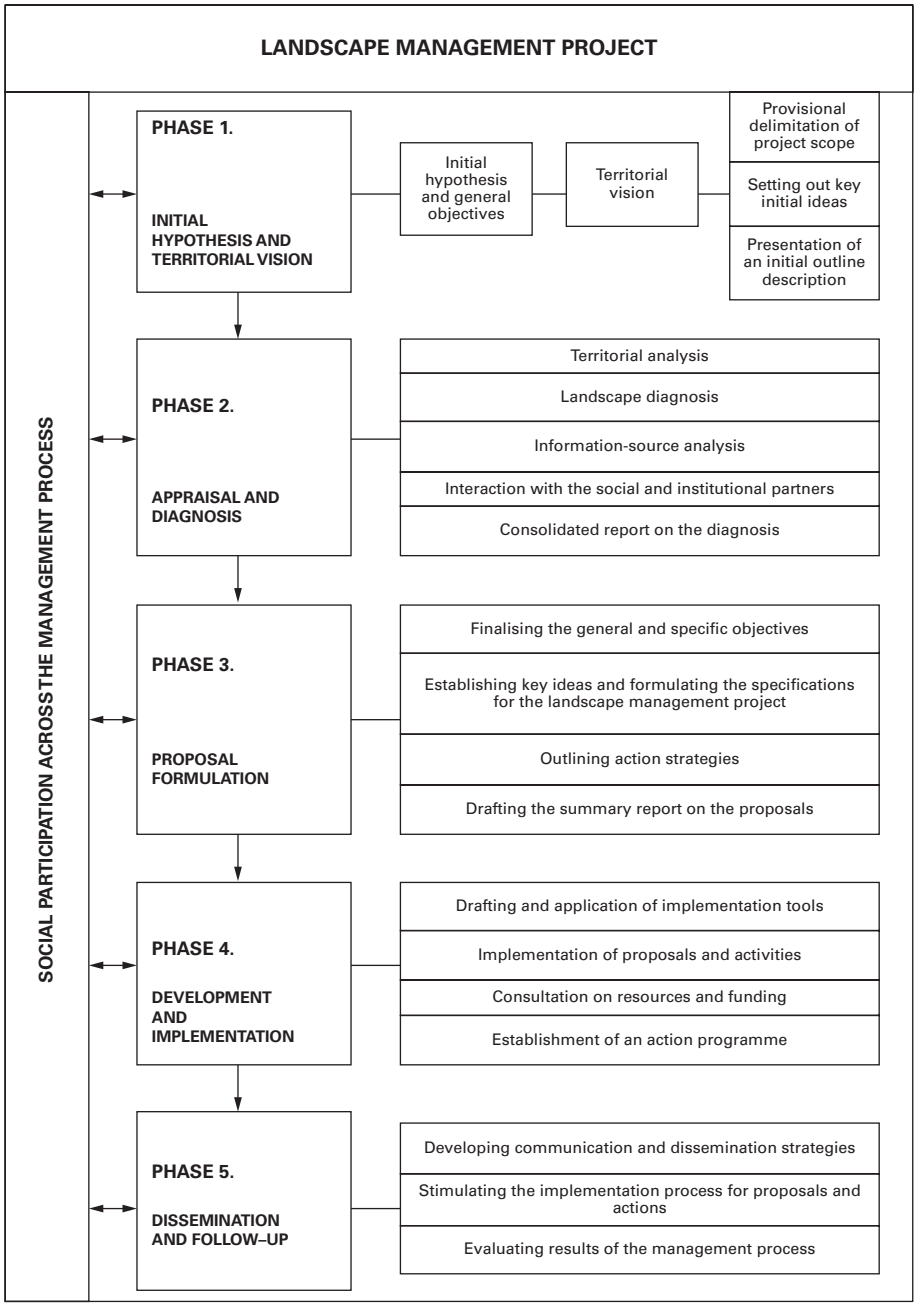
In the fourth phase, "development and implementation", the management team expands on the proposals and actions for the project, seeking co-operation and consensus among the various landscape operators. By preparing and implementing the various executive instruments (plans, projects, agreements, consortia, etc.), the proposals and actions are implemented in accordance with a management programme identifying the operators involved, the economic resources required and the schedule for execution. This phase usually comprises mediation and consultation procedures which serve to frame the commitments and obligations adopted by the landscape partners, particularly those relating to funding of activities and the implementation schedule.

Lastly, the dissemination and follow-up phase comprises a set of communication and dissemination strategies geared to fostering public understanding of the proposals and actions set out in the project. The management project promoter sets up a "landscape council" in order to ensure the involvement of the social, economic and institutional partners in the follow-up stage of the process, promoting awareness-raising activities and measures to enhance the landscape capital, thus creating a genuine "landscape quality culture".

A technical landscape office can also be set up to support this participatory body, helping implement the practical proposals and activities set out in the management project. The technical office comprises landscape managers and other professionals specialising in landscape planning, protection and management, and is responsible for disseminating and promoting the proposals contained in the management project among the social, economic and institutional partners and among the general public. A landscape management liaison officer might be specially recruited for this purpose.

During this follow-up phase it is important to conduct a regular assessment of the result of the management process, drawing on various landscape indicators.

Figure 13. Successive phases in the management project



Source: Jaume Busquets and Albert Cortina

We shall now go on to describe the objectives and content of each phase in the landscape management project.

Phase 1 – Initial hypothesis and territorial vision

A. Initial hypothesis and general aims

The landscape management project usually starts off with an initial hypothesis and general aims, which the promoter proposes to the landscape manager or management team.

The landscape management promoter should discharge his/her leadership and instigative duties in a participatory manner, involving the other social, economic and institutional partners. In this way, the initial hypothesis and the general aims will be the outcome of a process of prior social participation which will intensify and expand throughout the management process.

Transposing these general objectives into a number of basic starting points for the requisite work (or framing them as administrative documents in the case of public contracting) enables the landscape manager to set up an interdisciplinary team to deal with the main features of the process in question, the type of landscape to be managed and the objectives to be pursued.

The landscape management project promoter is responsible for taking the requisite action to achieve the success of the general objectives and for providing the manager or management team with the requisite resources for implementing the project.

B. Territorial vision

Drawing on the initial hypothesis and the general objectives proposed by the process promoter, the landscape manager or management team, using their own specialist knowledge and experience, has recourse to a professional capacity which we call a territorial vision. Once the initial analysis of the territory has been completed and the scope of the management project is provisionally delimited, a number of initial key ideas are noted and a preliminary outline description is presented articulating the said ideas in the form of a summary of the various themes and actions to be developed in the specific landscape.

a. Provisional delimitation of project scope

The scope of the landscape management project coincides with the physical boundaries of the territory established by the promoter, the manager and the team having formulated the project, in accordance with the geographical scale of intervention.

At this stage, however, the project scope is only provisionally defined, given that, as the project develops, the scope may change and clarify, with the results of the diagnosis and the practical pursuit of the specific objectives.

This phase should also include a decision on the scale of the work, bearing in mind that this decision will influence the analysis of the landscape components and the subsequent development of the management instruments (planning, programming, etc.). An intermediate scale, for example 1:25 000, might be appropriate for analysing homogeneous landscape areas, while analysis of eco-geographical structures might require a scale of 1:10 000.

b. Setting out the initial key ideas

Once the preliminary landscape analysis has been completed, the initial key ideas can be advanced on the basis of the manager's or management team's territorial vision.

By "key idea" we mean a particularly striking tangible or intangible element of a given landscape which has a strategic potential, alongside other key ideas, which can combine to form the main outline description for a landscape management project.

A key idea is no mere description of tangible themes or resources (the territory, the physical components of a given landscape, etc.) or of intangible resources (social, cultural, historical, touristic, aesthetic and other elements): it actually links up the most important themes, values and resources that make up the landscape capital of a specific territory, emphasising its energy and strategic potential.

The territorial vision brings out the key idea(s) capable of providing the hub of one or more theme(s) enhancing and energising the landscape to be managed.

c. Presentation of an initial outline description

Lastly, the manager or management team pursuing the general objectives laid down by the process promoter prepares and presents a preliminary version of the description of the management project.

The description is a basic summary which, in conjunction with the key ideas, forms the main thread which coherently links the various themes, objectives, strategies, proposals and concrete activities for the management project.

The outline description for a management project should ultimately lead to enhancing the specific landscape and providing fresh dynamism, thanks to synergised resources and a new consensus among all the operators in the territory in question.

Phase 2 – Appraisal and diagnosis

A. Territorial analysis

Since a landscape is the specific physiognomy of a given territory as perceived by the human eye, the two concepts of territory and landscape operate in dialectical tandem. On the other hand, the territory is not just a space in the strict Euclidean meaning of the term, but a unique configuration of its component parts.

These two premises presuppose that any landscape management project must include rigorous reconnaissance of the territory, as regards both its static and its dynamic elements, either by conducting new fieldwork or referring to existing work or, as usually happens, by combining both these approaches. Furthermore, this analysis must be based on the essential fact that every territory is unique, just as every landscape is unique, since bio-geographical conditions are never identical (for the simple reason, *inter alia*, that each specific location excludes all other specific locations).

Territorial analysis under the landscape management project must be based on a study of the area within the meaning ascribed to this concept in the French- or

English-speaking world: the area of location of a specific project and its area of influence from the functional and perceptional angles. It must embrace identification (reconnaissance) and characterisation (description) of the essential components of the territory of the landscape being studied:

- location components: siting, accessibility, geographical context;
- geomorphological components: relief structure, hydrological system, topography;
- biophysical components: soil, climate, vegetation, ecosystems;
- socio-economic components: settlements, infrastructural networks, land use, economic activities and flows (economy, energy, goods and supplies, etc.).

However, this process would be incomplete without an overall interpretation of the territory, forging the basic links between the various parameters and defining the existing hierarchy, namely the territorial summary. This highlights the territorial configuration and evidences the underlying structure of the landscape to be managed.

In conclusion, territorial analysis in the landscape management context must be highly selective and succinct in nature, geared to pinpointing the territorial configuration and providing the essential parameters to form the basis for the landscape diagnosis and, ultimately, for the whole landscape management project.

B. Landscape diagnosis

The data deriving from the territorial analysis are a necessary but not sufficient condition for the development of a landscape management project. A landscape diagnosis is also needed, geared to highlighting the components, values and trends of the landscape. If the objective in the territorial analysis phase was to understand the territorial configuration and the specificity of the location, here it is a case of revealing the state of the landscape, its evolutive tendencies and its future opportunities. All management projects correspond to a number of objectives in the social interest relating to the landscape as a generator of common projects borne by their promoters, and the said objectives must be constantly referred to throughout the process.

A variety of methods of landscape analysis and diagnosis have been developed by different scientific disciplines and professions, such as geography, history, ecology, landscape gardening, spatial and urban planning. They are all applicable to the different dimensions and components of landscapes. In implementing landscape management projects, contributions from different specialists can vary according to the features of the individual territory and landscape, and various methods can therefore be used simultaneously under the supervision of the management team co-ordinator, provided that the same objectives are pursued and a standard diagnosis of the landscape is established.

Under the landscape diagnosis, the data supplied during the territorial analysis phase are complemented with an analysis of other variables required for understanding a concept, namely the landscape, which has multiple meanings and facets. The components are not always easy to objectify, but they are necessary to achieve a comprehensive understanding of the landscape and to link up the population with

the latter's future. These components include tangible and intangible components such as visual, perceptional, cultural elements and eco-geographical elements:

- visual components: elements (lines, points, areas, volumes, etc.), organisation (formal lines, visual structures, spatial order, etc.), variables (dominance, diversity, position, orientation, colouring, lighting, etc.);
- perceptional components: scales of perception, observation points and visual references, viewsheds and other sensory components;
- cultural components: cultural representations (traditions, illustrations, literature, etc.), heritage elements (social, natural, aesthetic, etc.) and symbolic elements;
- eco-geographical components: patchwork landscapes (geo-ecological and socio-economic), landscape structures, landscape units, habitat types, plots of land, etc.;
- present and future trends: landscape values, evolutive dynamics, impacts, challenges, opportunities.

If landscape diagnosis is to be genuinely useful in the landscape management project, it must also be selective and succinct. Avoiding exhaustive inventories and local monographs, the manager or management team must pinpoint the most significant of the components identified, list them in order of importance and highlight the internal organisation of the landscape. The results of the landscape diagnosis must clearly spotlight the landscape's values, trends and opportunities, helping to formulate specific proposals for enhancing the landscape, shed light on the requisite types of implementing projects and, ultimately, facilitate decision making and the formulation of strategies to be jointly carried out by all the landscape partners.

C. Information source analysis

During the appraisal and diagnosis phase it is vital for the management teams to guarantee that all the available sources of information have been used on the landscape covered by the project. This is a question not just of scientific and technical rigour but also of professional efficiency and reliability. Care must be taken not to repeat tasks already performed by other specialists and professionals in the past. This will avoid wasted effort and improve the use of the time available and management team efficiency.

a. Direct information sources

The first source of direct information is the actual local area and fieldwork, that is, studying the landscape in situ. Nothing can replace recourse to this primary information source, including scientific texts, illustrated documents and statistical databases. Nevertheless, it must also be realised that information-gathering is not the only task or purpose of fieldwork.

On-site work enables important data to be collected on different variables by a variety of means (taking notes, photographs, maps, sketches, etc.), but it also facilitates comparison of information from other sources with direct observation,

confirming one's own perception with other points of view, and making contact and interacting with the social partners (interviews, surveys, debates, etc.). Similarly, fieldwork not only provides answers but also raises questions and prompts new ideas and hypotheses.

If the fieldwork is to be effective, it must be prepared in advance, and participants must realise that regular visits will be required for the duration of the management project, geared to complementing and/or confirming new data. Depending on the scope of the study and the project aims, organising the fieldwork requires programming and co-ordination of varying complexity among the management team members. In all cases, the landscape managers must be familiar with the location, becoming acquainted with both the landscape (namely the territory) and the population (namely the persons inhabiting it).

b. Indirect information sources

Broadly speaking, information on the territory, and access to it, has greatly increased in parallel with the social, political and economic progress in our countries. Moreover, the development of electronic networks has promoted public access to a huge volume of information of all kinds (including a wide range of geographical and landscape-related data), which would have seemed impossible only a few years ago. While this greatly facilitates access to documentary sources and helps the management teams compile the requisite documentation, it does not detract from the critical importance of this task, to which a great deal of time still has to be devoted.

There are six major types of indirect information sources, broken down by origin:

- prescriptive: regional, urban and sectoral planning, and spatial, urban and sectoral legislation;
- scientific: studies, catalogues, monographs, doctoral theses, etc.;
- cartographical: maps, aerial photographs, satellite pictures;
- statistical: economic, demographic, social, etc.;
- non-cartographical: illustrations (paintings, engravings, photographs, etc.);
- cultural: local monographs, literary works, press articles, etc.

While knowledge of the various documentary sources is undoubtedly important as a basis for the proposed strands within the management project, it is also vital to pinpoint the prescriptive sources, because these instruments establish the legal and planning framework (regulating such substantive aspects as urbanisation processes, land-use regulations and territorial development of activities) for any type of landscape management project.

The great diversity and dispersal of documentary sources often causes difficulties in locating them, necessitating a systematic effort at detection. Although government departments are increasingly ready to provide citizens with access to documentation of public interest (planning documents, legislation, statistics, etc.) and documents providing information or promoting participatory procedures, many papers have to be consulted directly, and they are not always properly catalogued or easy to locate.

However, while the dearth or dispersal of information hampers progress in landscape projects, excess or indiscriminate use of information can reduce the cost-effectiveness of the landscape manager's or management team's work. Accordingly, proper importance must be attached to information during this phase of the management process and a systematic method adopted. The search for, and effective use of, the information sources must therefore always begin after the general objectives of the project have been established, in accordance with the procedure set out below:

- compilation and interpretation of background data provided by the management project promoters;
- adoption of the type of information required, depending on the management project objectives;
- identification and pinpointing of information sources;
- analysis and selection of relevant information;
- information-processing.

The prevailing imbalance between specific information on the landscape and general information on the territory is being rectified in that the various levels of government (municipal, regional, national, etc.) are incorporating landscape policies into their fields of action and promoting the formulation of such instruments as landscape atlases, landscape catalogues, landscape plans, landscape decrees, etc.

During the information-seeking process, care should be taken to consult experts and professionals who have previously worked on similar projects and with social operators familiar with the territory. Finally, before concluding this section, we would point out that the bibliography should fully list all sources consulted and the acknowledgements section should include the names of all individuals or legal persons who have provided any kind of assistance or information.

D. Interaction with the social and institutional partners

In the first part of this chapter we saw that our concept of landscape management regards the landscape as a social product. The type of relationship that grows up between society and the natural environment is the main shaping factor for our landscapes, whether as a result of the changes arising from the use of natural resources for human survival and other activities, or because of a deliberate attempt to create new landscapes. Furthermore, the landscape concept itself is a social construct (resulting from a specific social view of, and attitude towards, the environment) and also a cultural postulate (which, as we know, has not always existed throughout history or in all societies).

We would emphasise the "social product" dimension of the landscape, because at the current stage in the development of our societies, any process or action geared to protecting, managing or organising landscapes must grant a major role to the social operators, although this role is often disdained or minimised. Landscape management is inconceivable unless we also include society in our thinking. Society is not a passive subject vis-à-vis changing landscapes: it produces landscape, it is landscape, on the same footing as the other biotic or abiotic components of the

landscape, although its role never ceases to expand, because of its enormous potential to transform the environment.

Landscape management projects must be designed as social processes involving painstaking work to which the manager and the management teams must devote the necessary time and resources, comprising the following activities:

- identifying the social partners: institutional partners (local, regional, autonomous community, state and international administrations); economic partners (economic sectors, employers' associations, chambers of commerce, trade unions, etc.); civic partners (non-governmental organisations, cultural bodies, professional associations, land protection agencies, etc.);
- identifying social networks: objectives, links, contradictions, conflicts, etc.;
- interaction with social partners: consultation, mediation, negotiation, co-ordination.

Major benefits are to be derived from interacting with social partners in the landscape management processes: this provides the kind of information which is very difficult to obtain by other means, improves knowledge of landscape complexity (private and public interests, sectoral mindsets, social demands, etc.), helps to set up synergies and lays the foundations for drawing up agreements via landscape consultation and mediation.

E. Consolidated report on the diagnosis

Since the management process is based on social participation and has an eminently operational purpose, it is useful to facilitate communication between the partners by means of comprehensible information sources and succinct documents. During the appraisal and diagnosis phase, it is necessary to draw up a consolidated report on the diagnosis which comprehensibly and concisely sets out the main results and conclusions reached. Although the structure and content of the report must be flexible enough to adapt to the aims of the management project, it must always include the information needed to respond to a number of very specific questions:

- summary characterisation of the landscape (why is the landscape covered by the project and what distinguishes it from the others?);
- dysfunctions vis-à-vis the landscape (what are the outstanding problems and conflicts?);
- the landscape values (what landscape and social resources are available?);
- the conclusions (have the initial hypothesis and expectations targeted by the project promoter been fulfilled? What opportunities were highlighted during the appraisal and diagnostic phase?).

The consolidated report must be self-sufficient in the sense that it must be meaningful in isolation from the rest of the documentation. Drafting of the text must begin as soon as the various diagnostic stages have been completed and the results are confirmed through initial contact with the social partners. The consultations with, and opinions expressed by, the social partners do not exempt the professionals from

continuing to take appropriate decisions based on their capacities and their interpretation of the results of their analysis. Nevertheless, these consultations provide a guarantee that they have not overlooked any important social criteria.

Phase 3 – Proposal formulation

A. Finalising the general and specific objectives

As we mentioned in the section on phase 1, professionals who take charge of a landscape management project receive their information from the project promoter(s) on the general objectives to be pursued and the initial hypothesis relating to the main thrust and content of the project. Sometimes this involves setting out an actual mandate that the promoter expects the manager or management team to use for articulating and developing the whole project. For example, this might be giving new impetus to the development of a specific river basin by enhancing the local industrial landscape heritage. In other cases, the promoter may transmit a more general objective, such as organising and enhancing the landscape of a specific region, or instructing the management team to flesh out the mandate before beginning the project.

It is also important to secure a specific agreed definition of the management project's general objectives; this is a prerequisite to ensure that the project is properly launched. In most projects, as the work proceeds and the management team interacts with the social partners, the goals initially set by the promoter are adapted, developed or even reformulated. This is a normal process of maturation of the initial ideas, based on better acquaintance with the territory, the aspirations of the local population and the challenges and opportunities arising from the landscape.

In the proposal-formulating phase, the landscape manager or management team pursues two aims: finalising the general objectives and establishing the specific objectives. As a usual criterion, it is better to set a small number of general objectives, breaking them down into a reasonable number of specific goals. Excessive numbers of general and/or specific objectives usually weaken their impact and lessen the coherency of the whole project.

The general objectives must refer to general and/or transverse aspects of the landscape management project, while the specific objectives must refer to partial aspects deriving from the former. For instance, the general objective "boosting local development of X river basin by enhancing the industrial landscape heritage" may give rise to the following specific objectives: "establishing ecological flow in X river", "restoring the most interesting components of the industrial architectural heritage" and "involving the tourism sector in creating high-quality tourist services and facilities".

Lastly, from the angle of communication, all the objectives must be defined directly, succinctly and clearly. They must be intelligible on a first reading and free of ambiguity. These conditions facilitate communication among the landscape partners during the participatory phase and prevent repetitions, misunderstandings, false expectations and ultimate feelings of frustration.

B. Establishing the key ideas and formulating the specifications for the landscape management project

Once the objectives have been defined, we enter a working phase which must be both systematic and creative. This work consists of selecting a number of key ideas and articulating them by inventing a description or main "thread" which enables the various themes, proposals and actions to be read in a coherent manner.

It is possible to establish key ideas by detecting socially important relationships between landscape elements and/or themes. The themes are material or non-material elements or groups of elements of the landscape which have a major presence, prominence and significance, and are selected on the basis of their presence and importance in the landscape and their potential for eliciting interest.

The description is based on the capacity for linking up the key ideas in a meaningful and creative manner by means of a "narrative" or outline, facilitating the progress of the management project and the attainment of its objectives. The description must be easy to explain and understand. The landscape management project description must not be confused with the project motto, which is a summary expression of its content with a short, attractive wording.

Furthermore, as the definition of the key ideas proceeds and the project description takes shape, the initial hypothesis and territorial visions are confirmed, adapted or corrected and the scope of the management project is finalised. The whole process represents a non-linear, interactive, variable exercise, laying the foundations for implementing the proposals and designing action strategies, remaining within a cross-disciplinary framework with constant social participation.

C. Designing action strategies and giving concrete expression to the proposals

In order to achieve the management project goals, proper strategies must be designed and the proposals concretised, and this is the appropriate stage for so doing. The time devoted to both these tasks – which must be co-ordinated by the management team leader – will be offset by calculating the total time spent on the project, in order to avoid having to improvise, as a result of faulty planning.

The strategies are systems for co-ordinating actions and approaches to achieve carefully defined objectives. Management strategies must establish the short-, medium- or long-term tasks to be carried out, the order in which they are to be carried out and the professionals and actors directly or indirectly involved in the scheduled tasks, as well as the content of the project proposals. They must also provide for alternatives in order to secure a wide range of opportunities and mechanisms for negotiation and consultation. A number of effective strategies should anticipate potential difficulties during the management process and ensure the means of overcoming them.

The following are examples of the challenges to be met during the management processes by means of effective strategies:

- lack of references or similar projects;
- difficulties of communication with certain landscape partners;

- the difficulty of gaining access to specific types of information;
- restricted economic resources;
- the difficulty of securing firm commitments from partners;
- lack of motivation on the part of the social partners;
- lack of a model for a specific territory or landscape.

Moreover, the opportunities arising from the cross-disciplinary work in designing proper strategies include:

- multiple cognitive, relational and informative networks linked to the various professionals;
- a wide diversity of multiple and complex visions of the specific reality;
- the various professional competences of the team members;
- the different technical skills associated with the various disciplines;
- the range of expressive resources and forms of communication.

The management team leader is responsible for co-ordinating strategy design and supervising the whole process. He or she must accordingly ensure follow-up and look after the following aspects: the project work schedule; timetabling the various tasks; co-ordinating the activities and joint work of the team members; supervising result quality; ensuring financial control; communicating with the management project promoter; keeping the most important project documents drawn up during the process; and, finally, archiving the documentation.

The proposals are actions of any kind which the management project may embrace, ranging from selective activities or interventions (for example, integration of specific installations into the landscape or rehabilitation of a particularly important landscape) to more complex operations (for example, drafting or implementing planning instruments, setting up consortia, etc.).

One very important aspect of the proposals is that they must be communicated to the social partners and the landscape operators. A good project which is badly formulated, with inappropriate information resources or ill-conceived communication strategies, may be perceived in a negative manner. This is why close attention must be paid to the choice of the form and means of expressing the results. The manager or management team must realise that understanding the proposals is the first step towards ensuring their success. Current technologies (geographical information systems, design programmes, image processing, virtual representation systems, etc.) together with traditional resources (freehand drawing, photography, sketches, models, etc.) should be used in accordance with individual abilities and the features of the specific proposals. The resources must in all cases be used to promote the project and pursue its purposes and specific character.

D. Drafting the summary report on the proposals

The management team leader should plan the development of the three aforementioned aspects (objectives, description and strategies) during the initial phase of the project. The results of such planning must be set out during this

phase in a summary report on the proposals, succinctly describing, in respect of each proposal:

- the general aims of the proposal;
- the specific interest of the proposal vis-à-vis the project;
- the ideas to which it relates;
- how it fits in with the management project description;
- the characteristics of the proposal;
- the commitments taken on by the social, economic and institutional partners;
- the human and technical resources involved;
- the schedule for implementing the proposal;
- budget and financing.

All the proposals may be represented in a summary diagram or plan to provide an overall idea of the project content. The report should not be too long, although it should provide a proper overview answering all the basic questions likely to occur to the landscape promoters and operators. It merits all the necessary care and time as it is an instrument of communication which is to be widely read by the social operators and is capable of facilitating the progress of the project during the proposal implementation phase.

Phase 4 – Development and implementation

A. Drafting and implementation of executive instruments

The landscape management project is developed by means of a set of instruments facilitating the enforcement of the proposals and actions formulated during the previous phase. These instruments cover planning, project development, regulation, consultation and organisation.

a. Planning instruments

The proposals formulated under a landscape management project generally require organisation of the physical space by means of an operational, spatial or urban planning instrument.

The type of instrument required for setting out the proposals depends on the scale of the work to be performed, in conjunction with the type of plan and initiative, or the department formulating it.

The proposals set out in the landscape management project may, for instance, necessitate amending the general municipal plan, or drafting an internal reform plan, an urban restoration plan or a special urban development plan, which may be multifunctional or exclusively landscape-oriented. All these binding provisions can lay down guidelines and provide for landscape interventions in the existing urban environment, new developments, areas of economic activity, the outskirts of cities, infrastructures and amenities, the countryside, protected areas and river systems.

At the territorial level, the proposals in the landscape management project may be gleaned from regional plans, sectoral plans, master plans or any other spatial planning instrument drawn up in the specific area of intervention.

b. Project development instruments

Landscape architecture projects are further instruments developing the proposals and actions set out in a landscape management project which is being implemented in the territory by means of reconstruction, restoration or creation of new landscapes.

Landscape architecture projects define physical transformations of the territory, setting out the key ideas and main description of the management project and improving existing landscapes by means of their subsequent implementation.

c. Regulatory instruments

One possible means of developing the proposals and actions set out in a landscape management project is to use the machinery provided by the legal system.

Landscape regulations constitute a standard-setting instrument laying down detailed provisions for the local area on various aspects affecting the landscape (for example buildings, installations, utilities, activities, advertising, landscape improvement campaigns, economic support and incentives, etc.), with an eye to improving the quality of urban, rural or suburban landscapes.

Urban planning provisions in the planning instruments can also be used to incorporate some of the proposals more specifically related to buildings and regulations on their use and other activities.

d. Landscape consultation and mediation instruments

As we have seen throughout this section, the landscape management process involves social participation, striving to achieve territorial consensus on the landscape values and improving the quality of life for the local populations.

This report defines "landscape consultation" as a mode of social participation which aims, via a process of negotiation between territorial operators and the relevant government departments, to secure a consensus on the territorial model and the requisite landscape policies, or an agreement on specific strategies, goals, instruments, actions or measures to be implemented in order to improve the protection, planning and management of the landscape.

On the other hand, we have defined landscape mediation as the process of preventing conflicts and reconciling interests as undertaken by a manager or management team, under a specific landscape protection, planning or management policy. We also use this new term to refer to the mediation carried out by landscape managers or management teams among the various regional operators with a view to improving the quantity and quality of information received by the former. This process thus ensures consensus on the identification, characterisation and qualification of the landscape and the definition of the landscape quality values and goals, as well as

the determination of the strategies, proposed interventions, projects and actions to be developed under a given landscape management process.

One of the most widely used landscape consultation instruments is the *landscape charter*. This is a voluntary operational instrument for participation, consultation and mediation among public and private operators in a given territory, geared to improve landscapes and the quality of human life by setting out landscape quality goals, concluding agreements on action strategies and securing undertakings to implement the actions set out in a specific management programme. This instrument is applicable at the supra-municipal level and may comprise one or more landscape management projects, or else develop a specific management project for one well-defined area.

Another consultation and mediation instrument is the *landscape management covenant*. This agreement between public authorities and the operators who are involved in the management process sets out the commitments formulated under the project, with such aspects as the obligations and conditions for maintaining a given landscape, the implementation of practical measures for incorporating the landscape into a specific project, the formulation for access to certain types of aid or subsidies and territorial compensations for parties affected by a given landscape protection, planning or management measure.

One final useful instrument for landscape management is the *land protection contract*, which can cover all the written agreements involving the adoption of undertakings vis-à-vis the conservation and management of a specified plot of land binding on the landowner and a land protection agency. Such agreements can be concluded on the basis of negotiation and consultation as formalised in a contract detailing each legal option adopted (with or without transfer of ownership of the land). Such contracts can take the form of officially recorded instruments, entered in the land registry with a view to ensuring legal security and granting public access for third parties.

e. Organisational instruments

In order to carry out the activities scheduled and develop the description set out in the landscape management project, an ad hoc body may be set up in the form of an association, consortium or other administrative entity or agency, as provided for in the applicable legislation, and with due regard for landscape jurisdiction. This is apportioned among the various administrative levels, namely, the state, the autonomous communities, the regions, provinces, municipalities, etc.

The management project can also be developed by civil-law bodies (foundations, associations, land-owning agencies, etc.) or commercial agencies (limited companies, private companies, etc.), providing they are compatible with the individual country's legal system.

B. Implementing the proposals and activities

A landscape management project is an operational instrument and must therefore be designed with a view to its implementation: that is, it must not be a mere research project, academic exercise or strategic programme.

C. Consultation on resources and funding

The requisite resources for developing and implementing a landscape management project embrace both financial and human resources.

Specific resources can be included among the management project proposals to conduct activities by setting up landscape funds fuelled from public or private sources. The main facility is a public fund for the conservation of the landscape, which has been set up by a number of administrations in line with their specific landscape legislation. In some countries this fund is maintained by a minimum percentage of the budget for major works, infrastructures and public amenities, with a view to implementing proposals and activities linked to landscape policies.

On the other hand, the introduction of landscape aspects into sectoral policies (environment, tourism, agriculture, public works, culture, etc.), is an indirect way of ensuring that the resources earmarked for these sectors can help implement the proposals and actions laid down in landscape management projects.

It is also possible to initiate consultation and negotiation processes with an eye to signing funding agreements with the private sector (foundations, banks, business associations, economic promotion consortia, patronage associations and individual sponsors), thus establishing private funds for implementing the proposals and actions in the management project.

Lastly, we might mention such other incentives as technical assistance for individuals or enterprises dealing with drafting and implementing the executive instruments (plans, landscape projects, etc.), or enhancing landscapes by means of support for tourism policies, high-quality agricultural production and other indirect incentives.

The landscape manager must be kept informed, and inform the project promoter and the landscape operators, of the existence of the various sources of funding, incentives and economic resources, as well as possible tax deductions and subsidies for landscape policies and actions. He or she can even directly deal with applications for support or subsidies.

The landscape management agreements are the appropriate instruments for negotiating the funding and implementation of the commitments entered into by the social, economic and institutional partners.

D. Establishing an action programme

All landscape management projects must include programming for the short-, medium- and long-term development of the specific proposals and activities to be implemented.

It is important to set realistic deadlines. The different landscape operators should be involved in the development and implementation of the activities in a logical, chronological order to ensure the efficiency of the management process.

Phase 5 – Dissemination and follow-up

A. Developing communication and dissemination strategies

"Communication" in the landscape management processes means transmitting and exchanging important information on the landscape by the various social, economic and institutional partners. In a broader sense, we might also define it as the transmission of knowledge or cultural signifiers relating to the landscape.

All landscape management projects must comprise a communication and dissemination programme geared to publicising the goals, key ideas, strategies, proposals and actions, the project description and the methods of ensuring its formalisation, materialisation or execution.

Alongside the traditional media (press, radio, television, etc.), internet sites have provided new tools for developing effective dissemination programmes. Throughout the project phases, all news items of any kind relating to the management project should be compiled in order to build up the documentation for the follow-up to the project.

A communication strategy must be devised to cater for the diversity of social sectors potentially interested and adopting the information in accordance with the main features and interests of each sector: the whole general public, civic entities, the school population, etc. The manager or management team should approach educational centres in order to inform teachers and pupils about the local management projects, to promote *landscape education* by transmitting information and fostering positive attitudes to the landscape and landscape values.

The ultimate goal of the communication and dissemination phase is to create a social climate conducive to the development of the landscape management projects, and also to create a genuine *landscape culture* encouraging the appreciation of landscape values and improving personal and social attitudes to the landscape.

B. Imparting impetus to the process of implementing the proposals and actions

At this stage, the landscape management promoter (who originally initiated the whole process) exercising leadership and funding project development can propose the creation of a *landscape council,* namely a body representing the local operators, the landscape managers involved during the management process and other professionals specialising in landscape planning, protection and management. This body is mandated to motivate these operators to take part in the communication, dissemination, impetus, follow-up and evaluation phases for the landscape management project.

Given that the landscape council is a representative body involving the landscape operators in monitoring the project, it should be backed up by a *technical landscape office* consisting of a technical team of landscape managers and other professionals specialising in landscape planning, protection and management. This office is geared to implement, support and ensure continuity in the execution of the management project.

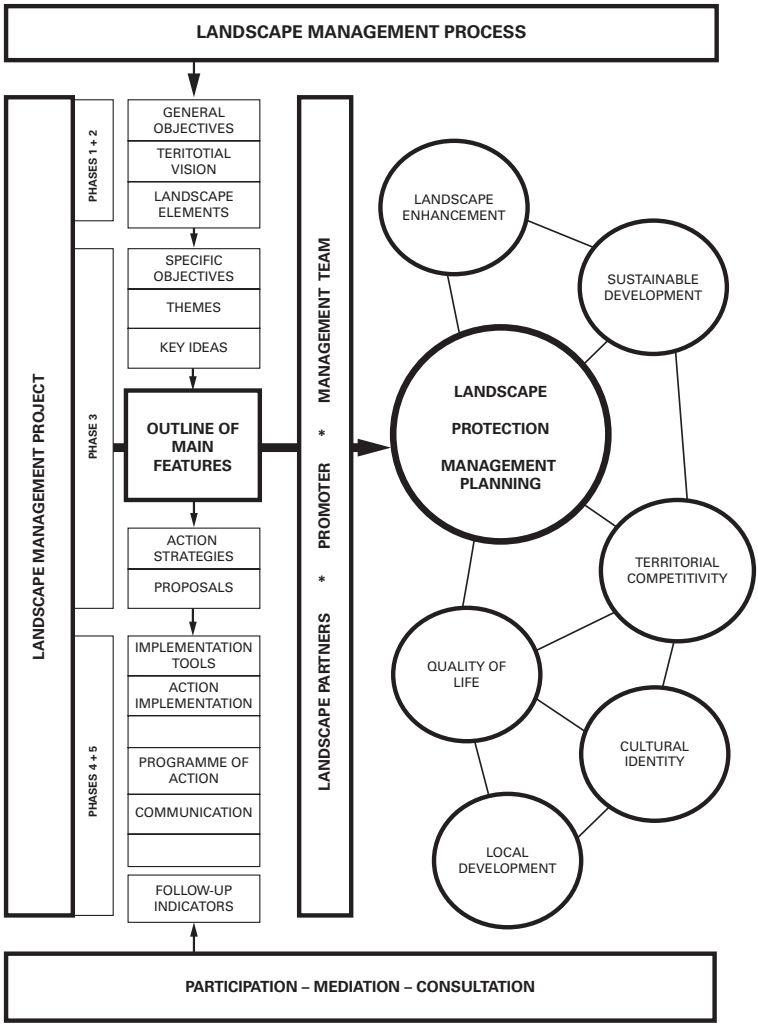
A landscape management *liaison officer* might also be called in at this point, to be responsible for disseminating all the proposals emerging from the management

process among the social, economic and institutional partners, and also among the population in general. The liaison officer co-operates with the landscape manager, the management team, the landscape council and the technical office in promoting and implementing the landscape management project proposals and actions.

C. Evaluation of the results of the management process

All management processes require continuous evaluation of their results. Where landscape management is concerned, evaluation of the development and implementation of the project and achievement of the objectives also necessitates a number of appropriate methods and instruments.

Figure 14. Landscape management as a process and the objectives of the European Landscape Convention



Source: Jaume Busquets and Albert Cortina

To this end, the technical landscape office might design a set of *landscape indicators* using all the quantitative and qualitative factors conducive to securing information on, and monitoring the development and progress of, the landscape which is the subject of the management project. It would be necessary to specify the degree of public satisfaction with the outcome of the proposals and actions implemented or await implementation and gauge the effectiveness of the public and private initiatives arising from the agreements reached under the various landscape consultation and mediation processes.

2. LANDSCAPE MANAGEMENT PROFESSIONALS

2.1. Converging disciplines and professions

The European Landscape Convention of the year 2000 states the need for interdisciplinary and interprofessional work in protecting, managing and planning the landscape. With specific reference to management, however, this need is even greater, since the pursuit of the corresponding goals and their results involve the ability to create synergies by means of interaction among all the operators involved in the landscape.

This is why the teams participating in landscape management projects include specialists from a variety of disciplines and professions, pursuing the same research and operational objectives from different viewpoints and the different outlooks provided by their specific modes of training, some of them being largely epistemological (landscape planners, geographers, architects, environmental scientists, engineers, etc.) and others being more recently involved in managing landscapes (sociologists, lawyers, economists, etc.).

We shall consider, although not exhaustively, a list of the professionals directly involved in landscape management teams, whether throughout the process or at specific points therein, or co-operating in specific types of projects, depending on their specific features:

- *landscape planners*: these specialists enjoy a long professional tradition and come from a variety of educational backgrounds. They work on designing, formalising, restoring and planning landscapes. Initially, therefore, their work has concentrated on urban gardens and parks, later expanding massively to all types of open and built-up areas;
- *landscape architects*: like landscape planners, albeit with an architectural training, their participation in landscape management projects is vital. The ability to formalise the projects or their development, design, restoration, urban planning, etc., are professional skills of strategic importance for most landscape management projects;
- *geographers*: the landscape is one of the founding themes of geography. Starting from regional, spatial and territorial analysis, geographers have broadened their scope to such aspects as analysing contemporary production of landscapes and regional planning and development. Their participation in the analysis and proposal phases provides strategic results for the design and definition of management projects;

- *environmental scientists, ecologists and biologists*: landscape ecology has provided a major contribution to understanding the functioning of landscapes and their structures as systems. Training for such professionals qualifies them for analysing the socio-ecological aspects of the landscape and also for integrating environmental sustainability criteria into the projects;
- *engineers*: these professionals can help establish criteria for facilitating the choice of locations, minimising landscape impacts and incorporating buildings and major infrastructures into the landscape. Drawing on their expert knowledge (of such important aspects as mobility and energy infrastructures, technical and environmental services, industrial installations, etc.), their contribution to specific projects can be decisive;
- *urban planners*: these professionals have various types of training behind them (architecture, engineering, law, environmental science, geography, economics, etc.), and work in the field of urban planning and management in towns and cities. Urban planners provide landscape management processes with criteria for defining land use, the location of activities and buildings in a manner compatible with landscape values, the aims of improving the landscape and landscape planning guidelines. The urban planning angle can provide the landscape management team with an overview of the means of planning the various uses and activities in urban and non-urban areas, as well as the regulations and parameters governing both urban and rural constructions;
- *lawyers*: their in-depth knowledge of the applicable legislation and the by-laws deriving from the urban planning and sectoral instruments provides the management teams with essential facilities for developing their projects, in other words the "legal cartography of the territory". Furthermore, lawyers help design and formulate the goals and proposals for the management projects and are empowered to conduct negotiation, social consultation and territorial mediation processes, and, within this conflict-preventing or conflict-settling function, play this role alongside other landscape management mediation professionals;
- *cultural heritage managers*: culture and cultural heritage have become an increasingly important variable in today's knowledge-based society, based on its capacity not only for changing the lives of individuals but also for generating major economic activities around it relating to leisure, tourism, training, etc. The contributions of professionals such as historians, archaeologists and anthropologists are well-suited to the heritage and cultural dimension of the landscape;
- *sociologists and political scientists*: the experience of these professionals in the fields of social and political sciences is particularly useful in the processes of identifying social partners, pinpointing the social networks which grow up in a specific area and ensuring interaction with the landscape operators by designing and implementing citizen participation procedures. These professionals also act as landscape management mediators and work alongside other professionals in concluding agreements via negotiation and social consultation;

- *tourist managers*: tourism, particularly cultural tourism, regards landscape as a leitmotif and a resource useful for the development of its economic activity. Tourist managers devote great attention to managing the natural and cultural heritage of specific areas. It is very important to involve these professionals in landscape management projects in order to generate or increase the landscape capital relating to leisure and tourist activities;
- *agricultural and forestry engineers*: incorporating such professionals into the landscape management processes is useful with a view both to formulating realistic proposals and actions for the landscape management project, and to subsequently drafting and implementing the various executive instruments (codes of good agricultural practices, technical forestry improvement plans, landscaping projects for parks and gardens, etc.), taking account of the requirements and opportunities vis-à-vis agricultural, forestry and horticultural production;
- *landscape educationalists:* the contribution of these professionals (teachers, educational scientists and other training specialists from the social science field) stems from their ability to implement criteria and define strategies in the landscape management processes to promote social awareness of citizenship, landscape education and the creation of positive attitudes to landscape education;
- *communication experts*: the training and experience of these professionals can be useful during the phase involving the dissemination of objectives, the key ideas and proposals making up the main description of the landscape management project. They can also be called upon to contribute at various points in the social participation process which proceeds alongside the management process;
- *economists*: experts in economics and business sciences can help define strategies to ensure that the management projects are viable from the economic and financial angles. Involving company executives, managers and directors in promoting this type of project necessitates using business terminology and various techniques for economically enhancing the material and non-material assets of the landscape, to whose management these professionals must undoubtedly contribute;
- *patronage and sponsorship experts*: some landscape management processes can benefit from bringing in such experts to obtain private funds from individuals or companies via their social corporate responsibility programmes. This can help design a funding programme to facilitate the development and implementation of the proposals and actions for the landscape management project;
- *psychologists*: most landscape management instruments and proposals comprise aspects linked to the perception of individuals and social groups vis-à-vis the landscape in which they live and conduct their day-to-day activities. This is why input from psychology and other medical sciences can help the landscape management team to use various techniques and procedures to assess the degree of physical or mental well-being that the proposals or activities to enhance and improve a specific landscape might provide for individuals;

- *other professionals*: artists, photographers, writers, poets, philosophers, musicians, film-makers, advertisers, etc. Drawing on their familiarity with the visual and sensory aspects and their ability to transmit feelings, contemporary views of landscapes and their artistic and spiritual values, such professionals can be an asset to a landscape management project at specific points in the procedure.

The specific make-up of the management team will require the promoter and the manager co-ordinating the project to achieve maximum cross-disciplinarity with the available economic resources. He or she must optimise the capacity for interaction between the approaches and outcomes of the various professional disciplines and skills, so that each specific vision is influenced or altered by all the others and the different experts rethink their approaches in the light of discussions with the other members of the landscape management team.

During the cross-disciplinary work, the expert or professional contributes, learns and, with hindsight, modifies his or her own contributions. The cross-disciplinary team adopts a systematic approach, which explains the spiralling progression of its working procedures (Folch 2003).

2.2. Professional skills in landscape management

In this chapter we have approached landscape management as a transverse, cross-disciplinary process. Its basic features are dynamism, social participation, rigour and creativity in the development of strategies and proposals. These qualities help define the goals, develop key ideas and create an appropriate main description to achieve the aims of a specific landscape management project.

When intervening in the landscape management processes, the different professionals, promoters, social, economic and institutional partners constantly interact, building up networks, creating consensus and deepening the culture of landscape enhancement.

We have also seen that the teams devising landscape management projects comprise specialists from different disciplines and professions, providing a variety of viewpoints depending on their specific training, and that they use a cross-disciplinary working method to analyse the elements of a specific landscape, diagnose its state and pinpoint the prevailing themes.

The formulation and implementation of a landscape management project, specifically geared to helping improve the quality of human life and local development, requires special abilities on the part of the professionals involved throughout the process.

The most important skills to be wielded by the landscape management professionals include:

- teamwork;
- communication skills;
- mediating skills;

- ability to synthesise;
- creativity;
- ability to make proposals.

The cross-disciplinary nature of the teamwork necessitates capacities for interaction (teamwork) with other professionals, who often have different views, methodologies and even terminologies.

Being a good communicator facilitates the transmission of ideas and proposals to both the project promoter and the partners involved in the different social participation phases.

Having mediating skills helps the manager prevent conflicts throughout the process and secure agreement between individuals or social groups which often reflect different concomitant interests, albeit in the same territory.

The ability to synthesise enables the professional to deal with the extensive information, documentation, data and criteria to be used in the various phases of the management process.

Developing creativity enables the landscape manager to go beyond the merely administrative function. Managing projects does not mean merely administering: it involves analysing, planning, leading, controlling and modifying the working teams, in a continuous manner for the whole duration of the project.

The landscape manager must be capable of motivating the management teams in order to articulate the different key ideas and formulate a management project description that can be visualised via the proper formulation of proposals.

CONCLUSIONS

The ultimate aim of landscape management is to formulate and implement a series of proposals and actions geared to enhancing and improving landscapes and increasing the well-being and quality of life of the individuals living in them, with an eye to promoting sustainable development based on a balanced, harmonious relationship between environmental, cultural, economic and social needs.

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Chapter 3
Landscape and education

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SUMMARY

This report[1] consists of an introduction, three parts and two appendices containing templates, exercises and photographs, for both primary and secondary schools.

The introduction considers how society views landscape today, the uncontrolled transformations it is undergoing and the gradual deterioration in the appearance of many places, the excessive use of resources and the loss of landscape quality. Consequently, society needs to adopt more responsible behaviour vis-à-vis the environment, and take landscape fully into account in spatial planning and all sectoral policies.

The origins of this growing awareness can, without doubt, be found in the European Landscape Convention and in the central importance of its innovative proposals.

The introduction accordingly summarises the convention's principles and objectives, and the measures to be adopted to raise public awareness of the features and assets of the landscape and actively involve the population in the choices made which have an impact on their surroundings. This is why it is essential to teach pupils to understand the landscape from primary school age onwards and, in this way, prepare these future citizens for the acquisition of knowledge of the problems relating to the landscape and its sustainable development.

Part one of the report looks in greater detail at the concept of landscape and the objectives in the specific measures set out in the convention with regard to raising awareness. It also looks at the provision of appropriate education and training, to ensure that people become aware of the features, assets and identity of the landscape, beginning with school education. This part analyses the principal concepts and methods to be introduced at primary and secondary schools, and offers some initial thoughts on the topics to be taught right to the end of compulsory secondary education.

1. This report has been produced in the framework of the Council of Europe activities for the implementation of the European Landscape Convention with the support of the Federal Office of the Environment of Switzerland and the Ministry of Tourism and Environment of Andorra.

For primary school children, the emphasis is placed on having a visual knowledge of landscape and carefully observing the landscape familiar to them, in order subsequently to introduce them to a more complete understanding of landscape. Reference is made to the cognitive approaches to be developed by exploring and studying images of a variety of landscapes and meeting various players involved in landscape-related activities and transformations.

It then highlights the importance of focusing at secondary school level on the interaction between natural and human events, in order to identify all the processes that give the landscape its distinctive character as a complex and connected whole and which are essential in all conception, planning and management activities.

It also underlines the importance of drawing secondary school pupils' attention to the principal perceptions and conceptions of landscape in various historical periods, as this will enable them to discover the level of interest in landscape shown by society, and gradually learn the concepts necessary to understand the cultural and scientific achievements of the European Landscape Convention.

It identifies the educational objectives to be achieved and the approaches to be followed at both levels in order to nurture full and co-ordinated knowledge of landscape. It analyses the methods necessary for interpreting the landscape through its visual significance and for understanding, in a scientific way, the situation of the landscape through the natural and cultural elements of which it is comprised, the relationships that exist (spontaneous or brought about by human activities) and the continuous developments visible in historical landscapes.

Part two, which is devoted to primary school teaching, discusses children's learning abilities, their initial cognitive experiences and the educational approaches to be introduced in the first years through active participation in knowledge acquisition, research, landscape discovery, enhancing observation, description and representational skills, by drawing what they have seen. It describes the initial analytical knowledge to be acquired, the visits to be made to landscapes new to pupils, written and visual landscape material and the data analysis sheets (see Appendix 1) to be used to foster essential cognitive development.

In part three, on secondary school teaching, examples and methodological sheets are employed to broaden the knowledge necessary for understanding and analysing the landscape – knowledge essential in the operational phases and landscape enhancement, transformation and management strategies. It refers to the subject areas that contribute to a knowledge of the landscape and materials, techniques and documents useful for teaching purposes. Teaching approaches are suggested, such as visits to different landscapes, and holding meetings with professionals, experts or other people involved in landscape-related matters, in order to obtain deeper insight into emerging issues. The analysis and interpretation worksheets on certain landscapes make it possible to go into greater detail.

The two documents in the appendices – one for primary schools and the other for secondary schools – contain templates, tables and illustrations for devising exercises, analyses and practical activities, geared to the pupils' age and class, which will help broaden their understanding of landscape.

INTRODUCTION

In today's society, the subject of landscape arouses considerable interest but it also creates needs and expectations of various kinds owing to the socially, scientifically and culturally complex issues associated with it. This is especially so due to the deep crisis apparent in the relationship between recent or ongoing human activity, the natural environment and existing landscapes.

The demands of contemporary society concern the need for a general improvement in the quality of life, a more balanced relationship with the natural environment and the integration of transformations into the landscape, according to the principles of active and innovative protection and conservation, and the enhancement of landscape identities and resources.

The expectations include the restoration and rehabilitation of degraded landscapes, abandoned quarries and disused industrial areas, an increase in recreational green spaces in urban areas, restoration of the stability of ecosystems and the enhancement and recovery of the cultural identities of historic sites.

Society is becoming increasingly aware that the landscape is not just a simple panorama but the result of the interweaving of nature and civilisation down the ages, including the territorial dimension, the relationship between structures and natural elements and man-made changes.

In order to address these issues properly, it is essential both to adopt appropriate new administrative instruments and to identify and further develop suitable approaches to projects capable of interpreting and taking account of the complexity, specific nature and variety of landscapes. This involves the use of methods capable of ensuring that the landscape is taken into account in land-use planning policies, in fact in all policies – urban, environmental, agricultural and industrial – that can have a direct or indirect impact on the landscape.

This awareness on the part of society concerning all aspects of land transformations, the upgrading of all landscapes and the need to adopt responsible forms of behaviour in order to contribute to their sustainable and balanced development is based on the principles and objectives of the European Landscape Convention.

As a result of the cultural and political guidelines contained in the convention, which are already explicit in the definition of landscape and the innovative cultural, ecological, environmental and social proposals it puts forward, European countries have placed a new focus on landscape. The guidelines and proposals have aroused particular interest not only among administrators, professionals and specialists in this field but also society as a whole, at a time when abilities to plan and change land use and reclassify and create new landscapes are no doubt more highly developed than in previous periods of human history.

The European Landscape Convention has returned to the landscape its strategic importance by encouraging the contracting states to ensure the uniformity of the rules and regulations governing the measures taken and changes to the landscape, according to models consistent with sustainable development. It underlines the importance of the attention that must be devoted to landscapes and the values they

embody, not only in parks, protected areas or areas of outstanding significance, but also in all areas and in land-use planning policies in general.

The convention clearly states that, in order to achieve these objectives, it is necessary to teach people to understand the landscape and its constituent and characteristic elements, and to promote an understanding of its value and continuing evolution. It is vital that people become more aware of measures aimed at improving their living environment and thus become involved in, and made more responsible for, the sustainable development of the landscape. Therefore it is necessary to promote, from early school years onwards, the appropriate education to ensure that individuals are taught to perceive the features, identities and values of the landscape, beginning with where they live.

Thanks to the convention, the landscape has become not only an important source of reflection and action for professionals and governments but also a new and important focus of attention for future citizens, enabling them to gain a better understanding of their environment and, above all, devote new attention to the landscape. This transforms it into an active perception of landscape as a subject of knowledge. The convention places on signatory states an educational objective that should be pursued at all levels of schooling – from primary school to university – in order to educate, at European level, a population that is both aware of landscape-related issues and is involved in its protection, management and sustainable development.

Principles and objectives of the European Landscape Convention

The European Landscape Convention, adopted in Florence on 20 October 2000 under the auspices of the Council of Europe, is an international treaty devoted entirely to the protection, management and planning of all dimensions of European landscapes.

In Article 1, it defines landscape as "an area, as perceived by people, whose character is the result of the action and interaction of natural and/or human factors" and stresses that landscape is also an asset, a resource inherited from the past, that must be handed down to future generations. It emphasises, from the preamble onwards, the desire to promote the measures necessary to contribute to the sustainable development of the landscape in all its dimensions "based on a balanced and harmonious relationship between social needs, economic activity and the environment". This is an important objective that makes it necessary to seek solutions capable of addressing the large number of complex problems facing European landscapes, which are now undergoing constant and rapid change under the influence of the many different human activities and measures – industrial, agricultural, urban planning, infrastructure, tourism – impacting on the environmental balances, identities and visual qualities of European landscapes.

Decision makers must introduce policies capable of protecting, managing and planning all landscapes, by maintaining their cultural identity and preserving the shared assets of European countries, for present and future generations. The convention relates to all landscapes, both those considered outstanding and those that form part of everyday life or are degraded, since they can all contribute to the well-being of the population.

This important international instrument, ratified by a large number of Council of Europe member states, clearly indicates (in the preamble and four chapters divided into eleven articles and seven final clauses) the general principles, objectives and strategies required so that each state, by adopting the relevant protection, management and planning policies, and by establishing procedures for the participation of the general public, can contribute to sustainable development based on a balance between the environment, social needs and economic activity in all European territories and in the various national, regional and local situations. It also recommends co-operation between states, based on a pooling of experience and information.

General provisions, scope, specific measures

In order to achieve its objectives the European Landscape Convention attaches considerable importance to the relationship between the landscape and human beings: human beings have always contributed, down the ages and in different ways, to shaping, transforming and managing the landscapes of today. The landscapes of everyday life contribute to individual and collective well-being, which meets society's needs and aspirations and enables social groups to recognise those aspirations, pursue their activities and access goods and services.

Landscape is "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", a "key element of individual and social well-being".

The convention places on signatory states a requirement to raise the awareness of civil society to the value of landscapes, their role and changes to them. By ascribing a value to the active role of the public in the context of landscape changes, it emphasises the importance of active participation, which is not a choice but a duty that imposes tasks on everyone, and of effective consultation in order to take account of individuals' aspirations and demands.

The need to establish procedures which involve people in a participatory approach is one of the major innovations introduced by the convention. The aim is to cause the public to identify the values of the landscape and remain alert, in order to prevent ill-considered changes. The participation focuses on the "population concerned", that is, those who recognise in the landscape their living environment, their aspirations and the landscape values to be protected.

Parallel to this need for participation, the convention stresses the need to develop the approaches and procedures necessary for public authorities and experts to ensure that a participatory process is officially available to the public. In order for these outcomes to be obtained, the convention introduces specific measures to be established by countries as part of a large-scale effort to open up landscape-related topics and issues to democratic discussion, in order to raise awareness of the value of the places where people's daily lives are played out, and to be more responsible for the protection and sustainable development of these places. If they are asked to take part in decisions on their living environment, they must be properly acquainted with the values of these landscapes, the changes planned and the positive or negative consequences that might result.

Numerous activities can be considered in order to arouse interest in the landscape of different groups of young people and adults with regard to quality objectives; contributing to harmonious interaction between human beings and nature; and improving the quality of life of society as a whole. However, above all it is necessary to foster an awareness of the landscape question at all levels of education and training.

Awareness-raising and landscape education and training must therefore, in combination, become the measures required to contribute to implementing the convention. Awareness-raising is extremely important and involves information covering numerous activities, but it is not the same as providing conclusive reflections on the identification and development of landscape qualities, or on methods that enable the convention to be understood and implemented.

The convention clearly states that this innovative democratisation of the landscape debate involves the need for institutions to promote "multidisciplinary training programmes in landscape policy, protection, management and planning, [in] school and university courses which, in the relevant subject areas, address the values we attach to landscapes and the issues raised by their protection, management and planning".

Awareness of landscape-related issues and problems must, therefore, be raised via the teaching of young people at school, and be tailored to their age.

The approach to landscape issues must begin at the primary school level by enabling pupils to learn the initial concepts relating to the world around them, and discover the natural elements and human factors that form the landscape.

In secondary school classes, numerous subject areas can, in combination, help illustrate the complexity of the landscape. Landscape education is not in fact a specific discipline but involves a range of subjects concerning and interlinking the diversity and multiplicity of elements of which the landscape consists.

In addition, it is very difficult to establish uniform teaching rules, owing to landscape diversity, geographical situations and natural and cultural features, as well as the many different ways in which schools and universities are organised in the various European states. However, it is possible to suggest educational methods and processes that can be easily transposed to different countries in order to harmonise teaching guidelines. It is also possible to encourage co-operation on curricula between different European schools, and to foster student mobility at higher education institutions. This will be discussed below.

1. APPROACHES TO LANDSCAPE EDUCATION IN SCHOOLS

1.1. Landscape education and teaching

In drawing up this report on landscape education, especially on the subject of school and university courses (which, in the relevant subject areas, address the values attaching to landscapes and the issues raised by their protection, management and planning) it was necessary to take account of two important – indeed fundamental – principles laid down by the European Landscape Convention concerning considerations and observations regarding landscape education: "Landscape means an area,

as perceived by people, whose character is the result of the action and interaction of natural and/or human factors", so it is necessary to take account of the "aspirations of the public with regard to the landscape features of their surroundings".

These are "general provisions" that highlight the importance of the link between populations and the landscape, and emphasise the need for a participatory process with regard to the protection of the qualities and features of their surroundings. This is the basis of a new landscape culture that sets itself the objective of ensuring that people understand the relationship between the elements, both natural and cultural, of the surrounding landscape of their daily lives and that they appreciate the same landscape quality objectives to be achieved with regard to human activities. This enables them to take part in "sustainable development based on a balanced and harmonious relationship between social needs, economic activity and the environment".

People must become aware that the landscape is part of their daily environment and culture and that, while human interaction with the physical aspects of an area has, down the centuries, contributed to creating and transforming landscapes, individuals now have the responsibility and the right/duty to play an active role in the protection, management and sustainable development of the landscape. The convention states that the landscape is "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" and "is a key element of individual and social well-being".

An important objective to be achieved is emphasised in the "specific measures" to be implemented by each party "according to its own division of powers" in order to introduce the landscape policies laid down by the Convention. In its schools and, subsequently, its universities, a country must promote multidisciplinary curricula to enable pupils to familiarise themselves with, and understand, "the values attaching to landscapes and the issues raised by their protection, management and planning". This will enable them to contribute to providing all individuals with education and training that ultimately gives them a full and comprehensive understanding of the landscape through a knowledge of its natural and cultural features, its identity and resources and enables them to participate in the search for better ways of managing the landscape, to ensure its sustainable development.

This important text, now the focus of an international debate on theoretical and practical landscape issues, is a very useful instrument, especially for educational activities in schools, as it makes it possible to significantly raise awareness of those issues in society, and helps individuals of all ages improve their knowledge of the landscape in which they live.

In order to ensure the implementation of the European Landscape Convention, the Council of Europe wanted schools to provide the teaching necessary for their pupils to understand the landscape and develop their abilities to interpret its features and appreciate its values and transformation processes. The aim is to make children and young people aware of the value of the places in which they live, not only encouraging them to be more responsible regarding their future participation in the management of their landscape but also to develop their interest in other places and cultures.

Landscape education in the case of children and young people is therefore a key instrument that will turn them into citizens capable of participating responsibly in decision making and being involved in choices relating to future changes to the landscape – an instrument that should be carefully considered with regard to building the fundamental knowledge relevant for the entire population, as far as their own landscape is concerned.

1.2. Approaches to landscape education: educational objectives in the classroom

The aim of this section is to introduce and discuss the subjects to be developed in the classroom, the important concepts that will need to be incorporated at different teaching levels with regard to landscape education, and ways of getting to know and understand the landscape to be introduced and developed at different primary and secondary school levels.

The key concepts will accordingly be analysed with respect to the subject of the study (the landscape), the objectives to be achieved and the methods to be applied to obtain a progressively clearer in-depth knowledge of the values and specific features of landscapes, their structures, the elements and processes that characterise them and the ways in which they interact. It is therefore necessary to teach and apply, from the first years of schooling onwards, certain basic concepts that are useful for understanding the landscape, which is a complex unit consisting of elements of natural origin and others introduced by human activity and characterised by reciprocal structural and functional influences.

An attempt will be made to discuss in the first instance the following points:

- To what does the convention refer when it uses the word "landscape"?
- What does the convention seek to achieve – through the wide range of geographical features, landscape identities, languages and cultures of the various Council of Europe member states – by promoting the teaching of landscape at various school levels, especially – in this case – primary and secondary education?
- How can the methods of teaching landscape be harmonised, given the diversity of countries and geographical, cultural, political and economic situations that have contributed to their development, when the aim is to enable people to pursue common goals concerning the protection, management and sustainable development of landscapes?

The second subject of this section are the questions and methods to be employed in order to contribute, from primary school upwards, to educating pupils in order that, through careful observation, they can recognise the elements and processes that characterise landscapes, beginning with their experiences in daily activities and promoting, from childhood onwards, their curiosity and cognitive autonomy with respect to the landscape around them. This is also about the educational approach to be followed to identify:

- ways of developing powers of observation and criticism in secondary school pupils with regard to landscapes which they have already become familiar

with, and analysed during previous school years, teaching them to describe and analyse them using the appropriate methods and graphically record them with the aid of a set of suitably scaled maps;

- the methods necessary to arouse the pupils' interest in the landscape around them by developing their interest in a cultural heritage to be preserved and enhanced, with the aim of achieving sustainable development;
- the educational process necessary to contribute to pupils' understanding of the natural and man-made features of landscapes, by gradually developing over time a knowledge of the basic requirements for implementing the principles and objectives of the convention;
- the disciplines that can and should be involved in continuous co-operation at the different school levels in order to gain a deeper knowledge of the landscape.

According to the European Landscape Convention, "Landscape means an area, as perceived by people, the character of which is the result of the action and interaction of natural and/or human factors".

Our life on earth is in daily contact with the landscape, which appears before our eyes as an image consisting of natural and man-made elements that are interlinked in different ways (hills, rivers, lakes, woods, trees, houses, cultivated fields, roads, canals, villages, towns, factories, etc.) – an image that determines an individual's first cognitive-subjective experience of the landscape and arouses in each of us aesthetic emotions and feelings of pleasure (or rejection).

However, the landscape is not only the image we see using our sense of sight, and the relationship between the various senses, because it is real, like the numerous elements and objects of which it consists: each natural element is bound up with other elements according to natural laws and processes (terrain, climate, types of soil, exposure, water resources, vegetation, etc.) and the uses of natural resources available and measures introduced into the environment by human beings down the centuries, in order to meet their needs.

All European countries possess infinite landscape variations, which are a manifestation of the diversity of cultures, forms of legal and social organisation and people's ability to adapt and enhance the environment. They feature a wide variety of outstanding landscapes for their beauty, their qualities, their identities, their natural and historical values and the many different ways in which the land is used and transformed. Each of these landscapes reflects customs and a quality of life manifested in the organisation of towns and villages and in the principal agricultural, industrial and tourist activities carried on throughout the country. They are complex units that are always evolving according to natural events or human intervention. For a hundred years now, transformations have succeeded one another with tremendous speed and with a huge impact compared with the past, sometimes causing profound changes to cultural identities and environmental balances.

The convention attaches great importance to the relationship between the landscape and human beings. Indeed, everyday landscapes can, as a result of their aesthetic quality and environmental balance, contribute to individual and collective

well-being and meet the inhabitants' needs and aspirations. However, there are also places where degradation, loss of biological quality and loss of landscape identity caused by the poor quality of human interventions in living spaces have helped give rise to negative phenomena: abandoned land, buildings in ruins, uncontrolled waste disposal, slope erosion, and so on.

In order to resolve the major problems facing contemporary European society, appropriate action needs to be taken to ensure the protection of the natural and cultural assets of landscapes, in order to contribute to the rehabilitation of degraded places and, at the same time, meet the population's need for well-being from a sustainable development perspective "based on a balanced and harmonious relationship between social needs, economic activity and the environment".

The convention contains a new and important message of great common interest: the benefit to society as a whole of the beauty, value and identity of our landscapes by arousing people's interest and a sense of responsibility. This outcome must be obtained by beginning as early as primary and secondary school level to combat indifference towards beauty or ugliness, and by re-embarking on a virtuous path comprising knowledge, research, protection, enhancement and conscious participation in the development of a landscape that is sustainable with regard to its natural balances and cultural qualities.

1.3. Primary and secondary education

The following observations are intended for European countries to which the convention is addressed and concern in particular the objectives to be achieved in landscape classes at European primary and secondary schools.

It is necessary not only to define the focus of the subject being dealt with – that is, landscape education at primary and secondary school – but also to specify the objectives and results it wishes to achieve.

Starting from the premise that the landscape is an important common asset and a cultural, ecological, environmental and social resource, it is necessary to make the population more aware of the value of the landscapes they know and experience, and to show greater interest in the activities that transform them.

The initial dissemination of knowledge about landscapes logically begins at the start of compulsory education and is gradually developed in greater depth in a co-ordinated way, geared to the pupils concerned, during successive classes on the natural and man-made features of landscapes and their interrelationships.

However, the main theme that should guide teaching in order to develop the best strategies and methods to achieve the goals and objectives set out in the convention must be clearly present from the very first years at primary school.

With regard to the most suitable concepts, methods and techniques to foster appropriate and constructive approaches to landscape-related learning and knowledge, thus contributing to the implementation of the convention, reference should be made to the most common compulsory age-based stages of education in Europe.

It is clear that European countries differ slightly from one another, both with regard to the duration of a stage of schooling and the age at which pupils begin compulsory education. The reference baseline, however, should take account in particular of abilities and possible learning methods.

The first step is to determine the duration of primary and secondary education (also referred to as compulsory schooling) and the ages of the children who attend these two levels or stages of education.

Let us therefore assume that the duration of primary school is five years and that teaching during this first level of schooling is generally for children aged 6 to 11. Nursery schools, which are clearly very important for a child's development, are not taken into consideration as they belong to the pre-school stage, which is not usually compulsory.

It is then assumed that the duration of the lower level of secondary school, which is the logical continuation of primary school, lasts three or four years (that is, for children between 12 and 15).

The upper level of secondary school is normally not part of compulsory schooling, but we will make a number of helpful observations at the end of this report.

1.4. Past concepts and thinking on the subject of landscape

It is necessary to understand the importance of the role played by the European Landscape Convention in defining the concept of landscape and the principles and objectives that must not only help ensure its protection, management and sustainable development but also raise the awareness of authorities, professionals and the public with regard to different landscapes. Thus it may be helpful to go back briefly and give an overview of the various concepts, interpretations and theories that have characterised people's knowledge and understanding of those landscapes in the last few centuries.

For a long time, the landscape was identified as the "visible aspect of an area", like an image perceived using the power of sight or belonging to what the geographer Eugenio Turri defined as our "world of perception" – an image often imbued with personal emotion and produced as a result of our own sensitivity and culture, and based on a deep affinity with the places concerned and the identification of their symbols and values. The term "landscapes" was used for spaces that could be taken in visually, images reflecting the interests, tastes, sensitivities and appreciation of societies in different periods, and in cultures with different histories. These images have been handed down through paintings, mosaics and literary descriptions, as well as through activities carried out in the areas concerned.

Down the centuries, poets and painters have, through their works, expressed the feelings and subjective reactions that the landscapes in question aroused in them as artists. The term landscape was used for what geographers, historians and naturalists described and documented through their studies, the product of the specific environmental features and physical diversity of the places observed and analysed.

Landscapes have long been depicted in painting and literature by many artists and authors. They have conveyed in their works what they observed in the areas around them, reproducing the images seen through a sensitive and personal interpretation.

The landscape was present in the background of Renaissance paintings, conforming with the aesthetics of art at that time. It was reproduced in garden art in accordance with the standards of regularity and symmetry applied even to vegetation.

Still in the Renaissance, Montaigne also described aspects of the countries he visited on his travels by exploring the lives and work of people in cultivated fields and terraced farming, just as was done in art and architecture.

From the beginning of the 17th century, European aristocrats on the Grand Tour described in their travel diaries the landscapes of the regions visited, and in many cases what remained of the ruins of Ancient Rome, with idealised picturesque or Romantic overtones. In the 18th century, painters such as Poussin and Lorrain adopted a style characterised by a mythical and bucolic atmosphere filled with objects, architectural structures or characters from mythology.

Up to the end of the 19th century, the landscape was interpreted, portrayed and analysed as the result not only of what had been seen but with the perceived images transformed by the aesthetic sentiments of the day, such as admiration, regret or amazement, with contrasting forms, light and shade through wild, picturesque or sublime interpretations.

Numerous geographers, most of them German and French, who devoted their efforts to the discovery of countries at that time unexplored, made the landscape the focus of their work, carrying out important research by gathering data on places visited, landscapes and the peoples inhabiting them. Between them, their descriptions linked the forms and features of the area concerned, as well as differences in climate, morphology, land use and social customs. They converted the aesthetic concepts of landscape, literature and painting into an initial method of scientific investigation that highlighted the features of the environment and the landscape, by analysing them through the links existing between the physical conditions and how the different populations inhabited the territory and exploited its resources.

In the interpretations subsequently made in the early 20th century, the focus on the landscape was extended to include the human presence, inhabited sites and land use, bound up with different territorial situations, but without disregarding the visual and aesthetic aspects and the interpretation of the symbols characterising the different places or the significance and values of the different forms of the territory, and the manifestations of the human presence.

During the 20th century, the term "landscape" entered the language of many disciplines, such as geography, geology, botany, agronomy and forestry, archaeology, history, architecture and urban planning, according to a precise scientific and methodological framework, in the light of the content and significance attributed to it by the different subject areas.

Of note in this context are the studies published in 1961 by the agronomist Emilio Sereni, who referred to an overall framework of conditions and natural agents,

techniques, demographics and historical events that "are expressed in the evolution of the forms of agrarian landscape" (Sereni 1961), the major contribution of the geographer Turri, who saw in the landscape the "mutual interactions of human activities and the natural environment" (Turri 1998:24), and the reflections of the philosopher Rosario Assunto, who replaced Benedetto Croce's concept of "landscape as a painting" by the broader and more extensive concept "landscape, a place steeped in history" (Assunto 1994).

In the 1970s, in the wake of the ecological movement, scientific thinkers began to analyse ways of renewing the harmony of the living and non-living world in a unifying and global vision and looked more closely at methods of interpreting the complexity of the landscape. This was considered to be a phenomenological domain where the main protagonists are human beings, who trigger a wide variety of interlinked processes.

Despite the valuable contributions made by the many works published and the research carried out, the framework for defining and interpreting landscape was still fairly disparate and sector-based at the end of the last century.

Towards the mid-1970s, the English landscape architect Sir Geoffrey Jellicoe stressed in his book, *The Landscape of Man,* that "it is only in the present century that the collective landscape has emerged as a social necessity. We are promoting a landscape art on a scale never conceived of in history" (Jellicoe and Jellicoe 1975).

Kevin Lynch, in his renowned book, *The Image of the City*, focused on the problem of the "perception" of the urban landscape as a social fact and recognised among the principal "values" of the landscape what he termed "legibility", identity and the ability to foster a sense of orientation (Lynch 1964).

The urban planner and ecologist Ian McHarg defined landscape in his book, *Design with Nature,* as a collective asset and a spatial entity in constant evolution resulting from the unceasing combination of an ecological and historical determinism. He compared it to a large mirror reflecting natural situations and man-made transformations, as well as their historical sedimentation (McHarg 1995).[2]

These observations show that the landscape is a subject that has always aroused interest and curiosity but the absence of a clear interpretation of the term "landscape", and of well-identified cultural principles regarding its complexity and development, has resulted in different epistemological routes and given rise to different methods of analysis, knowledge-gathering and evaluation at the level of aesthetics, through perception.

The reason for the considerable interest aroused by the European Landscape Convention is the recognition, as we have seen above, of the landscape as a resource and community asset. That recognition is extremely important not only for the definition of landscape and the values attributed to it – the landscape is a "community asset, an essential component of people's surroundings" – but also for extending the focus

2. McHarg was a landscape architect highly regarded for his study of land-use planning based on a report on natural systems. He encouraged the application of a methodology founded on ecological considerations, by using analysis of soil, climate, hydrology, etc.

on landscape to "the entire territory … natural, rural, urban and peri-urban areas. It includes land, inland water and marine areas. It concerns landscapes that might be considered outstanding as well as everyday or degraded landscapes". One of the particular reasons for this approach is the widespread observation of many serious instances of uncontrolled urban planning, rural abandonment, pollution of natural resources, damage caused by tourism to coastal areas, to hills and mountains and the loss of historical, economic and ecological assets that were bound up with the landscape and represented significant evidence of human culture and civilisation. There are many urban, peri-urban and agricultural landscapes that show the adverse effects of standardisation, such as building types, the use of materials, the abandonment of age-old cultural traditions and rural identities, and the use made of vegetation.

By noting that all landscapes provide evidence of their natural, cultural, economic and social value and can exert influence, both positive and negative, on the inhabitants' quality of life, the convention has stipulated that all landscapes must be protected irrespective of the qualities attributed to them and requires countries that have ratified it to transpose its provisions in order to guarantee (according to their respective powers) the protection of these values and to set themselves the goal of achieving the "landscape quality objective" to bring about sustainable development.

The convention emphasises, for example, that any operation carried out in the territory must meet development requirements and the environmental needs of present and future generations in equal measure. In order to achieve these outcomes, it highlights the need for people to play an active role in seeking common and shared solutions to the major natural and cultural problems facing landscape and it stresses the need for the appropriate "awareness-raising" of society to enable it to participate consciously in achieving the sustainable development objectives.

In order to obtain the best results from active and conscious participation, it is necessary not only to conduct awareness-raising campaigns but also to promote educational activities that can form the very basis of that participation.

If this important democratisation of landscape is to come about by appropriate ways of raising public awareness, then the objectives of the European Landscape Convention must be pursued through "school and university courses which, in the relevant subject areas, address the values attaching to landscapes and the issues raised by their protection, management and planning". Specific study methods have to be established and developed at all levels and at different stages, from the early school years onwards, in order to ensure that, at European level, people are aware of landscape issues and that all future citizens are aware of the problems faced by their living environment.

1.5. Educational aspects

The aim of the convention is "to increase awareness among civil society, private organisations and public authorities of the value of landscapes, their role and changes to them … [through] school and university courses which, in the relevant subject areas, address the values attaching to landscapes". This awareness must be fostered by educating both the population in general and, in particular, pupils of all

ages at several teaching levels. However, it is from the very first school years onwards that education can promote a better approach to a study of landscape through the acquisition of initial insights into the world around us. Education appropriate to different age groups can help raise awareness of the features and values of a landscape.

The educational activities of primary school children are the starting point for organising landscape education and identifying and describing natural features and human factors.

Approaches to the discussion of landscape issues will inevitably vary from one European country to another, owing to geographical, historical, cultural and political differences, but issues affecting many areas, including the landscape, are common to all and therefore are ideally suited to an interdisciplinary approach.

Landscape education, in both primary and secondary schools, cannot constitute a specific discipline in itself but must be an education and learning process aimed at developing in pupils a concern for, and interest in, a new way of becoming familiar with and understanding a landscape, beginning with the one they know and experience. This is in order to reach pupils using their memory, main interests and everyday habits and enabling them gradually to discover a new way of perceiving the things around them and to analyse their role and significance.

Present-day education must be dynamic and innovative, interdisciplinary and holistic. It must enable new experiences to be gained through visual, verbal and graphical methods adapted to pupils of different ages, and it must help develop initial abilities to evaluate landscapes in relation to the practical issues of protection, management and planning.

1.6. Ways of getting to know and understanding the landscape

A knowledge of a landscape can be acquired both subjectively and objectively – two useful methods for understanding the levels at which life is organised in a given area. It is acquired subjectively by sight. Each landscape, panorama and group of visible elements around us is perceived by individuals and the community in general subjectively, through their different senses, but mainly their eyes, in perceptible shapes and sequences. Sight played a key role in the landscape-related culture of the past. It made it possible to take in the images of nature and the elements of the environment that were part of a perceptive relationship with individuals and the community in general. It enabled the most suitable sites to be identified for farms, villages, paths, ramparts and castles, lookout towers, monasteries, villas with gardens, and so on, to be constructed.

The ability to see, which most individuals possess, is also associated with aesthetic appreciations, which are also subjective. It gives rise to opinions or value judgments on the landscape, which is seen as beautiful, ugly, pleasant or unpleasant.

What people perceive through their eyes may be the subject of a process of developing images seen according to each individual's culture, memory and power of perception. It is a process that has led individuals to interpret the physical environment according to its values and potentialities and to transform the perceived sensory stimulations into the behaviour to be adopted vis-à-vis the surrounding landscape.

However, when it comes to ensuring the protection, management, planning and sustainable development of the landscape, its complexity, diversity and homogeneity must be analysed more closely from the scientific and objective point of view. It is necessary to identify and analyse the diverse constituent elements of landscapes, which vary from one another, to acquire the knowledge that enables the true nature of the landscape to be understood, and to refer to the analytical methods employed by different subject areas that help one gain that understanding. Reference must be made, for example, to the interpretation of geomorphological structures in order to understand the structural features of hilly or mountainous landscapes, valleys or coasts and their potential or vulnerability when changes are made. Finally, hydrological phenomena, biological elements and vegetation (forests, woods, meadows, etc.) and man-made elements have to be analysed in order to establish, through an interdisciplinary approach, a holistic view of the main functional and structural relationships of the landscape.

Specific study methods are employed to analyse the genetic codes of the landscape and the processes that bring about changes, and to continuously link its structure and its geomorphological, pedological, hydrological and climatic features with the colonisation of the soil by plants, and the many different changes and alterations made in the course of time as a result of human action.

By studying the landscape, it is possible to understand the evolutionary processes that have taken place in the course of time following spontaneous changes, earthquakes, floods, landslides, and so on.

In order to obtain an objective knowledge of the landscape, there is consequently a need for several interlinked disciplines in order to identify the significant elements of a varied and complex entity consisting of a natural and a human part. At secondary school level, it is necessary, broadly speaking, to access interpretive material:

- a physical analysis of the inert-abiotic component of the landscape, in order to establish, for example, its origin, structure, geological conformation, height, the slope and dynamic nature of terrain, the origin and conformation of glacial and fluvial valleys, and hydrological features (rivers, lakes, torrents, etc.);
- an analysis of the biological component, which covers the inert element, and therefore an analysis of the vegetation (trees, shrubs, grasses), of the composition and extent of the vegetable elements (woods, meadows, pastures, oases, etc.) and the phytosociology that characterises them, and of the fauna present in various places;
- an analysis of the man-made component: human transformations of landscapes in order to make them capable of supporting life, activities and the development and well-being of the community. Identification and analysis of the countless human interventions in different environments and geographical situations: crop production in fields and terraces and the construction of towns, roads, industrial and tourist complexes, major transport infrastructure, ports and airports. This is knowledge that history lessons can further develop;
- an analysis of the historical and cultural component, in order to interpret, in the structure of the landscape, signs and evidence of past events by conducting research directly on the ground and studying historical documentation and

any archives available. Thus one can understand details of the time when humans made use of elements of the natural environment and resources, and adapted them to their needs, by building homes for shelter and roads to travel on, turning the soil into farmland, cutting down trees for firewood and building and removing stone from the soil to build solid and sturdy homes and reinforce roads.

It is also worth referring to other – let us say complementary – analyses:

- perceptive analyses, which are strictly visual, cultural and semiological, as mentioned above. They highlight the relationship between the subject (the individual or the community) and the environment, and the elements that characterise the landscape perceived from precise observation points;
- ecological analyses, which involve studying the landscape by means of specific methods and parameters, as a complex and dynamic system in which physical factors and living beings influence one another. These analyses also point to the limits imposed by nature on human action and provide information on the state of the landscape by producing diagnoses on its health.

All this enables us to see the importance of gradually informing pupils at the different levels of education about the natural laws of the landscape and the various factors affecting its development:

- the laws of nature that govern all visible and spontaneous changes, such as plant growth and the changing of the seasons with its visible manifestations, as well as certain sudden and unforeseeable physical phenomena, such as rock falls, earthquakes and floods, which influence the evolution of the landscape.

On the other hand, processes leading to transformations of the landscape brought about by human action and intervention interfere with the laws of nature in a complex way. These processes may be direct or indirect and their causes can often be found, but, according to the objectives of the convention, intervention is necessary from the outset, to ensure sustainable development.

It is clear that, in order to teach these concepts effectively to primary school pupils, it is necessary to employ specific photographic and documentary material, which is often available in schools. By means of images, the subject of the development of the landscape surrounding us can be introduced by reference to natural events and human intervention.

At the lower and upper secondary school levels and, in particular, university, it will be possible to draw on different scientific analyses. This is the only way of determining the extent of the interrelationship between formal, natural and psychological factors.

In order to grasp the complexity of the landscape, over and above its visual aspect, it is essential to have an understanding of basic concepts regarding the natural elements, processes, phenomena and functions that characterise it, both separately and together, and in their correlations – in the processes of natural spontaneous formation and evolution and those processes triggered by the many measures and changes implemented down the centuries by different societies and populations, in order to adapt places to their needs.

By contrast, we often lack the knowledge to understand the landscape and work on its true nature and the evolutionary processes that it has undergone, because of spontaneous natural or exceptional events and human action infused with cultural elements, and with an extraordinary set of signs and traces of historical stratification.

An analysis of the landscape contained in scientific studies should always be present in any land-use planning activity or process: only an objective knowledge of the components and the natural, historical, social and economic processes that characterise the landscape will secure consistency regarding any new action and transformations.

2. TEACHING APPROACHES FOR LANDSCAPE EDUCATION IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS

In the field of landscape education, it is necessary to identify from the first years of primary school onwards the objectives, methods and instruments required to develop initial educational approaches to help pupils understand what the landscape consists of, a goal that will be reached, step by step, due also to the subjects taught throughout the school year.

It is necessary to introduce educational approaches to discover and acquire an active knowledge of landscapes and to be able to interpret and understand the elements that make up and characterise landscapes. This will begin with local landscapes as these are the familiar landscapes that the children know and experience and which will help them understand the territorial context in which they are living. The educational information they are taught, in a course of lessons that gradually reinforces their sense of belonging to a territory, can then be turned into analyses involving both rational and emotional arguments.

During the five years of primary school, when children between 6 and 11 years of age are beginning to show more maturity, this journey of discovery and knowledge can encourage greater interest in the landscape around them. Understanding of its influence on their quality of life will enable them to participate more and more actively in observing and recognising the diversity and beauty of landscapes, their values and the changes occurring there.

Understanding landscape as "an area, as perceived by people" means that the future of landscapes depends on what the collective consciousness recognises as values, and on choices made by society that may be crucial for the years to come.

2.1. The variety of European landscapes

It is clearly difficult to develop standardised school courses when European states have different rural, urban or peri-urban, tourist or industrial areas and have different ways of protecting and managing natural resources, different land-use planning, transport and urban planning policies, and so on.

Approaches to landscape differ according to the situation and the type of environmental problems resulting from cultural and geographical differences and, in particular, landscape transformations. These issues are common to various countries

but they affect many areas of life, which suggests there should be synergy between disciplines relating to different factors and aspects of the landscape.

Lessons will also have to take account of ways of perceiving the landscape bound up with how it is experienced, observed and understood as a common good. Landscapes exert a subtle but deep influence on the way we are and on how we see and act in the world.

2.2. The child's landscape

In introducing in this section a number of thoughts on the teaching methods to be developed in an initial course of lessons on landscape for primary school children, we believe it is worth referring to certain observations made by sociologists, anthropologists and geographers on children's relationship with their landscape. We mean by this the landscape within them, the one that they perceive, assimilate and memorise, that guides their behaviour and actions and that stimulates their imagination.

Children learn very early on to allow themselves to be guided by their own senses, not only in spaces familiar to them but also in urban spaces or out in the countryside. Learning (that is, the acquisition of knowledge) begins at birth, develops with movement, is enhanced by experience and by sharing information and is constantly fuelled by individual or collective experiences.

When it comes to developing autonomy and the skills that a child must acquire, geographers refer to three objectives:

> The first is to ensure that children recognise the existing dependent relationships at work in their natural environment; the second is for them to be capable, in this context, of finding their own way about; the third is for them to open themselves to discovery, internalisation and practical respect for the values of the environment (Vecchis and Staluppi 1997:105)

When sociologists analyse the mental representations of the child's space they refer to "two concepts: perception and learning. Perception is both a phenomenological experience and an instruction for action and involves the reception and development of information from the external environment. It engages all the senses, especially, of course, sight, and develops according to actions triggered by movement". It is linked to "the disposition, in the complexity of the area, of natural and man-made elements … No feeling is independent. Rather, it develops within a system, unless the presence of adverse conditions leads to feelings of unease or 'cognitive leaps'", (Gazzola 2007:109).

Sociologists also speak of children's "cognitive maps", by which they mean images of the space around them. These maps are produced on the basis of information and data from different contexts and memorised in connection with a wide variety of situations and relationships.

It has been stated that there is:

> a slight correlation between the spatial features of cognitive and objective representations; a relatively significant correlation is noted only with respect to a circumscribed space … Cognitive spatial maps are part of cognitive maps and refer to images and cognitive representations of the environment (Gazzola 2011: 116)

According to most specialists in this area, these representations constitute a kind of pivot, a link between the individual – in our case, a child – and the social and physical environment.

Children tend to perceive a town as a collection of open spaces and their own district as a collection of circumscribed spaces (such as courtyards and gardens). They often depict in these spaces people, animals and natural elements such as trees, flowers and birds.

The drawing technique employed in the case of cognitive spatial maps may help analyse the child's image of the landscape – its way of sensing and perceiving the situation – especially in the case of an inhabited urban landscape, which is more frequent in individual children's portrayals.

2.3. Awareness-raising processes and landscape education in primary schools

In landscape education, schools should take into consideration educational activities and learning processes that are appropriate for the classes, ages and different stages of mental development of the pupils concerned. They should ensure overall educational continuity together with the primary school teaching staff and, if possible, some teachers of the first secondary school class. This continuity should be developed throughout the educational process, avoiding any unhelpful superimposition of concepts and a lack of information necessary in order for learning to progress. There is one generally observed weakness in education courses, especially at secondary school level: the limited time allocated to topics concerning the area and the relationship between human beings and the environment. This makes it difficult to identify a specific subject area in which to develop an initial approach to landscape that directly involves building a progressively deeper critical awareness among future citizens of the problems faced by the landscapes that form part of their everyday lives.

There is a need for more intensive efforts to be made to raise awareness, including the awareness of teachers, in order to ensure the continuous provision of the appropriate educational input on the subject of landscape once the limits to school activities have been overcome in the subjects concerned. It is crucial for the official bodies involved to devote considerable attention to this and make a proper contribution in this direction, both to teacher training and the co-ordination of activities aimed at the acquisition of a knowledge of the values attached to the landscape and landscape protection, management and planning.

Primary school education should contribute to pupils' cultural development through a multi-stage approach that enables them to familiarise themselves with and understand the landscape, beginning with the one familiar to them. In this way, it will be possible to provide an initial understanding and functional evaluation of landscapes in preparation for the successive formulation and application of the principles of landscape quality, protection and planning (with reference to the provisions of the convention).

The five years of primary school are sometimes split into three stages according to age and teaching objectives: a first year followed by two two-year stages.

As mentioned in the previous section, primary school landscape education cannot be a single course of lessons but must be regarded as a subject in which several disciplines work together in a general process of building knowledge of landscape. Broad interdisciplinary links between subjects taught during the year need to be established in order to encourage recognition and interpret the processes, signs and phenomena relating to nature, the human presence and human activities.

The most common types of teaching during compulsory schooling are didactic instruction, hands-on experiments and direct observation and fieldwork.

In order for didactic instruction to be effective, it must be presented in the form of verbal, pictorial and concrete communication that pupils can use to build and process concepts by separating out the properties common to the various objects. It is effective when the intention is not to teach concepts but to have pupils construct them. This is when the lesson becomes a research activity in the form of new discoveries and knowledge, with the work being finalised with practical workgroup sessions.

2.4. The organisation of activities in primary school landscape education

At primary school level, the first steps to follow to introduce children to a knowledge of landscape must include active processes, making use of educational opportunities during which the pupils are turned into protagonists, drawing on knowledge that they already possess and beginning with places known and familiar to them.

From the first year of primary school, teachers should ensure that children become protagonists with regard to knowledge of a landscape of limited geographical extent by engaging in active participation based on a process of research, curiosity to explore and discovery. This process first of all requires them to be taught how to look at a familiar landscape experienced every day by transforming the simple act of "looking" into "observing" and enabling them ultimately to recognise objects that normally escape their attention. In this way, pupils are taught to look with observant eyes at the surrounding environment that they see every day.

This process will be all the more significant if the place is familiar to the children, but at that moment they will no longer manage to activate their ability to discover and contemplate, so it is necessary to restart this ability to listen, touch and see and to recognise smells, scents and sounds by leaving sufficient scope for surprise and emotions when something may still be unexpected and unforeseen.

At this first stage, it is desirable for the approach of research, curiosity to explore and discovery to take place in situ, that is, in open-air lessons, by means of direct observation or making use of special teaching areas set up for this purpose, or even special classrooms equipped for drawing or projecting pictures and films.

Direct on-the-spot observation is the first phase of a landscape education process successfully introduced in some schools. It provides an initial understanding that,

starting from the known and experienced landscape, is gradually applied in the following years to other landscapes situated outside the area in which the pupils live and beyond their normal visual environment by undertaking school outings, trips and field investigations meticulously prepared in class.

The transformation of the usual act of seeing the landscape into looking at the landscape through direct observation fosters the subjective perception that begins to bring together the visually different elements that make up the outdoor space perceived by everyone spontaneously and subjectively through their different senses (hearing, smell, touch and, especially, sight).

It is through perception that it will be possible to activate the ability to recognise the difference between natural elements and those created by human activity, and then gradually identify, with the teacher's help, the different relationships between them.

Through perception we begin to grasp the more obvious and more significant presence of natural elements and signs, objects and human interventions that make it possible to start identifying the relationships of interdependence between the natural factors of the landscape and man-made modifications to it.

A child's sense of observation can be stimulated through the identification of natural elements and objects of human activity that help him or her recognise a familiar place, such as trees along the street leading to the child's home, the garden fence, the school building, the church square or the tree-covered mountains in the background. Looking at the landscape with observant eyes therefore helps pupils begin identifying the landscape and connecting it with the one to be subsequently studied.

Activities in landscape education

Sight: seeing things with which we are too familiar sometimes prevents us from activating our capability for discovery and contemplation
Observation: learning to examine the things around us in a new way and with observant eyes, thereby fostering the element of surprise and the ability to listen, touch, observe and discover
Perception: a subjective, spontaneous visual experience generated by sensations provoked by viewing perceptible forms; image of a situation that produces aesthetic judgments
Exploration: acquiring the basic insights to identify and understand the natural and human factors that characterise the landscape
Identification: understanding, interpreting and attributing roles and meanings to natural and human elements and factors recognised in the landscape

The teacher's aim will be to teach pupils how to transform looking at the things around them into observing them with new eyes. Observing the landscape is the start of a process that leads to enabling a child to acquire, for the first time, and at the beginning of his/her school life, the ability to perceive and identify the elements

present in the space observed, and the objects that characterise it. The child learns to recognise and identify:

- the natural elements of the landscape: trees, hedgerows, flowers, meadows, small lakes, etc.;
- objects built by human beings: roads, pavements, garden railings, the school building, the church, etc.;
- his/her personal relationship with the landscape.

In the next phase, the child learns to:

- explore the landscape with curiosity by identifying, for example, the features of the route taken from home to school, of the village square and the school playground, as well as the differences between his/her own route from home to school and that of other children;
- recognise the quality, beauty or variety of this landscape;
- explore and recognise the landscape through its signs and forms: a tree-lined avenue; dead leaves on the pavements according to the season; the shape, height and colours of the school building, the garden railings and garden play equipment.

From the third year at primary school onwards, the information perceived and acquired in familiar landscapes will be enriched and amplified in the following years with assistance and input from geography, the sciences, the history of art and drawing – subject areas that will provide the initial concepts necessary to learn to recognise and grasp the meanings and functions of the various elements of, and objects in, familiar landscapes.

Geography will encourage the shift from the perception of the landscape experienced to its objective dimension and to identifying its different elements and learning about the reciprocal relationships between elements and their significance and use (natural or man-made).

The natural sciences will encourage the observation and analysis of the present situation and recognition of certain elements present in various natural environments, such as forms of vegetation (woods, trees, shrubs, meadows, etc.) and development of the natural environment and man-made changes.

The history of art will show how certain painters (Giotto, Leonardo, Poussin, etc.) have observed, interpreted and depicted different landscapes in their respective periods.

Drawing will teach children to explore the forms and objects of the landscape around them, recognise the colours, forms and materials of the different elements and depict those in the foreground, the middle-distance or the background. Through drawing, pupils should be able to express their emotions freely and personally explore the landscape observed by depicting the images and different elements that characterise it.

The same images, forms and objects of the landscape can be drawn once again the following year on the basis of the new knowledge acquired and of a better understanding of the relationships between natural and man-made elements.

2.5. Learning methods and objectives

The learning methods provide for a first phase of direct observation and a second phase of indirect knowledge acquisition.

In landscape education, children must become active protagonists with regard to their knowledge of a landscape of limited geographical extent from the first year of primary school, through active participation based on a process of research and the curiosity to explore and discover a place that is familiar to them as they experience it every day.

The fact must not be overlooked that most children today live in urban or peri-urban areas, where natural elements are either rare or totally absent and the landscapes observed are dominated by traffic noise and full of things difficult to analyse at primary school. However, these are landscapes that children recognise since they constitute places familiar to them and close to their home and living environment.

The objective must be to restore children's relationship with nature and to help them develop their ability to listen to the noises of nature and the wind in the trees, to pick up leaves, touch tree trunks and grass in the meadows and to smell the scents of nature, while at the same time leaving enough scope for discovery, surprise and emotions with regard to everything we do not always succeed in perceiving in everyday life.

This first phase of research and curious exploration must be carried out in open-air classes through direct observation. When this is not possible, for example in a town because of car traffic, facilities available for these purposes, such as special rooms equipped for drawing and for projecting pictures, can be used as the visual basis for this exercise.

During the phase of research, curious exploration and discovery, it is necessary to choose, with the teacher's help, the best observation points in order to obtain as much information as possible on the landscape observed, and make this first approach to the observation, perception and processing of the information easier. The best places are usually those located in an elevated position or at eye level with no obstacles in the way.

It is also necessary to take account of the parameters of the space concerned, which vary according to the child's field of vision based on his/her own height – spaces that can be observed from the height of a child, for example 100 or 150 centimetres. Some higher details, such as road signs, tall buildings or hills in the background are difficult to see and take in.

In the last years of primary school, it is undoubtedly worthwhile gradually carrying out certain educational activities in landscapes different from those frequented on a daily basis. These are landscapes that can be visited, observed and experienced on brief excursions prepared in class. In this way, it will be possible to make comparisons with the landscapes of towns, outlying areas or villages familiar to the pupils concerned.

This will provide an opportunity to discover and experience hilly, rural, marine or lake landscapes, where it will be possible to encounter situations different from those that are familiar, due to the presence of a typical morphology (rolling hills, terrace farming along steep slopes, large stretches of farmland, etc.), or the existence of a wide variety of natural elements or objects created by human beings for various purposes.

The forms and elements that characterise an urban landscape and a rural environment can undoubtedly contribute to developing a child's curiosity and to stimulating his/her visual experiences and interest in new discoveries.

This is also the best way to set up the first interdisciplinary activities in the classroom in order to become familiar with and put a name to the elements and objects observed, and understand their uses and their significance with respect to a landscape in which the community lives.

Stages of understanding

Knowledge/direct observation
Seeing – observing – perceiving through the different senses
Processing the information perceived, recognising it
Learning its meanings and uses
Depicting – relating

Direct knowledge develops during the successive phases, when the aim is for pupils to be able to relate what they have observed in a new landscape that they have just visited with their teacher and their fellow pupils. In this first phase, we suggest using a model landscape interpretation template. This can be adapted whenever necessary according to the ages and classes for which it is intended and the objectives it is wished to achieve (see template below).

The use of the template in interpreting the landscape can also be an exercise carried out in a sequence of steps to foster closer attention paid by pupils to what they can observe in the landscape and at the same time to get them to engage in self-reflection on their observation activities. For the youngest pupils, the format, terminology and objectives of the template can be adapted, but it is important to maintain the basic structure and keep to the steps proposed. It is possible through this exercise to learn and internalise a method for approaching and interpreting the landscape that, although it does not involve the study of cultural aspects (which can be included later), will help nurture a more responsible relationship with landscapes that will subsequently be encountered.

A new landscape – relating what has been observed

Significant natural elements	
Human-built elements	
Activities carried out	
Landscape quality	
Dominant colours	
Land use	

The observation of a new landscape helps pupils recognise, through direct experience, the significant elements of the landscape, the uses to which the land is put and the activities carried out, including how the landscape is used and by whom.

It provides an opportunity for discussion not only in the classroom with the teacher and the other pupils but also with the family.

A first step could be to use drawings to explore the organisation of spaces and their visible correlations and the child's relationship with his/her landscape, for example the route taken between home and school.

Drawings will show trees, a meadow, swings in a garden, the road and pavements, people on their way to work, the child's own home, the homes of the other pupils, and so on. It is important to begin teaching pupils to discover, through their observation of familiar landscapes, the relationship between the natural environment and man-made structures and to develop the abilities required to define that relationship.

Pupils will gradually explore a number of keys to interpreting the landscape in different and more complex situations, including the relationship between the natural landscape and human intervention (with regard to road or industrial landscapes) in order to establish the link between this relationship and the various ways of transforming the landscape. The awareness, exploration and discovery of other landscapes that have been observed and travelled through will make it possible to identify the various natural elements and human activities, drawing on the skills acquired through observing the familiar landscape. This will be a first step towards making the children recognise the need to familiarise themselves with, and analyse, the landscape in different phases:

- as a subject of observation – subjective perception: perception brought about by the overall image – the beauty of the landscape, its forms, colours, sounds, etc.;
- as a subject of analysis – objective knowledge: knowledge necessary to identify the different natural and man-made elements that make up landscapes (those of the child's and the other children's living environment) – relationships and processes that take place in the constantly changing complex reality of the landscape;
- as a subject of exploration and discovery: of the organisation of different spaces; the interdependent relationships between natural factors of a known landscape and the transformations brought about by human action; the distribution and the relationships between the elements and objects and the people who use them; the various functions and activities taking place;
- as a landscape to be drawn/depicted.

2.6. Drawing and depicting spaces at primary school

Drawing is the most direct way for children to put on paper their subjective-passive perception after observing the principal elements that make up the landscape, with their shapes and colours. It is the means of beginning to distinguish between the elements in the foreground – natural elements such as groups of trees, bushes,

watercourses and human activities such as houses, cultivated fields, roads and bridges – and it enables a start to be made in distinguishing between those elements that characterise the middle-distance and the terrain in the background.

The outside world depicted by children may be seen as a useful means of informing the teacher about what the children perceive and take in, and how they recognise it.

Above and beyond the importance of direct observation/knowledge, it is imperative not to overlook the importance of indirect observation/learning through didactic instruction, the use of pictures, photo exhibitions and meetings with outside players who can provide further information.

Landscape education begun through the process of observation and perception, discovery and knowledge must be continued and enhanced in the classroom by showing pictures that typify various places. The teacher can have the pupils observe and recognise the colour, shape and features of the various natural elements and the main functions of the man-made structures and the different objects present in the space that they know. The teacher should help the children recognise the use that they make of those places and of these elements that form part of their experience in their everyday landscape and accordingly discover their personal relationship with the place concerned.

A first step in the classroom could be to illustrate on a few simple sheets the principal morphological and plant- and human-related aspects of the landscape which has first of all been perceived and then understood through direct observation and subsequently explored/looked at in more detail by searching for initial information.

This is a phase in which it is important to use both documentary material and instructional exhibitions, which can also be created using work by children in more senior classes. However, meetings with cultural and environmental facilitators, tour and nature guides or countryside workers, such as farmers, animal breeders and builders, are particularly useful and interesting because of the observations they can make. These are occasions that can stimulate greater interest in the landscape but it is not always easy to organise them in the context of school projects.

Moreover, one should not underestimate what children relate to their families about what they have done and learnt at school, by showing them their worksheets and drawings, etc.

2.7. The contributions of different subject areas

In the case of indirect observation, the contribution of different subject areas that form part of the course (geography, natural sciences, art, history, drawing) has a very important role to play.

At primary school, the teacher can begin to have pupils observe and recognise the morphological aspects of the natural environment that identify mountains, hills, slope gradients, valley shapes and coastal and lake shore interfaces, and to analyse the link that exists between the different physical forms of the natural environment and the location, form and extent of built areas: villages, rural houses, roads and cultivated fields.

It is important to stress these facts as early as primary school with regard to the landscape observed and to begin to have pupils notice the relationships between the physical forms of the environment and the use of the land – such as man-made changes along a river to protect its banks and make them usable, or terracing constructed along hillsides to make them cultivable – and to have pupils recognise the damage done to large rural areas for commercial or industrial development.

2.8. Proposed teaching approaches to be followed and skills to be acquired in the five primary school classes

As the course progresses, one should teach in an appropriate way and at the right time the concepts necessary for pupils to find their bearings and understand the landscape experienced by the community to which they belong.

1st year

Understanding, exploring and discovering, through direct observation, the places/landscapes that make up the area in which pupils live. Comparing the different situations (similarities and differences); understanding the organisation of space and the distribution of natural elements, objects and people in an area familiar to them.

2nd year

Ability for pupils to find their bearings and see how they fit into a landscape familiar to them, to know how to recognise the most obvious man-made changes in the places/landscapes in the area in which they live. Oral descriptions and depiction, by means of drawings, sketches, etc.

3rd year

Recognising the relationships between the environment, resources and quality of life and the activities carried out by human beings in the area in which the pupils live. Then gradually include this area among other landscapes in the municipal area. Enable pupils to find their own landscape on a simple map and the municipal area in which it is located.

4th and 5th years

Analysing a landscape and knowing how to recognise and identify on a map recent man-made changes to certain landscapes in the pupils' own neighbourhood. Making proposals for the reorganisation of landscapes known and experienced, as well as describing and depicting these proposals.

2.9. Proposals for workgroups

1. Describe the route taken by children to school by answering a series of questions:
   - Is your school far away? Do you walk there? How long does it take you to get there?

- Are there any buildings along the way? Are they tall and how many storeys do they have?
- Are there shops or homes? What types of activities take place there?
- Are there any trees along the way? How many? Are they tall?
- Are there any gardens?
- What is there on the other side of the road? Houses or countryside?

2. Compare the description with the ones made by other pupils in the class.

3. Have the children draw what they see through the window of their home.

Instructions:

- Use an ordinary pencil and coloured pencils and draw what you want.
- Go to the window at home with a drawing book and draw what you see: the road, a garden, a square, trees, a meadow, cars passing by, etc.
- Draw what you see when you walk along the road that you take to school.
- Draw the park where you go to play.
- Compare the drawings with those made by the other pupils.

4. Prepare a small exhibition of drawings produced during the year.

3. LANDSCAPE EDUCATION APPROACHES IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Secondary school should make provision for landscape education in the final classes of compulsory schooling, taking as a reference point the basic knowledge already acquired during the years at primary school. The aim is to provide pupils with a complete education on the value of landscapes, their role and their transformation, to ensure their development is compatible with the goals set out in the convention: according to the "specific measures": "Each Party undertakes to promote ... school and university courses which, in the relevant subject areas, address the values attaching to landscapes and the issues raised by their protection, management and planning".

The approach adopted will aim to provide a complete knowledge of the concept of landscape by introducing progressively more co-ordinated and specific ways of understanding it and conducting research. The same applies to visual/sensory knowledge (and the resulting perception process) and to an analytical and scientific understanding of landscape that makes it possible to understand its structure, and its natural and man-made elements, and the ways in which they are interlinked through an introduction to in-depth practical exploration.

The greater maturity of secondary school pupils (aged between 10-11 and 15-16) makes it possible to adopt teaching methods that can help nurture a more complete understanding of the landscape – as an integral part of an area shaped by natural and/or human factors and their interrelations – through diverse approaches offering more appropriate responses to the many problems posed by the variety of geographical, cultural, historical and economic situations in European regions.

Pupils should therefore be taught about how the landscape has been perceived, depicted, analysed and considered from the historically most important periods of the past to the present concept of landscape defined in the European Landscape Convention. Above all, it will be necessary to make pupils aware that the landscape issue is bound up with our everyday environment, that it is part of our human development and that participation in the search for better ways of managing and planning the landscape must be seen as a human right and duty, as well as a social responsibility. Pupils must therefore be shown how and why the convention has arrived at the current thinking about landscape issues, which is the subject of their studies illustrated in the introduction to this report.

The organisation of teaching at secondary school level must place an emphasis on cross-curricular work, which, with the appropriate educational materials, can contribute to analysing and gaining a deeper understanding of the features of the environment and territorial structures: the dynamism and evolution of natural elements, the formation of towns, the history of landscapes and a knowledge of their features, resources and identity. Secondary school teaching should accordingly help to make pupils appreciate the cultural, ecological, environmental and economic value of the landscape to enable them to become aware of the problems existing in their living environment.

It will also be necessary to analyse when and how the landscape – on account of its differences, specific features, identities and values – has had, and continues to have, a subtle but profound influence on how it is perceived by society and how and to what extent it has played a role with regard to the interventions that have taken place over the centuries, in different societies and geographical situations.

A key objective to be pursued in the classroom is to consider pupils attending compulsory education as the future citizens of a community who have to get to know their living environment better in order to participate, as committed stakeholders, in its preservation, planning and sustainable development – a community that must be made aware, be informed and properly educated with regard to the principal problems, both natural and cultural, facing the landscape that it lives in and experiences, so that it is capable of contributing to its upgrading and/or rehabilitation.

3.1. The approach to understanding the landscape

In the last years of secondary school, the concept of landscape, which often fails to be differentiated from view, picture or space, needs to be studied in greater depth, in a comprehensive and co-ordinated way. The landscape is the part of the land that can be seen from several observation points or, as the great French geographer Paul Vidal de la Blache put it, "what the eye embraces". However, it is not possible from this point of view to understand the difference between the view of the landscape and the analysis of the relationship of human beings, and the community as a whole, with the part of a space and all the elements that can be seen, because visual knowledge is only one part and one, albeit important, aspect of understanding the landscape.

In landscape teaching, a clear distinction must be carefully made in highlighting the difference between seeing and observing the landscape (which is regarded as an image of the area, an overall view or panorama). However, although this makes a valuable and useful contribution to visual understanding, it is not enough. An understanding needs to be based on an analysis of the landscape as a physical, real and complex entity made up of natural and artificial systems and subject to spontaneous events and human action. It is influenced by cultures, signs and traces of historical stratification. The landscape's "character is the result of the action and interaction of natural and/or human factors", according to the definition in the convention.

The landscape is a diverse environment that changes over time, a group of organisms and living systems interlinked by different kinds of relationships that make up the world in which we live. It is a combination of interacting phenomena and functions, and the result of countless measures carried out by human beings, both in times long past and more recently, to adapt various places to their requirements. At the same time, it is the result of the spontaneous evolution of nature.

In the landscape continuum, various types of intervention have become superimposed on one another: construction, agricultural production, forestry and changes brought about by the social and economic development of communities. These interventions can often be recognised in traces left in archaeological remains, urban settlements, historical architecture, the agricultural structure, terrace farming and ancient pathways.

An analysis of the structure and the various constituent elements of the landscape makes it possible to understand the numerous configurations adopted in various places down the centuries, and helps in identifying the processes that have brought about the main changes that have occurred, and in understanding the natural situations that have made possible the multiplicity of measures and man-made transformations to the landscape: roadways, settlements (concentrated or scattered), pastures, reforestation, industry, and so on.

The initial interpretation of the landscape should refer to the natural shape and the inert structure that characterise the land concerned, enlisting the support of geology, geomorphology, pedology and hydrology, in order to understand the shape of the slopes (flat hillsides, gentle or steep gradients), the valleys eroded and hollowed out by the action of torrents and rivers, and the different coastal interfaces.

By analysing the soils, it is possible to establish their fertility, their permeability and potential for their many different uses, and to identify the original plant cover (trees, shrubs, grasses), which can still be seen in some parts of the area.

It will be necessary to interpret both the natural features and the human colonisation of the area, in order to understand the relationship between the landscape and the community that has lived there or is living there: the succession of many different measures, transformations and behaviours brought about, in the course of time, by the characteristics and specific features of the places concerned, which have, in turn, shaped the landscapes of today.

3.2. The subject areas that help foster an understanding of the landscape

A study of landscape at secondary school presupposes the teaching of a large number of subjects that combine, in different ways and using different specific terminology, to provide a knowledge of particular aspects of the landscape situation: multidisciplinary co-operation arrangements can be set up for the various lessons that help pupils become aware of the values, features and identities of landscapes and to understand the problems which can have a direct or indirect impact on the landscape and which relate to its protection, management, planning and sustainable development.

Where schools do not offer specific teaching on acquiring knowledge of landscapes, the educational work carried out through interaction between different disciplines becomes particularly important, especially on the basis of the cultural requirements contained in the "specific measures" set out in the European Landscape Convention.

Geography is a theoretical and methodological approach that enables pupils to learn the basic elements for recognising the geographical differences that characterise areas and environments. It can explain the present appearance of the Earth, as the result of action taken down the centuries, and can provide information on the different situations and levels of development brought about by the interaction between humans and the environment. Mapping, which is an integral part of geography, uses different scales to visualise information that is fundamental for understanding areas, their morphology, the origin of spatial relationships and man-made changes.

History introduces pupils to a knowledge of the cultures that characterise particular areas and the identities that define various landscapes. It enables them to understand the historical evidence present in the area, the environmental and cultural conditions that produced those identities and from which they in turn originate. It can also help pupils acquire, on the basis of the main changes identified, their first skills in forecasting future developments.

The natural sciences (a very wide teaching field) guide pupils towards a knowledge of the phenomena and elements that make it possible to interpret the natural environment as a complex system. It results from many different interactions between abiotic and biotic elements and pupils are encouraged to study them both with reference to natural situations and transformations brought about by human interventions. Ideally, at secondary school, pupils should begin to learn about the effects of climate change and biodiversity. It would also be very helpful to have pupils participate in simple practical activities, such as producing an album of drawings and photographs, in order to study the features and morphology of plants and the different vegetation habitats.

Art education can help inform pupils about the different ways in which painters have interpreted and depicted landscapes down the centuries, according to their cultures and in different regions of the world. It can therefore teach the ability to interpret works of art and develop perception skills and the ability to assess the landscape from the point of view of its aesthetic aspects, and as a cultural asset.

Drawing enables pupils to transfer to paper the part of the landscape that they can see from a particular observation point. It also enables them to analyse and show, through their drawings, the structural elements, shapes and main features of the objects in the landscapes observed and analysed. It is through drawing that pupils can begin to outline and communicate their first ideas and thoughts on possible landscape "interventions".

3.3. Materials, techniques and documents useful for landscape teaching

It is particularly important to make up-to-date material available to secondary school pupils to enable them to familiarise themselves with, understand and analyse the landscape, such as slides depicting landscapes, photographs, thematic maps and orthophoto maps. It would also be valuable for them to be able to use the new technologies, such as consulting the websites, available in many states, with information and pictures of the region and the area where the school is situated.

Pupils should be taught to interpret and use graphical and pictorial documentation containing information for studying the landscape with respect to the reference area, to familiarise themselves with the instruments necessary to consolidate their basic cognitive skills, and to acquire new knowledge of the landscape and the relationship between human beings and nature. By incorporating their analyses, they can then begin to produce the cognitive syntheses necessary to put forward practical proposals on the landscape being studied.

It may be helpful to encourage visits to, and studies of, landscapes different from those with which pupils are already familiar and to organise meetings with associations and individuals involved in landscape-related matters who are willing to be consulted – such as designers, municipal technicians, farmers, agronomists, foresters.

3.4. Educational maps

As far as secondary school teaching is concerned, it is very important to use maps and consult aerial photographs, because of the data and information they contain on various landscapes that will help pupils understand the morphological and environmental features and man-made transformations in the areas analysed.

Geographical maps communicate effectively, through depictions and conventional symbols, the spatial knowledge necessary to locate terrain, plains, watercourses, coastal interfaces and islands and to identify towns, roads, motorways, ports, and so on.

The wealth of material – physical, topographical, political and thematic maps of national, regional or municipal territory – can meet the many different requirements regarding basic information about the area and its particular features, so the use of this material should be encouraged.

A map is a basic instrument for getting to know the place where we live, the detail varying according to the scale used:

- a map with a scale between 1:1 000 and 1:5 000 shows land in a fairly detailed way and can help the user gain a better knowledge of the surroundings of a village, its rural infrastructure and its agricultural system, or the details of a town or district, and the growth of suburbs;
- maps with a scale between 1:5 000 and 1:25 000 show larger areas with less detail than the above, but with more references to the morphology of places and the actual distances between the elements and objects of the places shown.

Existing maps, which can be easily obtained from public authorities, libraries and bookshops, can help pupils acquire a wealth of information about their area and locate the landscape analysed in order to:

- identify, according to the different scales, the features and variety of the morphology and the distribution of man-made elements and their links to the natural forms of the environment;
- familiarise themselves with the thematic maps available containing important and detailed information on the different aspects of the landscape, such as morphology, vegetation, farming, urbanisation.

Aerial photographs (which are often harder to find) provide a clear overall picture of the conformation of the area, the features of the natural environment and the relationship between nature and human activities.

In order to analyse a landscape, we need to locate it on the map and find points of reference (in a valley, on a hill, along a watercourse, at the confluence of two rivers, etc.), and we also have to understand its morphology (the course of a river, the orientation of a valley, hill-slopes, crop-growing, the communications network) and the activities that characterise the local area. That is, it is necessary to discover the information contained in a physical and political map with a scale appropriate for the size of the area and the part of the landscape to be analysed.

Pupils in the last year at secondary school will begin to learn how to use maps, not only to carry out a more detailed analysis of the landscape but also in connection with the very first steps relating to projects and landscape planning, conception and management, all of which will constitute an important activity at upper secondary school level.

3.5. Methods of observation and visual familiarisation with the landscape

The act of "seeing", which is a cognitive act, par excellence, not only involves receiving images from objects by using one's eyesight. It is a "cognitive process" that consists of processing the images and shapes perceived by the "observer" both through different senses and by means of certain mental processes, such as aesthetic evaluation, memory, curiosity or one's personal culture and interest in specific historical, architectural and environmental conditions, and sensations aroused by finding oneself in a given place.

In the case of the visual interpretation of the landscape, however, it has to be borne in mind that the human eye perceives only part of the landscape from where the observer is located. In order to obtain the information useful to know, it is necessary to choose carefully, using a suitably scaled map, the position that enables a number of things to be seen. Visual obstacles of various types (natural or man-made) situated between the observer and the part of the landscape observed, can lead to optical occlusion, limiting the "viewshed".

An observation point located in an elevated position may enable larger parts of the landscape being studied to be seen and therefore make it possible to look at the orientation of the terrain and the dimensions and shape of plains and expanses of water, and to understand the link between the natural and man-made elements of landscapes and their main features.

In the foreground, from 50 to a few hundred metres, the panorama, the form, structure and colour of the elements of the viewshed can be clearly identified. It is possible to make out the different crops, the shapes of the trees and buildings (as well as doors, windows, colours and construction materials).

In the middle-distance, from a few hundred metres to a few kilometres, the ability to see things diminishes. Ridgelines can be clearly made out but the elements of the landscape – the vegetation, crops and built environment – gradually become blurred. It is still possible to see the shape of the urban areas, the boundaries of the forest and farmland, large elements and isolated objects, such as a tall tree on a ridge.

In the background, a few kilometres from the observer, and only in clear weather, the field of vision broadens and the landforms, valleys and major morphological systems can be seen. However, the visibility of the elements making up the landscape gradually decreases, eventually reducing to zero.

The choice of vantage point must be made in advance on the map, giving consideration to the depth and width of the viewshed – that is the place from where the shape of objects, details, materials and colours can be made out and from where it is easier to gain an understanding of the elements and their relationship with the context.

These visual analyses are crucial for establishing the features of the landscape in the viewshed concerned and for beginning to assess the possible visual impact of new interventions on the landscape. The aim of these analyses is to provide assistance for the choice of interventions to transform, upgrade, restore or rehabilitate the landscape.

3.6. Landscape interpretation and analysis

Gaining an understanding of the landscape through a scientific analysis of the actual situation in which it finds itself must be through a logical sequence of cognitive approaches adapted to each specific landscape and territorial situation (rural, mountainous, hilly, coastal, peri-urban, etc.). That understanding is developed through:

- *analyses of natural impacts* (environmental sciences), which involve morphological, geological, pedagogical, hydrological and vegetation features and their interrelationships; these analyses can describe the basic relational structure of the landscape and its natural functioning;

- *analyses of human impacts* (human sciences), which show how the landscape that has been changed as a result of human sprawl constantly interacts with its natural features. These analyses take into consideration the interactions between human activities and the natural environment and the changes brought about, directly or indirectly, by the human impact on the natural system;
- *historical analyses* (natural and human history), which help pupils understand the historical evidence present in the area by linking it to the environmental, social and cultural conditions that produced it. These analyses can contribute to the acquisition of the skills necessary to make forecasts on future planning;
- *an ecological analysis*, which studies the structure of the landscape and the functions of the landscape-related systems of the natural and human habitat. It considers the landscape as a complex environmental system and its aim is to identify the limits – of compatibility or incompatibility – imposed by nature on human actions and man-made changes. It provides useful diagnoses on the "health" of the landscape by analysing the interactions between physical factors and living beings, including humans.

In addition to resulting in a description and knowledge of the landscape, the objective of the analyses should be to provide guidance and support for the choices of action to change, upgrade and rehabilitate the landscape and to identify methods to protect and maintain its balances to ensure sustainable development.

The following analyses can be regarded as very helpful and complementary, as far as a knowledge of the landscape is concerned:

- *a visual-perceptive analysis*, which is strictly visual and semiological in nature, seeks to identify the first cognitive relationships between human beings and nature, and the elements of the landscape that enter into a perceptive relationship with human beings and the community as a whole. It produces an aesthetic judgment that, for a long time in the past, played a decisive role in landscape culture;
- *an analysis of the values* of specific parts of the landscape: the historic-cultural value, the ecological and natural value, the economic value, the identity of the landscape and the quality of life. This can be carried out according to different criteria and parameters on the basis of its importance for various scientific interests and areas of study.

A number of general assessment criteria can be applied to natural and man-made systems, for example rarity, representativeness, integrity and variety.

These are values that can be categorised according to the following scale:

- *high*, if they refer, for example, to landscapes with natural and cultural resources intact;
- *considerable*, if they refer to quality landscapes with some parts or elements that are not fully intact;
- *significant*, if they refer to landscapes that have partly retained their natural and/or cultural resources.

The first phase of the investigation should, broadly speaking, involve both the physical structure – abiotic and biotic – and the man-made structure, by breaking the landscape down according to the principal "systems" of which it consists: major morphological and hydrological structures, systems of biotic components, man-made systems, and the historical and cultural structure imposed on the landscape by human civilisation.

This is a complex phase of analysing the landscape and should be approached gradually by broadening the pupils' understanding of the natural and man-made environment by enlisting the help of geography, the natural sciences, history and ecology.

3.7. Landscape analysis template

Identification of the landscape and its main features	Identifying and defining the scope of the study. Interpretation of the specific structural and functional features of the landscape.
Natural systems	Identification of the main features of the natural system: geological and geomorphological components (height, slopes and slope exposure), pedology, hydrology, climate and vegetation.
Man-made systems	Identification of the main features of the man-made system: constructions, infrastructure (urban, industrial, commercial, roads, railways and waterways, etc.), farmland, forestation, etc.
Visibility	Analysis of the visual features of the landscape, outstanding elements, resources, degradation and fragility. Methods of observation.
Interrelationship between natural and man-made systems	Identification and interpretation of: the relationships between natural and man-made systems and the ways in which these are used; the natural configuration of the places concerned and transformations to these places in the course of time.
Dynamic processes and transformations	Understanding the transformations and developments carried out, and comparison between the present situation and the historical phases known to pupils.
Summarising the analyses made	Summarising the analyses made in order to ensure the acquisition of a more detailed knowledge of the landscape that will help guide the approaches to protection, management and sustainable development.
Evaluations	Identification and evaluation of the resources and identity-related values present in the landscape analysed.

Analysis of natural systems

Analyses of the main features of the natural system in terms of geology, geomorphology, hydrology, climatology, pedology, phytosociology and fauna – features that fully describe the dynamism and the basic relational structure of the landscape.

Geomorphological analysis	Ridges, hills, groups of hills, rocks, valleys, plains, heights, slopes, slope exposure; identification of the different types of rock and their physical and chemical features.
Pedological analysis	Types of soil, erosion, soil permeability, etc.
Analysis of the vegetation	Plant associations, composition of the flora, etc.

Analysis of man-made systems

Analysis of the urban and rural system of habitation	Location and boundaries of urban, peri-urban and rural installations; landscape features of urban, peri-urban and rural constructions, of road and transport infrastructures and industrial and commercial production infrastructures. System of urban green spaces.
Analysis of the agrarian and semi-natural landscape	Structure of the agrarian landscape, tree population and forestry.
Analysis of the historical development of the landscape	State of the landscape in important historical periods. Groups of assets belonging to the historical and cultural heritage. Identification of landscape identities, outstanding architectural elements and rural and urban systems.
Perceptive-visual analysis	Analysis of the visual features of the landscape (forms, structure, fabric, colours); analysis of the viewshed (barriers/visual obstacles, visual openings, panoramic viewpoints, etc.), visual interrelationships.
Ecological analysis	Study of the landscape structure and of transformations of the landscape.

3.8. Landscape enhancement, transformation and management strategies

In order to gain a complete knowledge of the landscape (that is, the various elements that make up its variety and diversity) it is essential to adopt an approach encompassing specific and in-depth analyses. This will involve different school subjects that complement one another and together, to varying degrees, provide insight into the complex nature of the landscape. Due regard must be paid to the structural and functional relationships of the landscape that enable the causes and effects of its endless development to be understood. After analysing and assessing the landscape, it may be helpful, and sometimes necessary, to produce a summary drawing together all these sector-based analyses.

In final year secondary school landscape classes, pupils can be given an introduction to considering possible future interventions with regard to the landscape under study, not only in theoretical terms (identification of its values, identities, fragility, etc.) but also in practical terms with a view to beginning in-depth practical application.

The interpretation of the landscape, first of all carried out through visual and sensory perception and then through scientific analysis, will enable secondary school pupils to begin objectively identifying and listing the different elements, both natural and

cultural, that make up the landscape, to understand the unitary features identifying its structure and to begin discussing and carrying out exercises on:

- identifying the principal qualities of the landscape;
- understanding the fragility of landscapes;
- the attention placed on the protection of landscapes and the rehabilitation of degraded places (quarries, rubbish tips, etc.);
- the attention placed on landscape enhancement or the restoration of landscape identities;
- the recognition of the dynamics and developmental processes that modify landscapes.

3.9. Notes for upper secondary school courses

At the end of upper secondary school (which is not part of compulsory schooling), pupils will have acquired, through their studies, an increasingly deep and scientific understanding of the variety and diversity of the natural and man-made elements of the landscape in which they live. They will also have learned to recognise the different elements and factors, both natural and human, which contribute to determining the state and characteristics of the landscape in a dynamic process. They will have learned to make use of various analyses to identify and understand the features of natural environments and the changes that have been carried out down the ages by the people who have settled there.

Interpreting the signs left behind in the past will enable them to recognise the connections and relationships between the various elements and the causal links between the physical conditions in the area (climate, exposure, soil, water resources, plant cover, etc.) and the ways in which the land is used for human habitation and its resources exploited. They will also be able to recognise the influences exerted in the course of time by mountains, slopes, land exposure and plant cover on installations, crops and human land use.

These increasingly specific ways of interpreting and understanding the landscape must then be developed at upper secondary school level from both theoretical and practical points of view. Pupils will have to make systematic use of landscape analyses to link all the gathered information in such a way that they always consider the structural and functional unity of the landscape in an integrated way.

The analyses will therefore have to:

- look at the systemic situation of the landscape;
- focus attention on the development of the landscape and its components, for example: plant species dynamics, the expansion or reduction of wooded areas, changes in tree cover, the latency or sudden manifestation of morphogenetic processes and their past or present causes and consequences;
- establish the functional and structural relationships linking the different elements of the landscape and identify the relationships present in the landscape system;

- refer to both the spatial and the temporal dimensions of the landscape and, if possible, the basic elements of each dynamic process and mutation;
- develop the necessary skills which will make it possible to determine the value of the landscape, its vulnerability and its ability to support very specific changes, uses and activities;
- bring together the various strands necessary to identify the most appropriate strategies for the protection, planning and management of the landscape, to ensure its sustainable development.

Studying the landscape in greater depth (see Appendix 2)

Choose a panoramic picture showing different landscapes located in the same area, designated as a "case study"; select a number of details of the photograph chosen that characterise the landscape and illustrate key concepts of past, recent and present formation or transformation processes ; prepare a map, of an appropriate scale (or an aerial photograph) enabling pupils to locate the different landscapes to be analysed ; recognise and analyse the elements that characterise the different parts of the "case study" landscape, recent changes and ongoing processes.

Landscape analysed	Characteristics	Recent changes	Ongoing processes
Morphology	flat terrain, mountains, hills, valleys		
Vegetation	woods, tree groups, isolated trees, shrubs		
Water	rivers, streams, ponds, lakes, sea		
Infrastructure	bridges, streets, motorways		

Representation of the landscapes observed and analysed

Use the documentation available to obtain the information necessary to identify data on the features of the landscape from different points of view. On the basis of the following questionnaire, find a number of possible solutions regarding the activities that may be carried on.

Questionnaire	Description and analysis of the landscape
What effects has the expansion of the urban area had on the landscape?	
Should rural areas be preserved inside urban areas?	
How can the conservation of the landscape be compatible with tourism development?	
How can a town and a nature park be made compatible with each other?	
Is a river landscape and a traditional agricultural landscape compatible with the settlement of new industry?	

Draw a fairly expansive landscape observed from a good observation point during a field trip or depicted in a photograph or slide.

Make this landscape something to be actively observed and understood: interpret and reproduce the things observed; describe the natural resources, forms and critical features that make up the landscape.

Work template for analysing different landscape types

Landscape type	Natural resources	Critical features	Analysis of development
Landscape traversed by infrastructure			Strong impact on the landscape
Agricultural landscape under development			Environmental risks close to the urban area
Tourist landscape under development			Loss of identity. Conservation of the natural landscape
Urban periphery			Loss of identity, occupation of the landscape by infra-structure and industry
Upgrading of a landscape and agricultural activities			High quality of agricultural production. Agritourism, etc.

CONCLUSIONS

General principles in the teaching and learning process

The acquisition of knowledge is one of the objectives of school education. It must take account of the pupils' learning processes and speed of learning by fostering approaches to knowledge acquisition commensurate with their age and mental development. It must also acknowledge the value of overall educational continuity throughout the school experience, avoiding the pointless superimposition of concepts already acquired and disregarding others. It must succeed in finding, throughout the different school stages, the right relationships between the subjects taught during the year and give all pupils, at the various schools, the possibility of achieving the appropriate level of maturity and preparation.

The subject of landscape accordingly provides many advantages for the pupils' education and is an important vehicle for them to become familiar with and understand their surroundings. It enables them to be taught to see the things they know well from a new perspective – things they are used to "seeing" without "observing" and to frequenting without understanding, that they are natural and cultural assets common to all of us and, consciously or unconsciously, a source of well-being for the community. Above all, it provides an opportunity for pupils to discover the role of each individual as one of the landscape's inhabitants, a guardian of its identity and its culture, and a protagonist aware of its future development.

List of proposals to the national and regional public authorities for the implementation of the European Landscape Convention

School pupils – the citizens of tomorrow – must be able to develop the knowledge necessary to safeguard this resource and understand the best ways to help manage and preserve it for present and future generations.

It is therefore necessary to provide pupils with knowledge of the landscape at all school levels in order to show them that the landscape is not just the visual aspect of a place but a territorial entity where numerous natural and human factors interact. The landscape must consequently be studied in all its complexity through the developmental processes that modify it.

The European Landscape Convention makes school education one of the important specific measures to be adopted by countries. It clearly states: "Each Party undertakes to promote school and university courses which, in the relevant subject areas, address the values attaching to landscapes and the issues raised by their protection, management and planning".

The educational method must primarily be based on direct observation and active participation involving pupils' research into, and discovery of, the landscape around them. It must encourage as many school outings as possible to enable them to understand, through direct observation, that the landscape is much more than just nature.

Different approaches must be used depending on the pupils' ages and maturity. In the case of primary school children, the principal method will be the sensorial approach, which comprises not only sight but all the other senses too. The visual dimension will be employed to provide an initial knowledge of the landscape, and this personal perception of places and familiar areas will help pupils observe the variety of forms, materials, colours and uses and the many different activities carried on there. In order to teach the concepts they need for their education, primary school children should either be put in direct contact with the landscape by means of careful, guided observation or use audio-visual material, pictures and documentation.

At secondary school, a new knowledge acquisition method will be used: a first analysis of the distinctive characteristics of landscapes and the diversity of elements of which it is composed. Pupils should be taught about the different landscapes of the places familiar to them and taken to visit landscapes characterised by various relationships between human beings and nature. This will make it possible to begin implementing cross-subject activities to enable pupils to understand and analyse the landscape, and these activities can be extended as a result of the input from several subject areas taught in the course of the year.

List of proposals to national public authorities for the implementation of the European Landscape Convention through the promotion of landscape education in the classroom

The "specific measures" (Article 6.B) of the European Landscape Convention relate to the importance for each state party to promote: "school and university courses which, in the relevant subject areas, address the values attaching to landscapes and the issues raised by their protection, management and planning".

The principal objective of these measures is to persuade administrators to adopt the necessary ways and means of including the landscape dimension in school (and university) curricula by providing the knowledge required to understand not only landscapes and their values and features but also the social, ecological and economic developmental processes, in order to help secure their sustainable development.

The convention seeks to ensure that the public campaigns which are necessary and important to raise awareness of the landscape dimension are preceded by school and university courses, at European level, "which, in the relevant subject areas, address the values attaching to landscapes and the issues raised by their protection, management and planning".

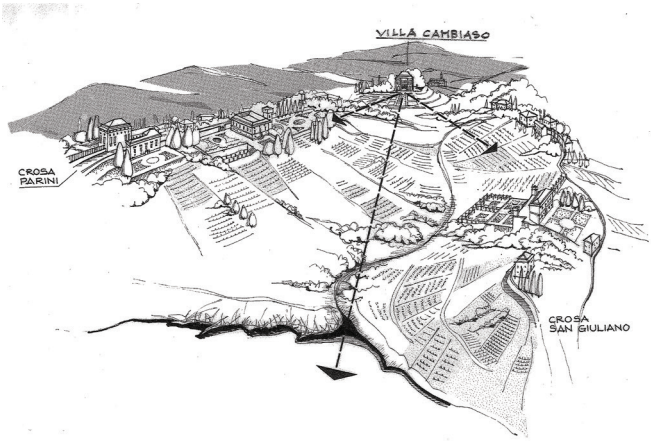
Following the observations in the conclusions to this report, it is useful to draw the attention of the relevant local and regional authorities to a short list of proposals which comprise a possible response to the provisions and objectives of Article 6 of the European Landscape Convention. These proposals concern the need to:

- introduce landscape education into primary and secondary school curricula, to enable pupils to acquire an understanding of the values, features, importance and role of the landscape with regard to people's quality of life;
- promote school teaching that involves activities which will foster familiarisation with and understanding of the landscape; landscape cannot be considered a specific subject area but, on the contrary, involves several disciplines that consider and analyse its various aspects;
- provide appropriate teacher training especially at secondary school level, to teach pupils the basic knowledge they need to understand the landscape, and to have landscape specialists produce a handbook of teaching methods that will be helpful to teachers in this particular field;
- encourage pupils to acquire a personal knowledge not only of the landscape they frequent but also of other landscapes with different characteristics and features; provide schools with materials and audio-visual equipment that will help them develop and update their knowledge of landscapes;
- encourage secondary school pupils to undertake projects, coming up with proposals to address the problems facing the landscape in the area in which they live.

APPENDIX 1 – PRIMARY SCHOOL

Pictures, practical exercises for studying the landscape and templates for analysing different landscape types

Figure 15. Villa Cambiaso and its surroundings



Source: Silvana Ghigino, Faculty of Architecture, University of Genoa

Learning methods and objectives

An initial phase of research, curious exploration and discovery of the landscape should be undertaken by means of outdoor lessons based on direct awareness/observation. The teacher's aim will be to teach pupils how to transform looking at the things around them into observing them with new eyes and a different focus.

Sight: seeing things with which we are too familiar sometimes prevents us from activating our capability for discovery and contemplation.
Observation: learning to observe the things around us in a new way and with observant eyes, thereby fostering the element of surprise and the ability to listen, touch, observe and discover.
Exploration: acquiring the basic insights to identify and understand the natural and human factors that characterise the landscape.
Identification: understanding, interpreting and attributing roles and meanings to natural and human elements and factors revealed in the landscape.

The awareness, exploration and discovery of other landscapes that have been observed and travelled through will make it possible to identify the various natural elements and human activities, drawing on the skills acquired through observation

of the familiar landscape. This will provide an opportunity to discover and experience hilly, rural, marine or lake landscapes, where it will be possible to encounter situations different from those with which pupils are familiar.

Knowledge/direct observation
Seeing – observing – perceiving through the different senses
Processing the information perceived, recognising it
Learning its meanings and uses
Depicting – relating

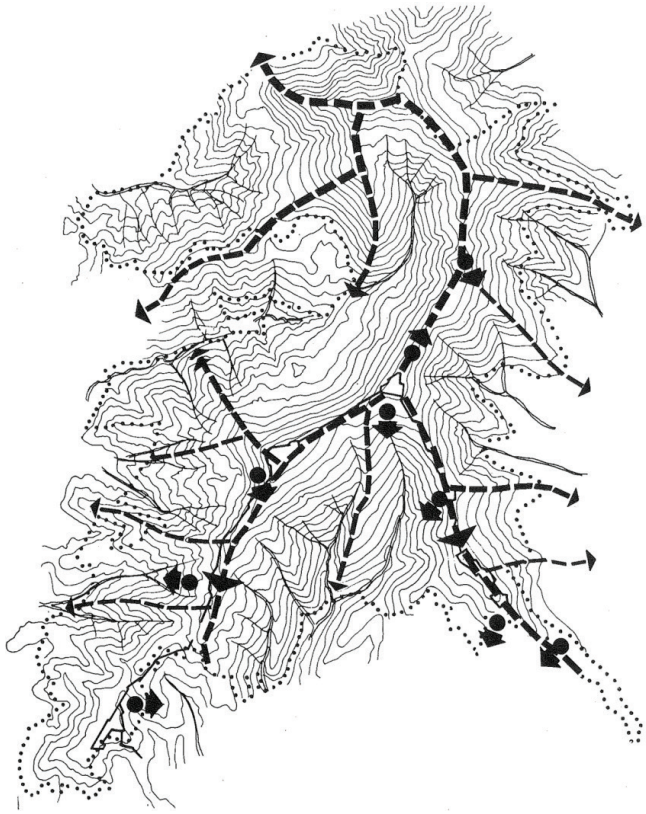
Observe and analyse the example of an urban park characterised by the presence of ancient fortification[3]

Figure 16. A fortification in the park

Source: L. C. Forti

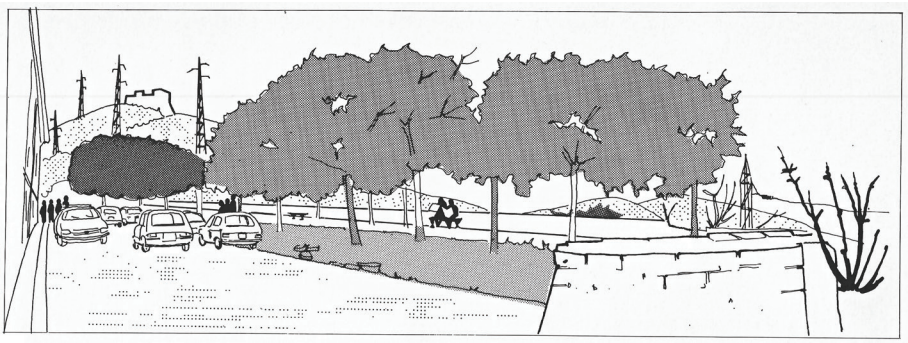
3. Analysis of the fortifications of Sperone Fortress in Genoa conducted in 1983 as part of the specialisation of landscape architecture courses, Faculty of Architecture, University of Genoa, to find solutions to the project "The fortifications of Genoa Park".

Figure 17. Analysis of the morphology of a park

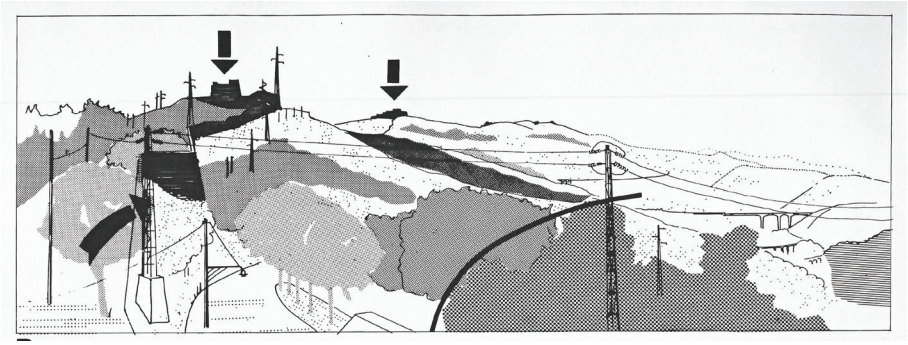


Source: Landscape Architecture Programme, Faculty of Architecture, University of Genoa.

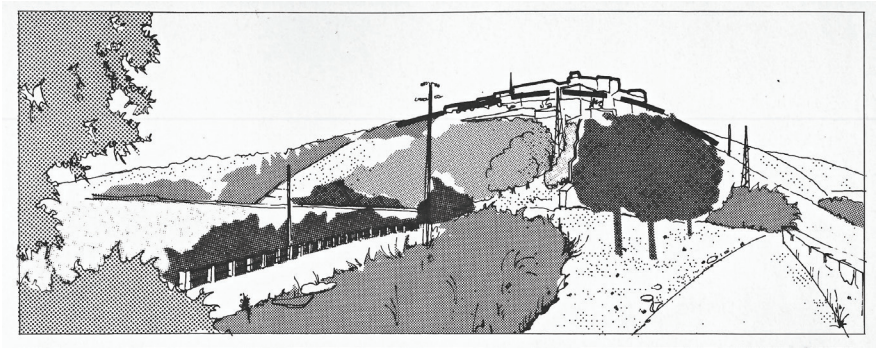
Figure 18. Observation points



Source: *Ibid.*

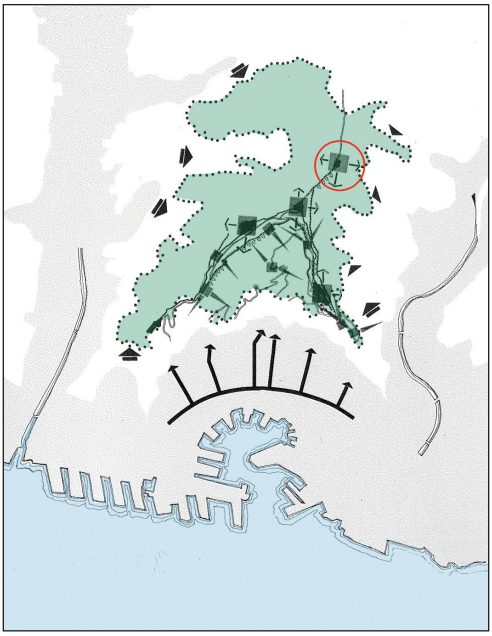


Source: *Ibid.*



Source: *Ibid.*

Figure 19. Position of the fort in relation to the city



Source: *Ibid.*

Model approach to interpreting the landscape: first phase

Discover, through previous observation of a familiar landscape, the relationship in another landscape between its natural features and the work carried out by man.

The first step should be to develop awareness of the relationship between natural features and the changes in landscapes with a different morphology, different vegetation and buildings; to understand how space is organised and become aware of the visible correlations.

Pupils will gradually explore a number of keys to interpreting the landscape in different situations: in urban, suburban, industrial landscapes, and establishing the link between the various ways of transforming the landscape.

Figure 20. Observing a new landscape

Source: L. Nespolo

Observing a new landscape helps identify the features and objects in the area under observation which make up that landscape.

Figure 21. Observing the landscape

Source: T. Mannoni

Human-built elements	
Activities carried out	
Landscape quality	
Dominant colours	
Vegetation and land use	

Getting children to understand that the landscape must be discovered, explored and analysed in a phased approach

Among the plant cover on the hills it is possible to see a path crossing the valley, a group of houses on the right and on the left an open quarry, breaking the continuity of the landscape.

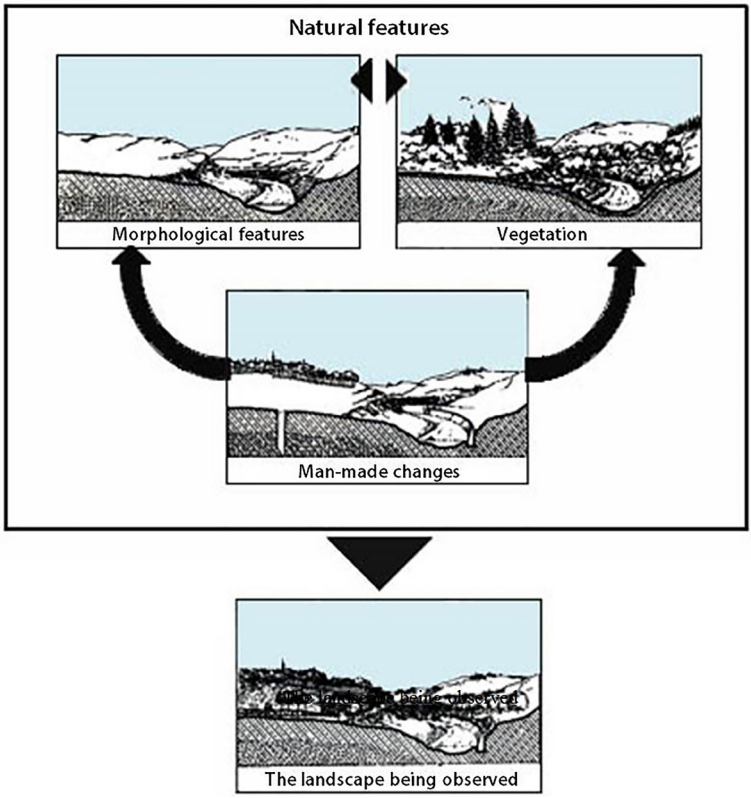
Landscape as a subject of observation – subjective perception	Perception brought about by the overall image – the beauty of the landscape, the forms, colours, sounds, etc., of nature.
Landscape as a subject of exploration and discovery	Organisation of the different landscapes and the relationships of interdependence between the natural factors of the landscape and man-made modifications to it. The distribution and the relationships between the elements and objects and the people that use them.
Landscape as a subject of analysis – objective knowledge	Recognising and identifying the different natural features (inert or living) and the man-made elements that make up landscapes. Introduction to knowledge of the relationships and processes that take place in the constantly changing complex reality of the landscape.
Landscape to be drawn/depicted	

A good observation point makes it possible to see a fairly extensive part of the landscape and to take in the visual features of the landscape as a whole (Fabbri 1984).

Observe more attentively, obtaining information on:

- the physical landscape, showing the natural abiotic shapes and signs of the geological origin of the environment;
- the biological landscape, showing the natural biotic features, vegetation and forest cover;
- the man-made landscape, showing the cultural signs of human activities past and present.

Figure 22. Observing landscape features



Source: P. Fabbri, teaching material, Landscape Architecture Programme, Faculty of Architecture, University of Genoa

When the observer is in an elevated position, he or she can see a fairly extensive part of the landscape and identify the foreground, middle ground and background, with barriers (areas obstructed from view), the visible features and objects and the specific elements of the landscape which become less and less clear the further away they are.

Figure 23. Elevated observation point

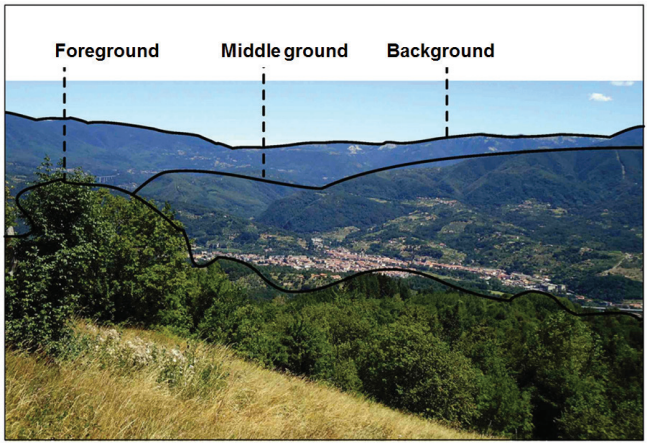
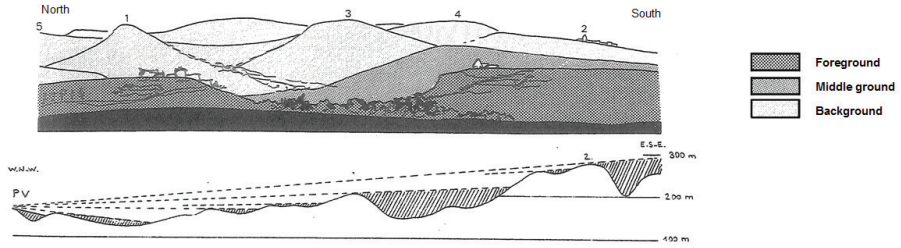


Figure 24. Depth of landscape



Source: Calcagno Maniglio 2002.

Figure 25. Elevated position for landscape observation – Identification of the foreground, middle ground and background

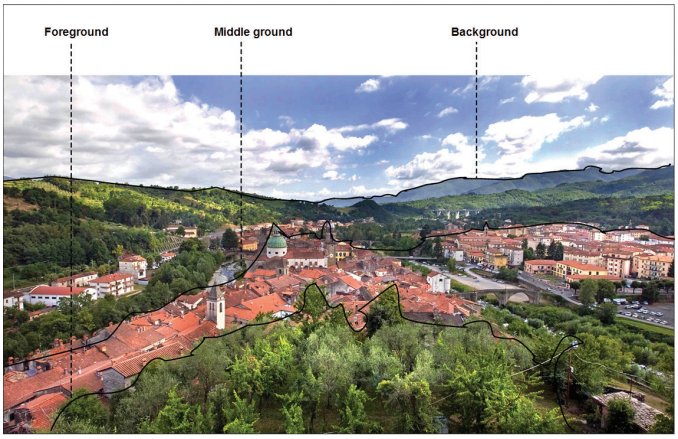
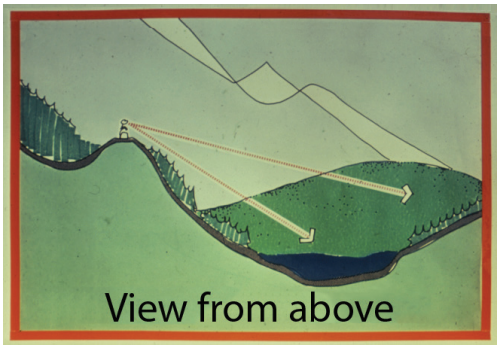


Figure 26. Observing the landscape

The best position for observing landscape is generally an elevated or eye-level position with no intermediate obstacles: this enables one to take in as much information as possible on the landscape.

Source: Teaching material, Landscape Architecture programme, Faculty of Architecture, University of Genoa.



Learning about, exploring and discovering in other landscapes that have been observed and visited the various natural features and human activities and transformations; getting the children (in the final years of primary school) to understand that the landscape has to be discovered and analysed through different approaches.

Landscape as a subject of observation – subjective perception	Perception brought about by the overall image the beauty of the landscape, the forms, colours, sounds, of nature or urban and peri-urban spaces.
Landscape as a subject of analysis – objective knowledge	Organisation of the different landscapes, the interdependent relationships between the natural factors of a known landscape and the transformations brought about by human action (those of the child's and the other children's living environment); Introduction to knowledge of the relationships and processes that take place in the constantly changing complex reality of the landscape.
Landscape as a subject of exploration and discovery	**Organisation of the different landscapes:** – the various functions and the activities taking place there; – the distribution and the relationships between the elements and objects and the people that use them.
Landscape to be drawn/depicted	

Figure 27. Sestri Levante, Liguria

Tourist development has occupied land in the plain and has transformed the beaches.
Source: Merlofotografia.

Figure 28. Mediterranean scrubland

The sand dunes along the coast have been covered with Mediterranean scrubland.
Source: A. Calcagno Maniglio

Drawing and telling a story

Draw what you see when you make your way to school.

Draw the park where you go and play.

1. Pupils should observe and describe the route taken to school by answering a series of questions:

- Is your school far from your home?
- Do you walk there?
- How long does it take you to get there?
- Is the road flat or on a slope?
- Are there any trees along the road?
- If so, how many and are they tall?
- What can you see right at the end of the road?
- Are there any gardens?
- What is there on the other side of the road? Houses or countryside?

This illustrates the different routes taken by children to go to school and gets the pupils to describe them.

Figure 29. Pictures by primary school children

Top: S. Eusebio Primary School, years 4 and 5;

Bottom: Andersen Primary School, year 5, Genoa.

My school

My school building

The road home

The park in my village

2. Compare the description with the one made by other pupils in the class.

3. Get the children to draw what they see through the window of their home.

4. Show different routes that other children take to get to school and ask the children to describe them.

Instructions:

- Use an ordinary pencil and coloured pencils and start to draw.
- Go to the window at home with a drawing book and draw what you see: the road, a garden, a square, trees, a meadow, cars passing by, etc.
- Draw what you see when you walk along the road that you take to go to school.
- Draw the park where you go to play.

Figure 30. School routes

School routes

Village road. Source: A. Calcagno Maniglio

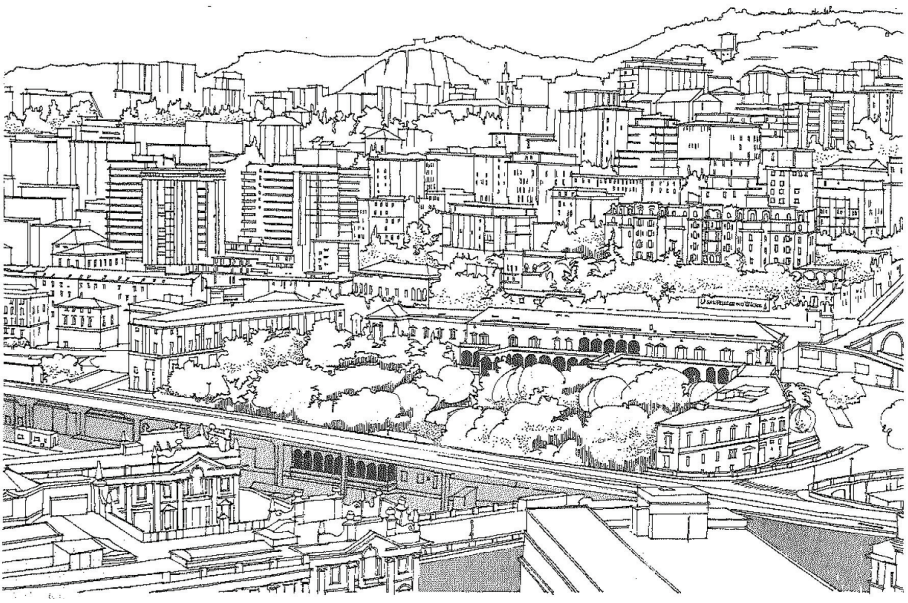
Railway/road intersection. Source: *Ibid.*

Riverside path. Source: *Ibid.*

APPENDIX 2 – SECONDARY SCHOOL

Pictures, practical exercises for studying the landscape and templates for analysing different landscape types

Figure 31. Drawing for landscape studies



Source: Giulia Robbiano, Faculty of Architecture, University of Genoa

Landscape analysis templates

Summary of the analyses carried out to achieve clearly defined objectives, including the acquisition of general and more detailed knowledge of the landscape: useful for guiding approaches to protection, management and sustainable development.

Topic	Content
Identification of the landscape and its main features	Identifying and defining the scope of the study. Interpretation of the specific structural and functional features of the landscape.
Natural systems	Identification of the main features of the natural system: geological and geomorphological components (height, slopes and slope exposure), pedology, hydrology, climate and vegetation.
Man-made systems	Identification of the main features of the man-made system: constructions, infrastructure, (urban, industrial, commercial, roads etc.), farmland, forestation, etc.
Visibility	Analysis of the visual features of the landscape, outstanding elements, degradation and fragility. Methods of observation.
Interrelationship between natural and man-made systems	Identification and interpretation of: the relationships between natural and man-made systems and the ways in which these are used, the transformations to these places in the course of time.
Dynamic processes and transformations	Understanding the transformations and developments carried out when making a comparison between the present situation and the historical phases known to pupils.
Summarising the analyses made	Summarising the analyses made in order to ensure the acquisition of a more detailed knowledge of the landscape that will help guide the approaches to protection, management and sustainable development.
Evaluations	Identification and evaluation of the resources and identity-related values present in the landscape analysed.

Examples of a coastal landscape

Figure 32. Natural landscapes

Sestri Levante. Source: Merlofotografia

Some natural characteristics are still present in the landscape, including sandy beaches and old olive groves. The sea and coast line have produced an example of remarkable natural heritage.

The man-made changes over the last 20 years have led to dramatic changes to the coastal landscape: the pressure from tourism, the urban concentration on the coast and the construction of the coast road has had a considerable effect on the natural resources of the coastal zones. There has been a negative impact on the environment and the quality of the landscape. The hinterland has been marginalised, as has the traditional farming carried out there.

Figure 33. Recent anthropogenic transformations of coastal areas

The western coast of Liguria, Italy. Source : S. Soppa.

Template for identifying the values and qualities of the landscape

Values	Evaluation criteria
Historical and cultural value	Presence of structures and settlements of historical, cultural and/or artistic interest Presence of local identities, traditions, community memory, etc.
Natural and ecological value	Rich variety of flora and biodiversity Geomorphological values, vegetation and water resources Stability of ecosystems, etc.

Values	Evaluation criteria
Economic value	Viability of farming, forestry, tourist activities Accessibility of land to infrastructure networks and services Value of urbanised, agricultural and forest areas in relation to development and environmental protection rules, and to visual, tourism qualities, etc.
Quality of life	Quality of the microclimate Quality of air, water and soil Quality of the landscape (historical-cultural, social, economic) Quality of services, infrastructure, etc.
Landscape identity	Outstanding features of the landscape, natural, historical, cultural and economic resources
Recognition of landscapes	Residents' and visitors' understanding of the features of the landscape

Maps and aerial photographs

It is very important to use maps and consult aerial photographs as they contain data and information on various landscapes. This helps foster an understanding of the morphological features, environmental features and man-made transformations in the areas analysed.

This aerial photograph clearly shows the totally wooded slopes and the village built on the crest of a mountain.

Figure 34. Topographical map

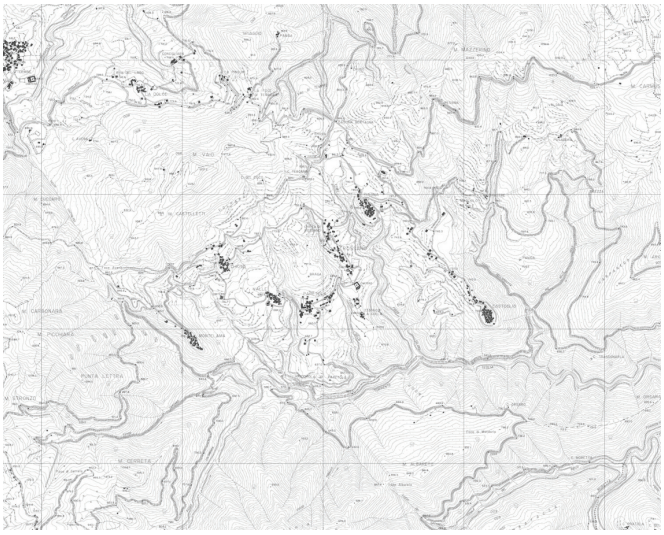
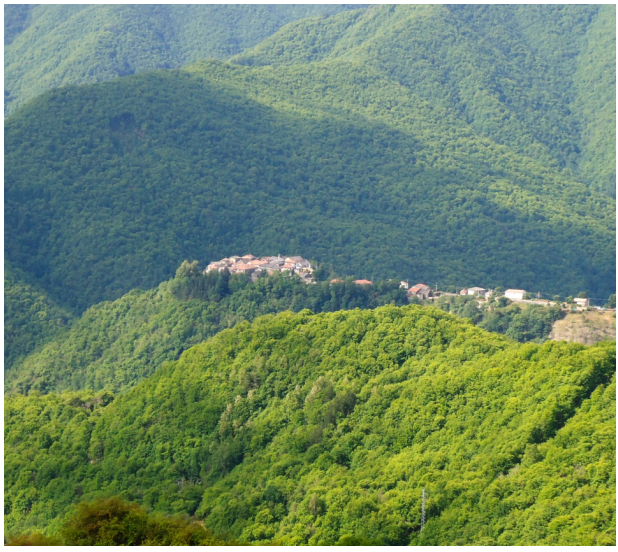


Figure 35. Aerial photo (distance)

Source: A. Calcagno Maniglio, Faculty of architecture, University of Genoa.

Figure 36. Aerial photo (close up)



Source: Tiziano Mannoni

Example of an evolving riverscape

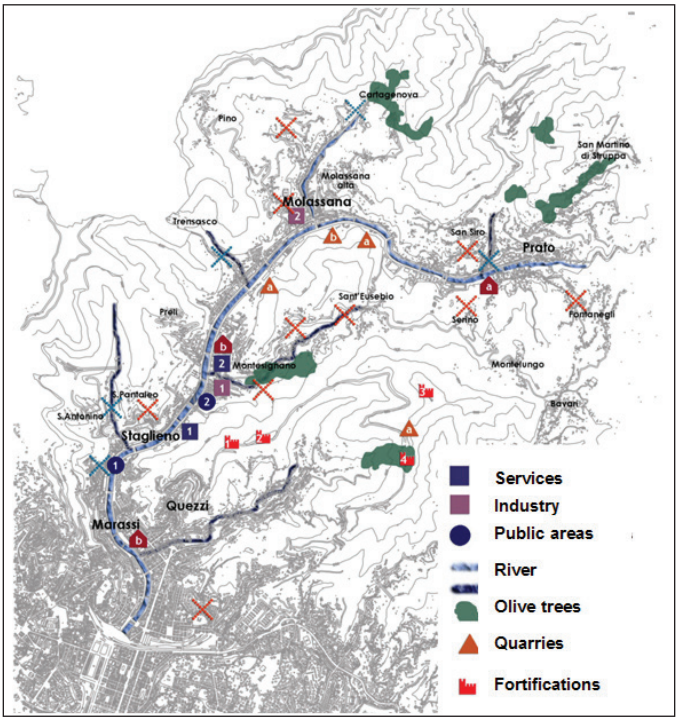
The observer's elevated position makes it possible to see a fairly extensive part of the landscape and to identify the course of the river, the urban development along the river bank, the wooded hills and the main features of the landscape.

A detailed image of the foreground shows recent changes to the landscape: buildings constructed all along the river.

The photo of River Bisagno shows the riverscape's structure, morphology and the natural and man-made features typical of the area.

Figure 37. Riverscape of River Bisagno

Source: Municipality of Genoa.



Source: Franca Balletti, Faculty of Architecture, University of Genoa.

A network of rural pathways and a small farming village today abandoned. Source: *Ibid.*

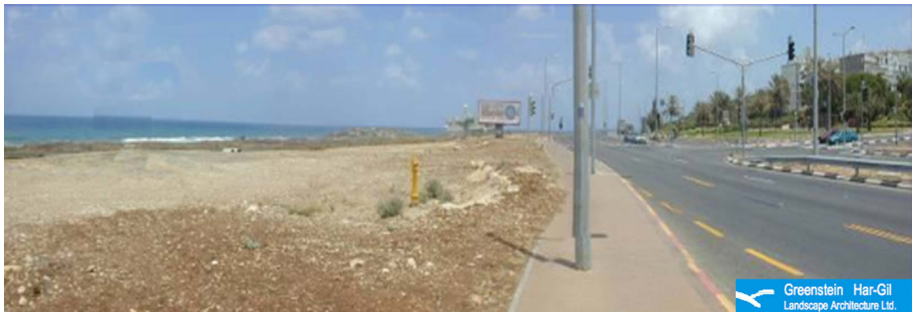
Figure 38. Riverscape: bridges, roads, vegetation, agriculture

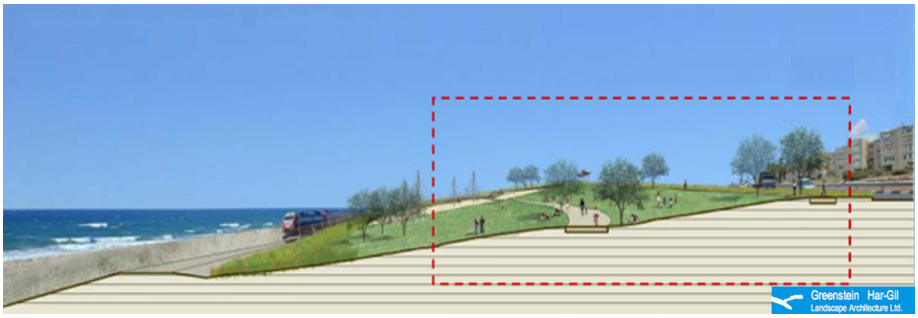
Source: Franca Balletti, Faculty of Architecture, University of Genoa.

Example of an evolving coastal landscape

A promenade project (by Har-Gil) for a new park in a very urbanised area Shikmona Park Haifa.

Figure 39. Promenade project





Source : Greenstein. Har-Gil, Landscape Architecture Ltd.

Source: *Ibid*.

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Chapter 4
Landscape and leisure

Niek Hazendonk, Council of Europe expert, Marlies Brinkhuijsen, Chantal de Jonge, Hugo de Jong and Dirk Sijmons

INTRODUCTION

Leisure has a big impact on our landscape: the relationship between the two must not be underestimated. It deserves to be considered at the European level. As the European Landscape Convention indicates, healthy and diverse landscapes for everyone are a responsibility of all its states parties, and it is necessary to influence the planning and guiding of the tourism and leisure industry at the same time as planning the landscape.

Leisure is a broad concept with many different meanings, depending on culture and context. This report[1] focuses on international tourism. However this does not mean that domestic tourism, outdoor recreation and other forms of daily and weekly leisure activities in the living environment are less important.

International and domestic leisure activities have many aspects in common but they also differ greatly. Also, all types of leisure are interconnected functionally, economically and in other ways. The landscape offers the infrastructure for different types of leisure which are overlapping and intertwined. In the Netherlands, for every euro spent by an international tourist, two euros are spent domestically.

The word "tourism" appeared in the Oxford English Dictionary for the first time in 1811, but this human activity actually goes back considerably further. In the time of the ancient Greeks, travellers such as Herodotus visited various countries and places and reported their experiences. Romans travelled to Egypt and Greece to visit sanctuaries and thermal baths and to enjoy new and exotic horizons. Later, during the Middle Ages, people mainly travelled for religious reasons: pilgrimages to holy shrines in Rome, Santiago de Compostela and Canterbury, sometimes crossing whole continents to achieve their goals.

1. This report has been produced in the framework of the Council of Europe activities for the implementation of the European Landscape Convention with the support of the Federal Office of the Environment of Switzerland.

After the Renaissance people began to travel in greater numbers, for pleasure, education and knowledge. Young aristocrats were sent on the Grand Tour after their education had been completed in order to acquaint themselves with foreign cultures. This tour normally lasted two to three years and would typically go from London via Paris to Italy, Greece or Egypt. One could say that the first package tours marked the evolution from a static society to a mobile one.

In the early 19th century, many people worked themselves to death, 18 hours a day, 6 days a week, with no days off. Leisure time was scarce. Only a few people had the time and means to rest and travel. Leisure and tourism were the privilege of a small elite. But times have changed. The introduction of a five-day working week and (paid) holidays, combined with rising incomes and affordable transportation (private cars, the jumbo jet and low-cost carriers), have brought leisure and tourism within reach of most people in developed countries. In Europe, the average amount of free time has gradually increased to four to six hours a day (Aliaga 2006) and a wide range of leisure and tourist opportunities have come within reach of contemporary society.

The era of package tourism began in 1841, with Thomas Cook's exceptional train trip from Leicester to Loughborough. The explosion of travel and tourism in the last 50 years could be compared in its impact to the Industrial Revolution.

We can distinguish four aspects of using landscape for tourism ends:

- landscape as aesthetic scenery;
- landscape as a playground;
- landscape as a biological area;
- landscape as a living area (Donadieu 2007:254).

Even though the majority of free time is spent in and around the house, the impact of increasing free time has extended far beyond the daily living environment. From the late 19th century, city centres, peri-urban areas and scenic landscapes have grown into true leisure and tourist landscapes, both in a functional and mental sense. Coastal and alpine areas have turned into mass tourist resorts; city centres and derelict areas have been redeveloped for urban entertainment, and rural landscapes have gradually become transformed into "rurban" residential landscapes with ample supplies of leisure attractions and facilities.

Many regional economies have become largely dependent on leisure and tourism. In other areas the impacts of leisure and tourism have been less conspicuous. In the absence of leisure and tourist facilities and attractions these landscapes appear unchanged, but in use and meaning they are clearly leisure and tourism-related.

A person's wish to visit a particular environment (landscape) is socially constructed, and thus inherently subject to change and diversity (Urry 1995). "Shifts in perception of what are regarded as desirable landscapes are associated with social and cultural changes in the society that tourists originate from" (Holden 2000). For example, in the mid-18th century a marked shift was noticed through the increased preference for romantic and picturesque scenery: "The previous landscapes of fashion were those of the European low countries, the Netherlands, because they illustrated the human ability to dominate nature to provide agriculturally productive terrain" (Holden 2000). In the 19th century, sublime landscapes of "wilderness" (like mountains and rugged

coastlines) gained prominence as places to visit. The English developed mountaineering and laid the foundations for alpine tourism. When looking at the impacts of leisure and tourism on European landscapes, regional differences become apparent. Climate, tradition, presence of cultural and natural attractions, socio-political conditions, geographical position and other factors determine landscape appearance, use and meaning.

1. DEVELOPMENTS IN LEISURE AND TOURISM

The nature and importance of leisure and tourism have changed considerably over recent decades and international tourism has grown dramatically over the last 50 years.

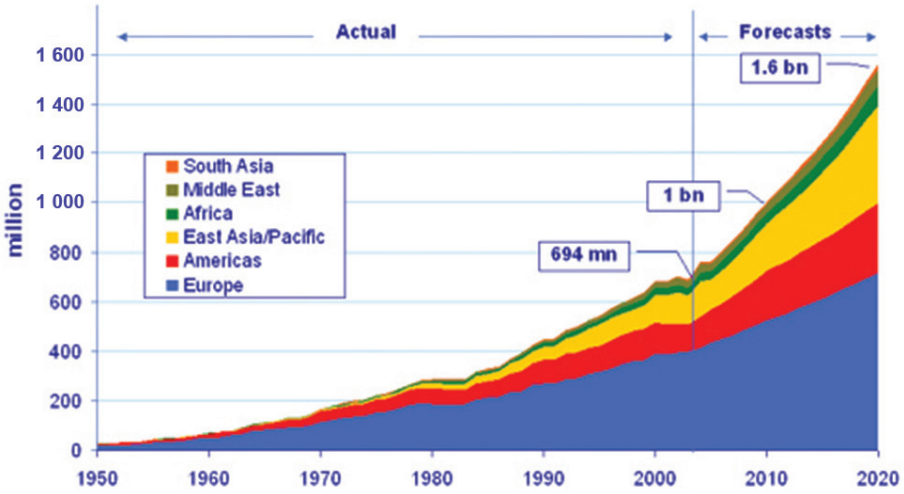
Tourism has become highly dynamic in all dimensions, including its character and locations. Improved infrastructure, car ownership, aviation and better integration of transport systems have increased people's action radius. World leisure and tourism demands continue to exceed expectations and show sustained growth, not even stopped by recent crises. Leisure and tourism have become major economic activities which add substantially to national economies and employment rates.

Consumer culture, based on intensified commodity circulation, has caused expanding leisure industries to provide an increasing and varied supply. The range of leisure and tourism products and activities becomes ever more diverse and dynamic (Mommaas et al. 2000; Meethan 2001). Products, services and places are no longer primarily assessed and chosen for their functional value but for their symbolic and experiential value. The expected experience value of products and activities has become increasingly dominant (Jensen 1999; Pine and Gilmore 1999; Schulze 1992). Free time is seen less as "spare time" than as "ultimate experience time" (Metz 2002) and people expect assured leisure satisfaction. Traditional supplies of sun, sea and pleasure or a simple, tranquil stroll in the countryside no longer suffice. Consumers have become very demanding. They expect high-quality goods and services and unique, memorable experiences. In their competition to attract consumers, leisure industries and authorities have introduced new, ever more spectacular, leisure and tourism facilities, and transformed landscapes. However, these tendencies to intensify, enlarge, multiply or accelerate experiences are counteracted by a re-appreciation of their counterparts: modesty, deceleration, quietness and complete relaxation.

A greater diversity in lifestyles, values and attitudes implies that the behaviour of consumers and travellers will be harder to predict and marked by a greater diversity. It is increasingly polarised into large global players and regional ones, in fact, thereby losing its middle ground (Nordin 2005).

Small independent tour operators thrive in highly differential niche markets. In the UK, for example, there is a strong demand for specialist activities such as walking, cycling and golfing holidays (Mintel Group 2006). The English Tourism Council describes some of the changing values and attitudes likely to have an impact on tourism and these include, for instance, a growing search for more authentic products: a focus on nostalgia, roots, other cultures and identity, an increasing interest in spiritual and intellectual activity (Veer and Tuunter 2005).

Figure 40. Tourism: actual growth and forecast



Source: www.unwto.org/facts/menu.html

Rural tourism, despite the crisis, is still a growing sector. This increase is caused by the development of new tourist markets and changing economies, in its turn caused by European integration. In practice, rural tourism usually involves small-scale, low-profile forms of leisure and tourism (Veer and Tuunter 2005).

Another growth market is health and fitness tourism, which can be seen as part of a larger societal trend that places an ever higher value on well-being and balance. With more material wealth and well-being, leisure has emerged as an ever more important value factor. Although health tourism has existed for a long time, being popular in many European (mountain) regions, its appeal has now broadened to a much larger market segment (Nordin 2005). Leisure and tourism have also changed through the arrival of new consumer groups: a rising number of urban dwellers; healthy and well-to-do senior citizens; tourists from growth markets such as central and eastern Europe and the group of "BRIC" countries (Brazil, Russia, India, China).

Significantly improved education levels have increased the demand for more complex forms of entertainment, often characterised by "active exploration" rather than passive consumption. At the same time, people are increasingly looking for simple pleasures, which they seek to find in the countryside: "peace and quietness", "space", "authenticity", "nature" and "health". Due to growing mobility and lower prices new, alternative, destinations have become accessible. As people's reach increases, the distinction between typical leisure and tourist destinations diminishes. A competitive, globalising market and high consumer demands have made quality a major distinctive factor. Remote places which offer high-quality, varied and safe leisure or tourist supply will be preferred over nearby mediocrity. Traditionally popular destinations are no longer obvious: if quality is inferior and no action is taken, decline is inevitable.

Leisure and tourism in facts and figures

Tourism is an economic activity capable of generating growth and employment in the EU, while contributing to development and economic and social integration (particularly rural and mountain areas, coastal regions and islands, outlying and outermost regions or those undergoing convergence). International tourist arrivals in Europe grew from 25.3 million in 1950 to 414.4 million in 2002, which represent a progression of 1537% in half a century (Leidner 2004). Although Europe is losing market share to other continents, it will remain the world's largest tourist-receiving region in the short and medium term, in both inbound and outbound international tourism (Spörel 2007). Six of the world's top 10 tourist destinations (in terms of arrivals) are in Europe: France, Spain, Italy, the United Kingdom, Germany and Austria (Mintel Group 2006). Tourism produces 5% of European GDP (ibid.) (Gross Domestic Product) and indirect, tourism-related spending produces another 10% of European GDP (ibid.). Depending on the definition of the sector, tourism employs 7 to 9 million persons in the European Union. If indirect employment is taken into account, over 20.6 million jobs could be recorded (the share of tourism employment varying between 4% and 12% of total EU employment, depending on the definition) (Leidner 2004). In total about 900 million holiday trips (88% of all nights spent in EU-25 collective accommodation), almost evenly distributed between short (1-3 nights) and long holidays (4 and more nights) were made by EU tourists in 2005. France, Germany, the United Kingdom and Spain together accounted for almost two-thirds of these trips (Spörel 2007). Inbound tourism takes a considerable share: residents represent almost 60% of all nights spent in collective accommodation in 2005 (Spörel 2007).

In addition, the three main destinations for outbound tourism, measured by the number of trips of four nights or more are Spain, Italy and France. Germany, the United Kingdom and the Netherlands generate most tourism in the EU-25 (Spörel 2007). Germany is set to reinforce its number one world ranking in 2006 in terms of international tourism expenditure, with the United Kingdom and France in the top four as well. If current trends are maintained, the Russian Federation will continue to be one of the markets offering the best growth potential over the foreseeable future (ETC 2006).

Over recent decades, travel and tourism have been large contributors to the world economy. International tourism has been growing at a slightly faster pace than the world economy and this seems likely to continue in the long term despite the current recession. International tourism has been the fastest-growing component of tourism, although for many OECD countries it remains less important than domestic tourism. While its economic importance varies widely, it is clear that tourism plays a crucial role in supporting economic growth and development, in sustaining employment and in generating foreign currency receipts. OECD countries continue to play a predominant role in international tourism, both for outbund and inbound flows. Tourism enterprises have contributed greatly to the overall, employment increase in the OECD. In the OECD area, for example, the employment growth rate in the hotel and restaurant industry exceeded 2% per year between 2000 and 2007, more than a percentage point ahead of the total employment growth rate (OECD 2010).

International tourist arrivals in the pan-European region continue to grow, as does the economic importance of the tourism industry in some traditional and new destination countries. Growth is particularly rapid in south-east Europe and eastern Europe, the Caucasus region and central Asia (EECCA), but from a far lower level than in western and central Europe, which remains the main tourist destination globally, with 43% of the world total arrivals (EEA 2007). Although accurate statistics about leisure-related expenditures cannot be found on a European scale, national statistics suggest that they exceed tourism expenditures.

Global crisis

Tourism has been variably impacted by the financial and economic crisis that hit the global world economy in 2008 and 2009. Tourism flows started to decline in the second half of 2008 (inbound OECD arrivals declined by 1.8% in the third quarter of 2008, compared to the third quarter of 2007 and by 4.3% in the fourth quarter of 2008, compared to the fourth quarter of 2007); that decline deepened at the beginning of 2009 (–12.5% and –6.5% respectively in the first and second quarters of 2009). International tourism has been affected more than domestic tourism, business tourism more than leisure tourism, hotels more than other types of accommodation and air transport more than other types of transport.

Paradoxically, certain forms of tourism have been impacted only slightly or have even experienced growth in this crisis period. For example, cruise tourism fared pretty well and the 2008-09 winter season in the Alps enjoyed a record year (OECD 2010). Demand trends have been changing tourism; in particular, there is a tendency towards more frequent trips during the year, coupled with shorter individual stays. Over the last decades, competition on tourism markets has sharpened with the emergence of new destinations (OECD 2010).

Different types of tourism and leisure

The conventional form of tourism, the package holiday, is generally labelled mass tourism. Alternative forms of tourism, often labelled "independent" or "rural tourism" if they are geographically situated away from urbanised (seaside and mountain) areas, are predominantly believed to play a pivotal role.

Main segments are agritourism (tourism related to the participation in agricultural activities), cultural tourism (based on cultural resources), ecotourism (based on natural resources), active tourism (sports and adventure), and health tourism (physical and mental personal care, wellness). However, the distinction between mass tourism and "independent" tourism is not as strict and clear as it seems. These days, many hybrids exist and a variety of package deals is offered in "independ ent" segments. Consequently, it is very difficult to get hold of reliable data on the relative share of mass tourism and "independent" segments.

Hall et al. (2003) estimate the contribution of rural tourism to the total supply at 10% to 25%. In 2002, the World Tourism Organisation estimated yearly growth rates of 6% against an average of 2%. Some countries in southern and eastern Europe showed much higher rates, up to 20%. According to the European Federation of Rural Tourism, Eurogîtes, there are about 400 000+ rural accommodation units in Europe /4 million+ bed places. The multiplier ratio of rural tourism is above 2.2 (one euro of tourism spending creates 2.2 euros for the local economy).

Agritourism is a substantial complementary income: four bed places create income equivalent to one employment and in Austria for example, one out of five farmers provide this service (Ehrlich 2006). "Ecotourism, in the strictest sense of the word, still only accounts for a small proportion of the total tourism market. Current estimates are between 3-7% of the market" (WTTC, WTO and Earth Council 1996). Tourist volumes throughout Europe are increasing. Tourism is often fragmented: its growth is concentrated in specific environments and destinations, creating localised pressures. Tourism generally makes heavy calls on environmental resources.

However, tourism makes major contributions to economic development in many places throughout Europe. Inbound tourism expenditure in the pan-European region in 2005 was more than US$338 billion. Moreover, tourism is an important factor in social development and cohesion; at the pan-European level the travel and tourism industry provided employment for an estimated 12 million people in 2006.

The challenge remains to develop and encourage patterns of tourism that do not jeopardise the benefits to tourists, the local and national economies, and the natural resources of the areas and countries visited. Sustainable tourism development is widely recognised as a way of fostering the economic and social viability of destinations (WTTC, WTO and Earth Council 1996).

On observation of the world tourism maps on the website Worldmapper (www.worldmapper.org), four trends emerge.

Tourist destinations (map no. 19[2]): Western Europe is the most popular destination for international tourists. The region received 46% of world tourists in 2003.

Tourist origins (map no. 20[3]): The size of territories is proportionate to the number of residents who have been on a tourist trip abroad. Of the 665 million tourist trips made in 2003 most were made by residents of western and eastern Europe and North America.

Net in-tourism (map no. 21[4]): The size of territories is proportionate to the number of tourists they receives minus the number of tourists who leave the territory each year. France and Spain together receive over one third of world net tourism. Spain, which receives fewer visits than France, is visited three times more than the next three territories with high net tourism: they are Austria, Italy and China.

Net out-tourism (map no. 22[5]): The size of territories is proportionate to income from world tourism in 2003 (dollars). This money mainly goes to rich countries such as the United States, Spain, Italy and France.

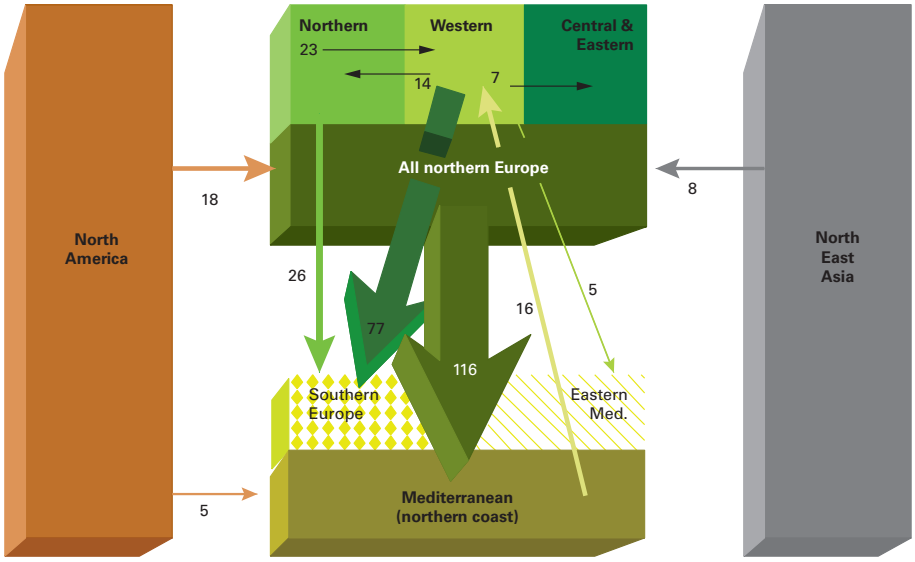
2. www.worldmapper.org/posters/worldmapper_map19_ver5.pdf
3. www.worldmapper.org/posters/worldmapper_map20_ver5.pdf
4. www.worldmapper.org/display.php?selected=21
5. www.worldmapper.org/display.php?selected=22

2. LEISURE AND TOURISM AS DRIVING FORCES FOR REGIONAL AND LANDSCAPE DEVELOPMENT

Because of their great economic importance, leisure and tourism are increasingly seen as the main contributor to current and future regional economies and their landscapes. Isolated locations, difficult climate conditions, inaccessible terrain and suchlike hamper the economic viability of agriculture in various areas. Leisure and tourism developments are supposed to provide declining communities with alternatives to stay alive. Great scenic or natural beauty have become important assets for leisure and tourism development. Lively and strong cultural identity and traditions can also contribute to the tourist potential of a region. (European Commission 2004; Jouen 2000). Derelict areas are being transformed from hostile no-go areas into attractive leisure destinations with the objective to create new employment and attract new residents. In regions where the dominant position of agriculture is under pressure due to urbanisation, processes of transformation and diversification can be observed as well. In rural areas agriculture increasingly has to compete with other sectors and functions which are claiming their place in the countryside. Entrepreneurs have to deal with increasing competition and different requirements with regard to the quality of products, production processes, plant and animal health, welfare and the environment. Rural areas are in demand both in terms of housing and leisure activities. This in turn leads to new opportunities for socio-economic developments (Veer and Tuunter 2005). Leisure and tourism are considered important economic supports of future rural economies.

All these processes combined to cause major changes at the local, regional, national and international scale. Leisure and tourism have made a substantial contribution to changing the landscapes of Europe. These processes are complex, multifaceted phenomena influenced by a variety of economic, sociocultural and other driving forces. Depending on the context, these driving forces are dealt with in many different ways, causing both positive and negative impacts. Some landscapes turn out to be temporarily attractive, geared towards short-term economic profits; others prove long-lasting, beautiful, attractive and imaginative. Leisure and tourism act like parasites; consuming life, space and meaning without regard. "In the sheer volume of its geographical flows and presence impact, tourism represents a highly effective factor of change in the landscape" (Terkenli 2002). "The pre-existing landscape is either greatly modified (as heritage planning in urban areas) or totally obliterated (as with the building of Disney theme-parks)" (Rodaway 1995). Yet leisure and tourism can also create new landscape qualities and contribute to sustainable landscape development, settling a symbiotic relation with mutual profits. Positive and negative impacts often turn out to be two sides of the same coin: people and regions profit from leisure and tourism developments, but these come at a price. The development of leisure and tourism needs to be subjected to careful planning in order to become and remain a valuable contributor to people and landscape. "Sustainable development" strategies attempt to find more well-balanced approaches.

Figure 41. Major tourism flows within and into Europe in 2000 (million arrivals)



Travel research international from World Tourism Organization data.

Some landscapes have become mono-functional tourist areas, others have absorbed leisure and tourism activities while maintaining their original character. Some areas have been popular destinations for many decades, or even centuries, others recently appeared on the scene.

> Over-reliance on tourism, especially mass tourism, carries significant risks to tourism-dependent economies and their landscapes. Economic recession and the impacts of natural disasters, as well as changing tourism patterns, can have a devastating effect on the local tourism sector. (UNEP-DTIE 2002)

The North Sea for example has encountered a serious competitor in the Baltic Sea after the fall of the Iron Curtain.

The British countryside suffered severely from foot-and-mouth disease. With the intention of controlling the spread of the disease, public rights of way across land were closed by order. As walkers play a vital role in the British rural economy, the ban severely damaged the popularity of areas such as the Lake District. Mass tourist areas, scenic landscapes, cities and highly urbanised regions, the main tourism and leisure destinations of Europe, are all undergoing many changes.

3. EUROPEAN LANDSCAPE REGION TYPOLOGY

The Recommendation Rec(2002)1 of the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe on the guiding principles for sustainable territorial development of the European Continent uses a typology to describe and analyse the different developments and approaches in the vast European territory. They refer to mountains, seas and islands, rivers, cities, and so on. In this report, more or less the same components of landscape are used. By doing so we also follow the lines of the European-wide study *Greetings from Europe: landscape and leisure* (Hazendonk et at 2008).

3.1. Areas of mass tourism

Apart from cities – which attract many tourists – coastal and mountain areas are the most popular tourist landscapes. Large parts of these landscapes have been completely transformed and adapted to tourism, consisting of agglomerations of mass tourist resorts.

Landscape qualities that were once the main motive for tourist developments have become side issues. Amusement, shopping and social activities come to the forefront. Souvenir shops, theme parks, clubs, discotheques and marinas with luxurious yachts have surpassed beaches and picturesque fishing ports as major attractions.

Coasts, islands and mountains – and in general settings characterised by attractive natural resources – remain particularly sensitive to tourism development. Degradation, sometimes irreversible, has already occurred in some popular and mass destinations (EEA 2007). In popular alpine tourist resorts, the "après-ski" seems to have replaced the ski slopes as the main attraction.

Increased consumption in mass tourist areas puts pressure on scarce natural resources. Environmental impacts range from land-take to habitat fragmentation and biodiversity loss, over-use of water and energy, and the need for additional waste and wastewater disposal facilities. Pressure on areas surrounding harbours is also common.

One of the most critical resources is fresh water. Excessive personal use and a rise in facilities such as swimming pools and golf courses have led to scarcity, especially in dryer regions and on small islands. In terms of water consumption, it is well known that tourists consume more than residents. In Majorca, for example, UNEP reports daily average water consumption of 440 litres by tourists, compared with 250 by residents in urban areas and 140 by residents in rural areas. (UNEP in UNWTO 2004) In the Balearics, for example, as a result of this, groundwater levels have dropped over 90 metres since 1975 (IUCN 1996). A benchmarking exercise for accommodation establishments (Hamele and Eckardt 2006), based on data collected from a few hundred businesses in west and central Europe, has calculated an average water consumption per overnight stay in a hotel of 394 litres, the benchmarking value being 213 litres; water consumption in a campsite was 174 litres per overnight stay, against a benchmarking value of 96 litres. Similar gaps between average and benchmarking values were recorded for energy consumption; 77.2 kWh per overnight stay in a hotel against a benchmark of 30 showing that lower consumption, and thus lower pressures on local resources, is possible.

Vast numbers of tourists also produce large amounts of waste. Many small communities have increasing difficulty dealing with this mountain of rubbish. On Majorca and Ibiza, relatively small islands, authorities have had to introduce tourist taxes to deal with waste and litter caused by the millions of tourists who visit each year (www.iucn.org) (IUCN 1996). In 1994 the International Federation of Tour Operators presented a study, examining the development and corresponding environmental and economic impact of tourism on Majorca over the past 40 years (Selwyn 1994). The study then proceeded to test its broad applicability

on Rhodes, another Mediterranean island, which, unlike Majorca then, was on the brink of intensive tourist development.

Many resorts show little respect for local and regional identity. Ski resorts all over Europe are being built in a generic alpine-look tourist chalet style which has little to do with traditional building styles and their subtle local architectural differences. Some examples are known where new quality landscapes in modernist style are created, such as Flaine, the ski resort in the French Alps, by Marcel Breuer.

3.2. Coast

Since the seaside is the favourite destination for most Europeans, coastal areas and islands are subject to significant pressures. Land-take for tourism-related buildings and infrastructure (for example, hotels, second homes, apartments, leisure and commercial activities and marinas) has historically occurred along the French Riviera and the Spanish coast (Costa del Sol and Costa Brava), sustained by the growth of a European middle class, but it has been occurring as a development model in other coastal areas, such as Brittany, the South Baltic, around the Black Sea (EEA 2006) and lately Turkey. In Italy, for example, 43% of the coast is completely built up.

Figure 42. Transformation of landscape by tourism

Playa del Ingles is an example of where tourism has totally urbanised and transformed landscape. Source: Hazendonk et al. 2008.

Coastal regions often account for the highest number of bed places; the number per inhabitant (tourism intensity, usually expressed per 100 inhabitants) is an indicator of accommodation capacity and it highlights potential socio-economic pressures. In the EU-25, within the 10 highest values were six island/coastal regions (Committee of Regions of the European Union – COR 2006): Balearic Islands, Spain (52.5 bed places per 100 inhabitants), Notio Aigaio, Greece (49), Corsica, France (42.3), Ionia Nisia, Greece (34.6), Algarve, Portugal (33.3) and Zeeland, the Netherlands (30.1).

The construction of accommodation, infrastructure and other tourist facilities has changed landscapes and has had severe physical impacts such as land degradation and damaged coastal and alpine ecosystems. The same can be said for tourist activities: intensive and unsustainable use of vulnerable ecosystems, such as marine and coastal areas and alpine regions, contribute to the loss of biodiversity and cause erosion. The Alps, for example, have managed to obtain 12% of the worldwide sales in tourism. But the 40 000 kilometres of ski runs that have been created for tourism have brought about large deforestation and severe erosion. Adaptation to climate change may increase the impacts of tourism on the environment. Reduction of areas with reliable snow coverage (66% in the Alps, under the worst scenario) may result in higher pressures from winter tourism (EEA 2007). Biodiversity also suffers due to trampling and disturbance (In't Veld et al. 2006).

Besides causing pressure on natural resources, tourism also leads to socio-economic pressure. Small communities host numbers of visitors that far exceed their own population.

Once areas become more attractive to tourists, everyday living costs and real estate prices rise, often making places unaffordable for those people who grew up in them. The development of tourism can produce cutting contrasts of rich tourism enclaves in poor surroundings and can negatively affect the relationship between hosts and visitors. In addition, reliance on tourism makes regions very vulnerable.

In spite of these influences (potentially) leading to negative impacts, examples of responsible tourism development strategies exist as well. Artist César Manrique, for example, encouraged tourism development of the Canary Island of Lanzarote based on environmental capacity and local identity. He lobbied successfully for the use of traditional materials and colours in buildings and for a ban on high-rise hotels on the island. Nowadays, a new land-use plan is being developed for Lanzarote to refresh this old inspiration for the sustainable development of the island and its tourism. Tourism is the carrier of the island's economy and thus its landscape. An example for this plan and other island developments could be the land-use plan for Menorca.

Figure 43. Sustainable landscape development

Islands are good places for experiments on sustainable landscape-oriented development. A long-familiar example is the development strategy of Lanzarote inspired by Manrique. Source: Hazendonk et al. 2008.

The areas of mass tourism most likely to become the subject of change are those that have a narrow focus. Most coastal tourist resorts, for example, have aimed to attract mass tourism by focusing on market segments at the lower end of the socio-economic scale.

Price was favoured over quality and standards. However, times have changed. People are no longer content with just sun, sea and amusement. The experienced tourist has come to expect better quality and a more varied supply. This has led to the diversification of leisure and tourism, creating new and different segments: sports and adventure, culture, wellness and nature. Hinterland landscapes of main tourist destinations are likely to be exploited and developed in order to meet contemporary needs and wishes, and to compensate for decreased expenditure.

3.3. Cities and urbanised regions

The major driving force behind the use and adjustments of landscapes for leisure purposes is ongoing urbanisation. The physical pattern of urban growth in Europe is predominantly one of urban sprawl.

Not all cities are expanding; some regions experience urban shrinkage, most noteworthy in post-socialist central and eastern Europe, and especially in former eastern Germany. The collapse of industries, unable to cope in a highly competitive global market, has led to high levels of unemployment, forcing people to move away. In the coming decades, more and more regions will experience this shrinkage.

Figure 44. Leisure activities

Rome: most leisure activities take place in an urban environment. Source: Hazendonk et al. 2008.

Most leisure activities take place in urban environments. "Citizens prefer urban areas over the countryside, not only in general but also for outdoor recreation" (Harms 2006). Even for outdoor recreation, walking and cycling, about two thirds of the activities take place in urban areas. In the Netherlands, 90% of leisure activities in "green" areas take place in the city (Davegos et al. 2004); public gardens, parks and park forests are very popular leisure environments. However, many cities suffer from high deficiencies of

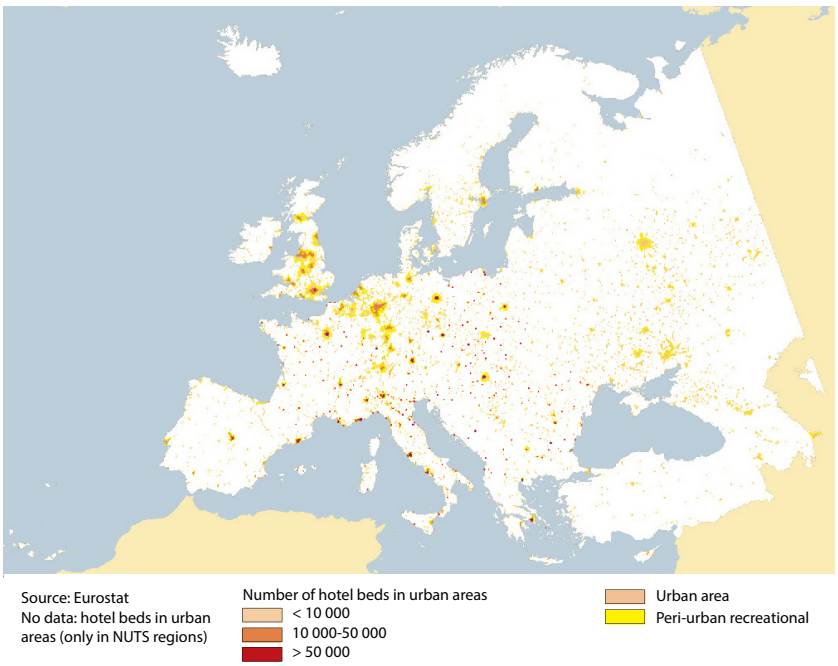
green areas for leisure purposes and people generally are not prepared to travel long distances for (leisure) activities undertaken on a regular basis. As a result, pressure on peri-urban areas is high. Attractive cultural and natural landscapes in the vicinity of urban areas are increasingly being adjusted to accommodate leisure needs and wishes of urban dwellers. The predominant land use may still be agriculture or nature, but the character of these landscapes is plural and diverse. When agricultural landscapes in the vicinity of urban areas are considered unattractive or unsuitable to accommodate large volumes of visitors, recreation areas, park forests, golf courses and other outdoor recreation areas are being developed, as enclaves or intertwined with other land use.

On a landscape scale most of Europe's metropolises have developed several green systems, often based on urban forests (Konijnendijk et al. 2005). There are several typologies of green system landscapes, such as the finger model (Copenhagen and Amsterdam), a green heart (the Netherlands), or the greenbelt of London. Most capitals have a famous city forest, some of which are ancient (Paris, Berlin, Brussels and London), sometimes developed in the last century (Amsterdamse Bos or Parque Monsanto of Lisbon).

For non-regular or incidental leisure activities however, people tend to accept longer distances and more travel time. From a supply point of view, it means that the catchment area of recreation and tourist attractions has increased. Major attractions like Disneyland Paris in France or Europa Park in Germany have only been able to flourish because of increased mobility and people's changing habit of going on holiday more than once a year.

These mass attractions tend to be located in the vicinity of metropolitan areas. Cities and theme parks profit from their mutual presence and good access.

Figure 45. Urban tourism and recreation



Source: Hazendonk et al. 2008: 192.

Cities are popular tourist destinations as well; they are short trip destinations par excellence with their accumulation of diverse attractions and events. In London, tourists buy 30% of theatre tickets and account for half of all visits to London attractions. Commercialised entertainment has become indispensable for urban economies; therefore urban revitalisations have become crucial for feasibility and survival (Hannigan 1998). In 2004, city tourism had a share of 38% of all European outbound travel (UNWTO 2004). Germany and the UK are the two top source markets of European city tourism demand; Paris and London are the favourite destinations.

The explosive growth of low-cost carriers has also made a major contribution to the growth of urban tourism. Many cities that were previously out of reach have now become viable options for a weekend break, or short holiday, and provide direct competition for short holidays in one's own country. In France, for example, average tourism growth rates are about 2%, but for Paris these are 9%. Non-urban landscapes follow these trends. For example, access to the Costa Brava takes place through Gerona, which is a low-cost carrier airport.

Also city trips open up, or reopen, attention to certain regions and landscapes and promote their economy through the growth of tourism.

Second residences

Second residences have become more and more popular, either in the home country or abroad. Most second homes are acquired for leisure purposes.

> The proportion of second homes across the EU varies considerably, with some of the highest concentration located in Southern European countries, because of both the high local demand and their attraction as classic holiday destinations. In countries such as Greece, Italy, France and Spain, between 10 and 15% of housing stock is comprised of second homes. Although Southern Europe is better known for its second homes, there is also a high proportion of second residences in Northern Europe, because of the number of affluent countries in the region. […] Northern and Eastern countries have their own very specific traditions on "second" homes, datsjas and summer houses. The trend for second homes is likely to grow in the long term, because of cheap flights and lower living costs abroad. (Ball 2005)

A large share of the rural second houses in Europe seems to be coastal, especially in France, Greece and Spain (Gallent and Tewdwr-Jones 2006). The distance from owners to their second home has increased: where, for instance, the Dutch previously had homes in northern France, nowadays Spain and even Morocco and Turkey are in the picture. The economic crisis, combined with the real estate crisis, has and will have a great effect on the second home market (Koutoulas 2008). In the long run this will also influence the surrounding landscapes and their development.

Para-tourism

The importance of the connected phenomenon of "para-tourism" is (as for landscape development) no longer negligible. Tourists come and go, but holiday homes that sometimes become permanent addresses, are here to stay. Retired people, or even the active population, choose increasingly to live in their former holiday destination,

often mature destinations. The transforming of tourist areas into homes is another stage in the landscape evolution of Provence, Catalonia, Tuscany, Andalusia, the Balearic Isles and Istria.

Even if those with holiday homes, or new arrivals, should have something to say in the governance of the tourist regions, which are progressively becoming "shared landscapes", the speed of change and a lack of preparation can give the impression of an invasion. In relation to landscape management, it seems clear that the newcomers have a different background and lack knowledge of the *genius loci*. In any case, this phenomenon leads to diversification of the local economy. On the Languedoc coastline (France), for instance, the resort La Grande Motte, created in 1966, now combines a town-resort of residents and a tourist-resort for temporary summer visitors. These two groups mix with local visitors, those with holiday homes and the winter holidaymakers who are increasing.

3.4. Scenic landscapes and their appreciation

While amusement and social motives appear to prevail in mass tourist areas, scenic landscapes are, first of all, valued for their landscape qualities: scenic views, cultural heritage, wildlife and picturesque villages.

The English Tourism Council describes some of the changing values and attitudes likely to have an impact on tourism: a growing search for more authentic products, a focus on nostalgia, roots, other cultures and identity, and an increasing interest in spiritual and intellectual activity (Veer and Tuunter 2005). These trends are articulated in the emergence of products that capitalise on the cultural resources of a certain area. Cultural tourism is defined by the Association for Tourism and Leisure Education (ATLAS), a network of universities with research interests in tourism and leisure, as "[t]he movement of persons to cultural attractions away from their normal place of residence, with the intention to gather new information and experiences to satisfy their cultural needs". Many sub-categories can be identified, such as agritourism, heritage, spiritual and gastronomic tourism. Motivations may be very different but nature, experience and cultural authenticity are always core factors. The popularity of many of these landscapes lies in their supposed unspoilt and authentic character.

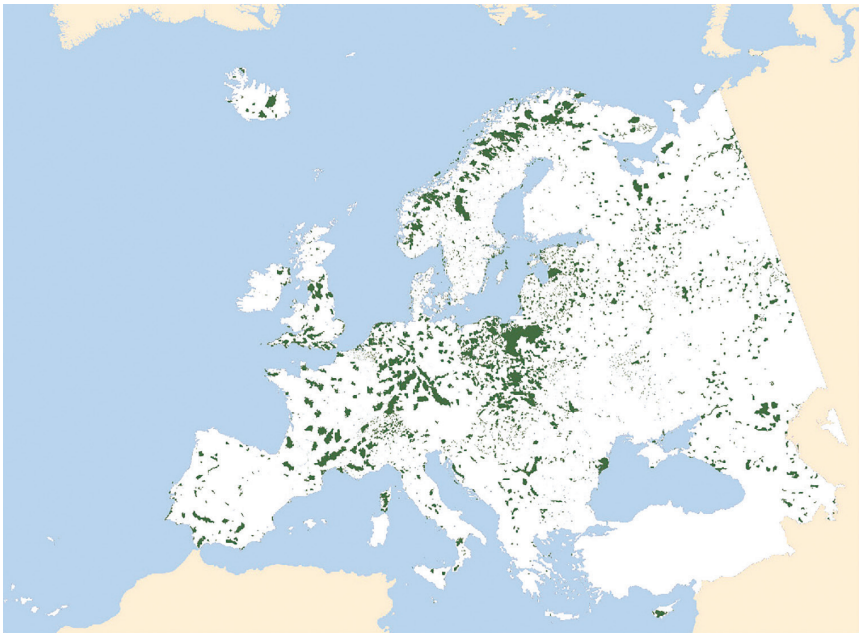
Figure 46. Recreational value of forests

Forests are widely appreciated for their recreational values which range from nature appreciation to intensive use for picnic and sporting activities. Source: Hazendonk et al. 2008.

Other landscapes are especially attractive for their natural qualities. Nature areas and rural landscapes attract people who enjoy landscapes for their natural beauty and like to watch wildlife. Again, the concept of unspoilt, intact landscapes prevails: the "wilder" the better. Obviously, this is all illusion, as most landscapes have undergone major changes. In countries such as Germany, Denmark, Sweden, France and Italy structural transformations date back to the beginning of the 20th century or the 1950s. In other countries such as Portugal, Ireland, Spain, Greece and Finland the countryside has only recently had to deal with problems such as the exodus of the rural population, increasing unemployment and the accelerated restructuring of production. In addition, tourism itself has caused considerable change to scenic landscapes. The more these landscapes are physically adjusted to leisure purposes, the less "wild" and authentic they become. Like areas of mass tourism, they have been adjusted for tourist purposes, though not that radically. Tourist facilities and accommodations were developed, the landscape was opened up, natural and landscape features were transformed into tourist attractions. However, compared to mass tourist resorts, entrepreneurship is more local, individual and less organised.

Scenic landscapes are subject to fundamental economic and sociocultural changes caused by leisure and tourism. Leisure and tourism can improve local liveability, for example by means of better infrastructure and investments in green space and recreational areas. Residents benefit from commercial (shops) and public (cultural events and communal activities) facilities that are primarily developed for tourism. In rural areas with pressurised and heavily subsidised agricultural sectors, leisure and tourism form a welcome diversification of the local economies, as rural leisure and tourism are closely related to the consumption of locally-produced goods. "Leakage" – tourist spending that leaves the local economy through the import of goods and services – is significantly lower than in the case of mass package tourism. Tourism and recreation are beneficial for the local labour market and can help counteract the depopulation of the countryside.

Figure 47. Protected landscapes



Common Database of Designated Areas UNEP/EEA; Federal Agency for Nature Conservation, Germany; Environmental Agency Slovenia; Institute of Soil Science and Plant Cultivation Pulawy; no data: Turkey, Albania. Source: N. Hazendonk et al. 2008: 190.

Positive spin-offs for the environment are the improved environmental management and planning of the area. Similar to the improvement of local awareness of the value of cultural heritage to a community, tourism can raise awareness of the value of natural resources. Visitation and appreciation of natural areas will increase the willingness of local and national governments to invest in nature preservation. In some cases visitors contribute directly to the finance of natural park protection. Many scenic landscapes have come under strict protection to conserve their special qualities. These areas are designated as national parks, national landscapes, protected area network parks, areas of outstanding natural beauty and a variety of other conservation formulae.

Figure 48. Commoditised landscape

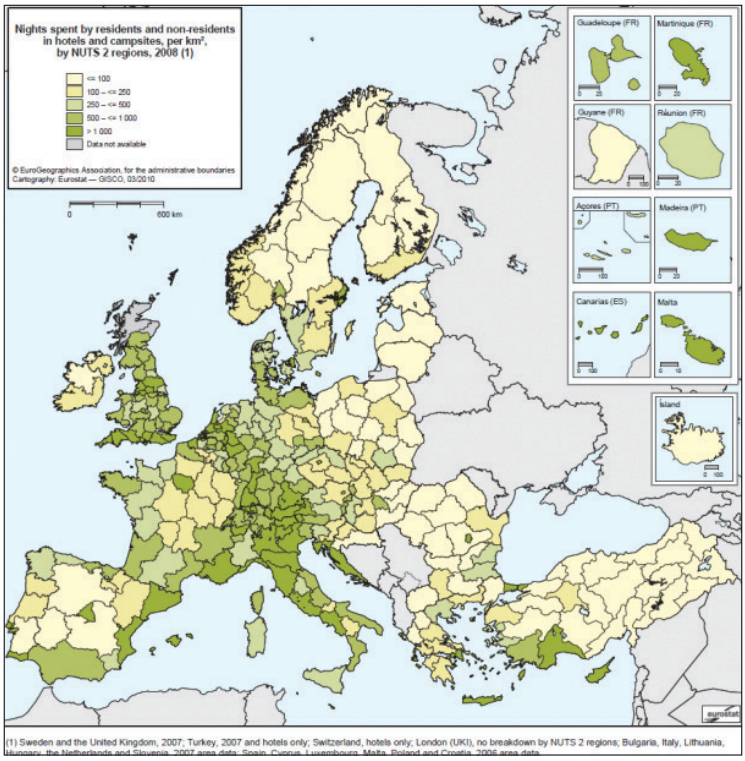
Landscapes are packed, commoditised and presented for consumption. Photo: Aarsman

Yet the impacts of leisure and tourism are not purely positive. It is clear that scenic landscapes have to cope with both positive and negative impacts of leisure and tourism.

Often, there appear to be two sides of one coin. "The seasonal character of much tourism may create problems for destinations that are heavily dependent on it" (UNEP-DTIE 2002). Negative impacts include increased traffic and littering. Vulnerable ecosystems and heritage sites can suffer degradation at the hand of uncontrolled tourism. Moreover, when the social and cultural carrying capacity of local communities is overexploited, tourism can cause clashes. Areas are increasingly subjected to extensive regional branding. "Rural areas are becoming a green backdrop setting for present-day pleasure. Landscapes are packed, commoditized and presented for consumption; the more 'authentic' the better" (Metz 2002:181). When religious rituals, traditional ethnic rites and festivals are reduced and sanitised to conform to tourist expectations, and the original identity is lost (Metz 2002:181), commoditisation becomes a problem. Local "identity" and privacy of community members may deteriorate.

Current markets make demands on rural tourism in terms of quality, safety, hygiene and comfort. "While landscape, accommodation, food and drinks etc. must meet the visitors' desire for the new and unfamiliar, they must at the same time not be too new or strange because few visitors are actually looking for completely new things". (Metz 2002:181).

Figure 49. Tourist accommodation in 2008



Map showing nights spent by residents and non-residents in hotels and campsites. Source: NUTS 2.[6]

6. Nomenclature of Territorial Units for Statistics (French: Nomenclature des unités territoriales statistiques (NUTS)) is a geocode standard for referencing the subdivisions of countries for statistical purposes.

4. TOURIST MOBILITY

Tourism involves mobility. Touring has always been one of the origins of tourism and leisure. The evolution of leisure is strongly linked with that of mobility. Strolling, in contrast to walking, has from the beginning had both a leisure and a personal development purpose. The "parkway" and "autobahn" concepts as types of development of automobile infrastructure landscapes were invented primarily for leisure purposes. The first highways in France and Italy served touristic purposes and were sponsored by the national touring clubs. In the Netherlands, and probably in many other countries in Europe, half of all traffic movements are leisure-oriented.

Tourism is still one of the main drivers of increased demand for transport, particularly the most environmentally damaging and landscape-affecting modes: private cars and, more critically, air transport. In Europe, in 2005, about 59% of the tourists reached their destination by road and 34% by air. Low-cost airlines are playing a significant role in increasing the mobility of visitors (EEA 2007).

The most environmentally damaging modes, car and air, are still the preferred ways of travelling to destinations (EEA 2006). Road travel is by far the dominant mode at the pan-European level, closely followed by air in western and central Europe and south-east Europe. Rail is still frequently used in EECCA. Access to tourist destinations needs to be managed on a wider scale than the individual locations, including at the trans-European level. For example, deregulation of the air transport system has widely encouraged the use of low-cost airlines, which in turn have sustained the growth of air transport and contributed to increasing the average distance travelled to a destination (EEA 2007). Anyway, it has had a profound impact on the landscapes concerned.

According to a market update (European Organisation for the Safety of Air Navigation – Eurocontrol 2006) covering 30 countries at the pan-European level, by May 2006 16.3% of all flights were by low-cost airlines. There are 50 low-cost carriers operating out of 22 countries. The UK is the biggest market with more than 32% of flights operated by low-cost companies, followed by Ireland; traditional destinations such as Spain, Italy and France have market shares ranging between 10% and 20%. The 11 member airlines of the European Low Fares Association reported 106 million passengers for 2006, about 15% of total air-transported passengers in 2005 to, from and within the EU-25 (Directorate General of the European Commission for statistical information – Eurostat 2007).

Marketing strategies, thus, do not always encourage environmentally sound behaviour, and their effects need to be counteracted by appropriate measures.

The example of low-cost carriers is self-evident. Firstly, city-oriented leisure-based activities are affected and, linked to this, leisure activities in countryside landscapes. Apart from the ecological effect on landscapes, it also affects the accessibility of landscapes and thus the distribution through Europe's landscapes of the tourism flows. Taking into account the increasing contribution of aviation to global climate change, the European Commission has proposed legislation to include the aviation sector in the EU Emissions Trading Scheme (ETS). According to the commission, this

will not significantly affect tourism, but will generally affect the growth in demand which will inevitably have some effect on tourism, since it is expected that compliance costs will be passed on to passengers (EEA 2006).

Other policy areas that interact with tourism, such as spatial planning, transport, energy and marine, remain key to tourism development. Therefore a clear need exists to rationalise measures that affect tourism through better regulations and policy co-ordination.

5. FUTURE CHALLENGES FOR EUROPEAN LANDSCAPES AND TOURISM

Preceding examples, facts and figures have shown that the influence of leisure and tourism on landscapes is extensive and radical. The affected landscapes include not only environments designed and built purely for leisure purposes but almost any landscape. Cityscapes, areas around urban agglomerations, traditional tourist landscapes, remote new tourist destinations in former peripheral regions; their meaning as leisure and/or tourist landscape increases. The main function of many landscapes is gradually shifting towards "offering relaxation, space and recreation" (Frerichs and Wijs 2001). It is obvious that such changing attitudes bring about different expectations of usefulness and experiential qualities. The more dominant the consumptive image of landscapes, the more obvious the process of commodification. Many regions attempt to make a profit from leisure and tourism, especially when other economic carriers are failing.

After all, leisure and tourism are major economic forces worldwide and Europe is still one of the major players. The impact of leisure and tourism is noticeable everywhere, from local daily life to international global flows, with complex interference on all levels. However, regional differences within Europe are manifold and dynamic. Both landscapes and local, regional and national contexts are diverse. Shifting tourist flows, ongoing urbanisation and changing wishes and demands force existing leisure and tourist areas to adjust in order to prevent decline and stimulate other areas to develop landscapes as leisure and tourist destinations.

The wish to make quick profits and the lack of interest from market parties and authorities has led to rapid, unregulated growth of low-quality leisure and tourist destinations. Landscapes have degenerated and suffered biodiversity loss and environmental problems. Where tourism was primarily focused on amusement and fun, and had little relation to landscape features, developments turned out to be nothing less than parasitic. These forms of tourism have degraded the environment, long-term economic viability, social structures and the cultural traditions of local landscapes and communities. The preceding paragraphs made clear that such impacts are certainly not restricted to mass tourist areas. Leisure and tourist developments can have diverse negative impacts if economic interests prevail one-sidedly. Yet, when landscapes hold the main assets on which the tourism industry depends and tourism flows are in proportion to the region's capacity, conservation and careful management of key qualities are a must. If mutual profits are better balanced, leisure and tourism can develop a symbiosis with local communities, and landscapes will thrive. Quality and sustainability are directly linked and interdependent.

"Sustainability principles refer to the environmental, economic, and sociocultural aspects of tourism development, and a suitable balance must be established between these three dimensions to guarantee its long-term sustainability. Sustainable tourism development guidelines and management practices are applicable to all forms of tourism in all types of destinations, including mass tourism and the various niche tourism segments" (UNEP-DTIE 1995). This statement emphasises that sustainable leisure and tourism are as complex and diverse as leisure and tourism in general. Sustainability is a concept open to various interpretations and elaborations. Different stakeholders in different contexts will produce different visions and solutions for different landscapes, based on the same general principles of sustainable development. The challenge is to develop sustainable forms of leisure and tourism taking people, planet and profit into account and elaborating them into size-fitting solutions that appeal to both local communities and visitors. It will add to the planning and management of "future changes in a way which recognises the great diversity and the quality of the landscapes that we inherit and which seeks to preserve, or even enhance, that diversity and quality instead of allowing them to decline", as formulated by the European Landscape Convention.

6. POLICY AND ACTION AT INTERNATIONAL LEVEL

The Convention on Biological Diversity and the EU's Sixth Environment Action Programme identified tourism as one of the key sectors having an impact on the natural environment (and thus the landscape). The general consensus among the various international organisations is that the integration of environmental dimensions in all major policy areas has to be the motif in the evolution of environmental policy. Full commitment to agreed measures can only be achieved by shared responsibility between the various parties involved, that is, governments, industry and the general public.

6.1. Worldwide organisations and international conventions

UNESCO's World Conference on Sustainable Tourism 1995 passed the Charter for Sustainable Tourism urging governments to draw up action plans for sustainable development applied to tourism. In the same year, three key international organisations – the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC), the World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) and the Earth Council – jointly produced a report "Agenda 21 for the travel and tourism industry: towards environmentally sustainable development" which translated Agenda 21 into a programme of action for travel and tourism.

WTO is the intergovernmental organisation for tourism. It developed a sustainable tourism development guide for local planners (UNWTO 1993). It has worked with various national tourist associations (NTAs) to develop courses on planning for sustainable tourism development at a local level.

WTTC is a global coalition of chief executive officers from all sectors of the travel and tourism industry. One of its primary goals is to promote environmentally compatible developments by establishing a policy framework for sustainability based on

Agenda 21 and by encouraging environmental industry initiatives such as the Green Globe programme. The prime objective was to provide low-cost, practical means for all travel and tourism companies to improve their cultural and environmental practice. It supports companies in entering a continuing cycle of improvement as well as helping adapt corporate culture and practice.

A growing number of tourist destinations are working with private sector companies to ensure that development which brings wealth and jobs to the community occurs in a sustainable way. It offers common Agenda 21-based standards, as well as global best practice techniques and technologies for such endeavours.

International conventions contribute further to developing international tourism activities in a sustainable manner. One good example for an environmental legislative framework on an international level is the Tourism Protocol of the Alpine Convention. All alpine states commit themselves to developing sustainable tourism in all alpine regions. Another example is the Mediterranean Tourism Charter, the primary objective of which is the preservation of the common heritage.

6.2. European organisations

Although it does not offer specific competence in tourism, the Treaty on European Union acknowledges that EU actions should include measures in this field in order to accomplish the other tasks which have been specifically assigned. The environmental objectives were set out in the Fifth Environmental Action Programme in 1992 where tourism was declared a priority field of action.

In 1995 the launch of wide consultation on the basis of the European Commission's Green Paper on the role of the Union in the field of tourism represented a major effort in the assessment of the needs and scope of community action. Among others, the paper described actions in progress in the field of tourism and the instruments it has for this purpose.

From an operational point of view, this period was marked by the finalisation of several programmes, the evaluation of implementation, and the definition and launch of new initiatives and proposals, such as the commission's proposal for a first multi-annual programme to assist European tourism, "Philoxenia".

Several activities have been implemented by the Council of Europe in recent years, in the field of tourism and the environment: the specialised colloquies on the themes of protection of the Mediterranean coast; seminars on specific problems in central and eastern European countries; topics such as tourism in forested and mountainous areas, protection of deltas, sustainable tourism development or the integration of socio-economic factors in tourism.

Within the special programmes for co-operation with central and eastern European countries, technical assistance has been provided in order to assist authorities in drafting their integrated schemes for the development of sustainable tourism.

The Pan-European Biological and Landscape Diversity Strategy established a co-ordinating framework for the conservation and sustainable use of nature and landscape throughout Europe. The strategy sought to integrate nature and landscape conservation

objectives into tourism and recreation policies and stimulate their ecological sustainability, in order to prevent significant damage to biological and landscape diversity.

Action Theme 2 of the Action Plan on Biological and Landscape Diversity 1996-2000 specifically dealt with the above-mentioned challenge of maximum integration of biological and landscape diversity conservation and its sustainable use into all economic and social sectors, including tourism and leisure (Eckert and Cremer 1997). The programme has stopped but the strategy is still valid.

The Pan-European Biological and Landscape Diversity Strategy provided a new and wider framework for environmental activities linked with tourism. They are pursued and enlarged upon by an intergovernmental group of specialists on tourism and environment which is working with the then 40 member states' relevant organisations for the promotion and implementation of the principles of sustainable tourism. Within this framework, a report on tourism and the environment in European countries was prepared and submitted to the Ministerial Conference, "Environment for Europe", (in Sofia in 1995). In the same document, landscape was first addressed at a European level.

The European Landscape Convention of the Council of Europe promotes the protection, management and planning of European landscapes and organises European co-operation on landscape issues. An important objective of the treaty is to incorporate and integrate landscape into sectoral policies such as leisure and tourism.

Many specific recommendations to member states have already been issued by the Committee of Ministers, one on the general policy for sustainable and environment-friendly tourism development (Recommendation No. R (94) 7) and two specific recommendations on a sustainable tourist development policy in protected areas (Recommendation No. R (95) 10); and on the development of sustainable environment-friendly tourism in coastal areas (Recommendation No. R (97) 9).

A colloquium on a new code of ethics in tourism was organised in 1996. The group of specialists has also launched pilot studies on tourism and the environment, aimed at enhancing Europe's natural and cultural heritage in the framework of their sustainable use for tourism. These pilot studies take into account the natural, sociocultural and financial considerations of the programmes, together with the transferability of the methods used in other European regions, with the aim of sustainable development through tourism.

A standard course on tourism and the environment has also been prepared in order to incorporate the requirements of biological and landscape diversity protection into the curricula in schools, institutes and universities where tourism is taught. Tourism has been studied by several organs of the Council of Europe as a multidisciplinary sector. The Parliamentary Assembly and the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe have devoted several discussions to the tourism issue in Europe. Recommendations on various tourism aspects have been issued, among them Recommendation 1133 (1990) on European tourism policies; Recommendation Rec(2003)1 on the promotion of tourism to foster the cultural heritage as a factor for sustainable development;

Recommendation No. R (94) 7 on a general policy for sustainable tourism and environment-friendly tourism development, and Recommendation No. R (95) 10 on a sustainable tourist development policy in protected areas.

Colloquies have been organised under the auspices of the Conference of Local and Regional Authorities of Europe (Eckert and Cremer 1997)[7].

6.3. Strategies and measures for a good relation between landscape and leisure

In collaboration with the travel and tourism industry, several European member states have taken initiatives with national strategies to promote sustainable tourism. Subsequently, the tourism industry developed environmental codes of practice (Eckert and Cremer 1997).

Individual regions and communities are primarily responsible for implementing measures towards sustainable tourism. Likewise, they should also be the key beneficiaries of tourism. Initiatives at local and regional levels are manifold – the activities aim at the following: responsible land-use planning; declaration of protected areas; and purposeful visitor-channelling in sensitive regions (Eckert and Cremer 1997).

Laws, rules and regulations

Potential solutions to the extensive (landscape) problems caused by tourism are being introduced in the form of programmes, strategies and guidelines within governmental, intergovernmental and non-governmental organisations. Nevertheless, the means of controlling the existing laws and regulations that do exist are limited. Some are explained below.

Parks and protected areas

Through national parks, individual governments have the means of successfully protecting vast ecosystems and landscapes. In order to support these favoured tourist destinations, the concept of sustainable tourism development receives special attention. In the context of its Action Plan for Protected Areas in Europe, the International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) Commission on National Parks and Protected Areas turned to governments in 1994 requesting that, for each protected area, management and zoning plans should be prepared in order to prohibit certain activities on a zone by zone basis. By publishing its report "Loving them to death?", the Federation of Nature and National Parks in Europe, while acknowledging the need for development in protected areas, stressed the need for a controlled and balanced tourism policy. Following the publication of this report, a European charter for sustainable tourism, to be adopted in European nature and national parks, was launched (Eckert and Cremer 1997). In 2012, 89 parks in nine European countries had

7. See also https://vimeo.com/groups/73659.

signed this charter and respect its principles for integrated management of tourism, protection of natural resources, support to the local economy and co-operation with the local population.

Natural and landscape protection laws

Denmark's coastal conservation laws are the most developed. The latest edition of these nature conservation laws extends the protected coastal strip. The laws and regulations dealing with city planning stipulate that all "undeveloped" coastal areas should remain protected natural resources. All local and regional authorities are requested to examine already existing plans to this end. Following a French decree of 1977 on the protection of nature, developments such as marinas and camp sites are subject to environmental impact assessment. Since 1993, with the amendment of the decree, golf courses and theme parks are also subject to such studies (Eckert and Cremer 1997).

Thanks to national parks, each government has the means to protect vast ecosystems successfully. In order to support these favoured tourist destinations, the concept of sustainable tourism development receives special attention. In the context of its Action Plan for Protected Areas in Europe, the IUCN Commission on National Parks and Protected Areas turned to governments in 1994 requesting that for each protected area, management and zoning plans should be prepared in order to prohibit certain activities (Eckert and Cremer 1997).

Eco-labels and competitions

A good technique to support sustainable development in tourism is by the promotion of competitions or awarding eco-labels. The objective is to encourage those responsible for tourism to increase their environmental commitment and to provide the tourist with help in choosing destinations, hotels, and so on (Eckert and Cremer 1997). In 2008, criteria for an Austrian tourism eco-label were under development to provide an incentive for environment-friendly management of tourist accommodation.

Since 1995 the project of eco-islands unites six European islands in a co-operation network. One of the islands included in the project is Hiiumaa, belonging to the Biosphere Reserve in Estonia. The aim of this co-operation is to study ways of developing environmentally sound tourism on the island. The Hiiumaa Green Label has been created (Eckert and Cremer 1997). Since 2009 the island has been involved in the Baltic Sea Ecoregion, another project with attention to sustainable tourism which includes 40 other initiatives.

Competitions of environment-friendly tourism communities have been organised, such as in the 1990s by the German Tourist Board together with the German ministries of environment, trade and commerce. The competition produced an overview of the ecological effectiveness and economic efficiency of initiatives and activities of almost 6 000 German tourist destinations. Also, performances in nature and landscape conservation were evaluated (Eckert and Cremer 1997).

Financial aspects

Tourism and leisure could be a source of finance for nature and landscape conservation and development. Possible mechanisms to realise this are direct and indirect ones:

- mechanisms related to the use of an area (entrances, users' fees, taxes, concessions);
- mechanisms related to experience of visitors (equipment and facilities, events, arrangements);
- the marketing of an area (merchandising and labelling, branding, cross-product marketing);
- the support of an area (donations, sponsoring and opt-in, in-kind support, friends of, investments).

The Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe recommended allocating part of the tax on overnight stays to financing environmental infrastructures and the preservation of the environment (Recommendation No. R (95) 10, relating to a policy for the development of sustainable tourism in natural protected areas). In Austria, the *Land* of Salzburg instituted in 1992 a tax on second homes that is allocated to local actions for preserving the landscape. The Balearic Islands levied an ecotax on hotel stays, and a tax on passenger transport to small islands is levied in France. A diving tax in the natural reserve in Medes Islands (Catalonia, Spain) generated 68% of the budget of the reserve.

7. SUSTAINABLE TOURISM IN EUROPE

When the EU first began to address the issue of tourism, it was already clearly concerned about the sector's environmental aspects. In the middle of the 1990s, the European Commission's Green Paper on the role of the Union in the field of tourism (COM (95) 97 final 4 April 1995) emphasised that an EU objective on tourism was a contribution to sustainable development.

The "Philoxenia" programme outlined actions to increase the quality of European tourism through the promotion of sustainability, such as the application of environmentally respectful management systems and a "European Tourism and Environment Prize".

The prize had three objectives:

- to publicise the concept of sustainability;
- to set up permanent communication between locals, tourism entrepreneurs, administrative representatives and the political sectors;
- to reward a wide-ranging "exemplary" policy in the field of tourism and the environment.

The tourism sector can benefit considerably from EU support. There have been many different schemes which provide funding: some grant schemes for environmental projects are relevant to players in the tourism sector.

The EU's financial instrument supporting environmental, nature conservation and climate action projects throughout the EU, the LIFE programme, supports demonstration projects for sustainable tourism, such as the protection of natural, cultural or traditional resources in regions that are economically dependent on these, as well as projects containing new concepts in environmental protection. Under the European Commission's action plan to assist tourism, a number of sustainable tourism pilot projects were supported financially: for example the transnational project, "Soft mobility in tourism resorts and regions", which aimed to improve the traffic situation in tourist resorts (Eckert and Cremer 1997).

The absence of a true common European policy in matters of tourism can be considered the main obstacle to the achievement of goals in relation to the EU tourism sector. The prevailing notion, then and now, that tourism is a sector in which the primary activity must happen at a state, regional or local level, and that EU actions must be only supplementary, has caused actions taken at a European level to be inefficient, resembling mere intentions rather than clear decisions.

7.1. Involvement of all affected sectors

At the beginning of the 21st century the need for sustainable tourism within the EU started to become widely felt and action in matters of tourism became a priority.

The EU followed international guidelines. Among others, in 1996 the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC), the World Tourism Organization (OMT) and the Earth Council drew up the Agenda 21 for the industry of travel and tourism. In 1999 the OMT general assembly adopted the Global Code of Ethics for Tourism, with a commitment to the principles of sustainability; it also adopted the document entitled *International Guidelines on Sustainable Tourism* (UNEP 1995) and the Convention on Biological Diversity. The EU presented the European Commission's White Paper "European transport policy for 2010: time to decide" to achieve more efficient and sustainable means of transportation for tourists.

The commission wrote up "Basic orientations for the sustainability of European tourism" (21.11.2003, COM(2003) 716), which outlined directive measures to be carried out by the EU and attempts to involve all parties with an interest in the tourism sector. This starts with the EU itself, and includes international organisations, national and local governments, private parties and, finally, citizens and tourists.

Important specific measures are the creation of a group dedicated to the sustainability of European tourism in 2004 (experts in representation of business associations, representatives of tourist destinations, labour and civil society organisations, administrations of member states and international organisations) and the creation of the European Agenda 21 on tourism (Villanueva-Cuevas 2011).

7.2. European Agenda 21 for tourism

The "Agenda for a sustainable and competitive European tourism" (19 October 2007, COM(2007) 621 final) insists on the need for the development of a European tourism industry which is more competitive and more respectful of the environment, that is to say, sustainable: an element whose quality sets it apart from other emerging destinations. In order to do this, the creation of sufficient public policies was fundamental, policies based on the sustainable management of destinations and the integration of sustainability in the actions of businesses and tourists (Villanueva-Cuevas 2011).

The European Commission outlined the following principles and invited all participating parties to respect them:

- take a holistic and integrated approach;
- plan for the long term;
- achieve an appropriate pace and rhythm of development;
- involve all stakeholders;
- use the best available knowledge;
- minimise and manage risk (the precautionary principle);
- reflect impacts in costs (user and polluter pays);
- set and respect limits, where appropriate;
- undertake continuous monitoring.

It encouraged all parties involved in the tourism sector to intensify their level of participation. In addition, it acknowledged its responsibility for action in these matters, continuing in the role of implementing initiatives at the European Union level with the following objectives:

- mobilising actors in the tourism sector to produce and share knowledge;
- promoting destinations of excellence;
- mobilising the financial instruments of the European Union;
- mainstreaming sustainability and competitiveness in European Commission policies.

The most important point came about as the result of the adoption of a new EU policy on tourism, developed in connection with the Treaty of Lisbon, and which featured sustainability as one of its basic tenets.

Until that time, attempts at sustainability were only made through sector-specific policies which influenced tourism, such as transport, for example, or isolated actions for the protection of specific territories in the European Union vulnerable to excessive tourism, such as the Protocol on Tourism from the Alpine Convention.

The problem of sustainability and landscape in European tourism could be found in the limited powers that the European Union had for imposing on member states a true EU policy in the tourism sector and in landscape matters. From the beginning of EU intervention in these matters, it has been held that the key actions in tourism should be locally based in their majority, because the member states, regions and

local entities are most directly familiar with the problems facing tourism, and these bodies are able to present solutions more quickly and more in accordance with the specificities of each territory, making it necessary for EU actions in the sector to remain absolutely respectful to the principle of subsidiarity. European measures could only provide added value to the actions of each state.

Many demanded that a specific chapter dedicated to tourism be included in the constituent treaties. Over and over again this was rejected, due to the limited possibility for EU action, lower budgetary limits for actions on tourism, a shortage of human resources in the common organisation of the sector, a certain lack of co-ordination between actions carried out by the member states, and more.

At the beginning of this century, a variety of factors contributed in a decisive way to a change in EU strategy on tourism: European tourism is growing, but below the world average, especially when compared to emerging destinations. Also, the need to respond to new challenges facing tourism (new internal destinations, outside competition, the lack of qualified labour, quality of services, the introduction of the euro, the deregulation of public transport and more) made it necessary to ensure a higher level of co-ordination. A new strategic framework was created for a genuine common policy on tourism.

This trend found definitive backing in its incorporation in the Treaty of Lisbon (Article 195 from the Consolidated Text of the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union, OJ, 30 March 2010, C 83/47) regarding specific material powers directed at the support, completion and co-ordination of actions by member states, thus moving towards clearer, more coherent action, ensuring the co-ordination of legal and regulatory provisions by member states.

It is certain that this new framework of action has seen results: focusing exclusively on the field of sustainable tourism, the informal ministerial meeting organised by the Spanish Presidency of the Council, held on 15 April 2010, was a decisive step, with the goal of obtaining the commitment of the EU and all member states to work towards a tourism sector that is more competitive, sustainable, modern and socially responsible.

In June 2010, the European Commission presented a communication based on these new powers in order to describe a wide range of measures that aim to foment European tourism and its evolution and adaptation to the challenging economic times we are currently facing (European Commission Communication, *Europe, the world's No. 1 tourist destination: a new political framework for tourism in Europe,* Brussels, 30 June 2010, COM(2010) 352 final). With this new framework the commission attempted to establish acceptable tourism that is based on four basic central ideas, one of which is to promote the development of sustainable, responsible and high-quality tourism.

In order to reach this goal, the European Commission outlined a series of specific measures, to:

- develop, on the basis of NECSTouR or EDEN, a system of indicators for the sustainable management of destinations;
- organise awareness-raising campaigns for European tourists;
- develop a European "Quality Tourism" brand, based on existing national experience;

- facilitate identification by the European tourism industry of risks linked to climate change and explore opportunities for developing and supplying alternative tourism services;
- propose a charter for sustainable and responsible tourism and establish a European prize for tourism businesses and destinations which respect the values set out;
- propose a strategy for sustainable coastal and marine tourism;
- establish or strengthen co-operation between the European Union and the main emerging countries (Brazil, Russia, India, China) and Mediterranean countries, to promote sustainable and responsible tourism development models, and the exchange of best practice.

7.3. Sustainability as an identity for European tourism

The European Union does not treat sustainability as it does other specific actions in the tourism sector. It is not just another line of action. It says that it will only consider tourism that is sustainable. It identifies competitiveness, quality and development of the European tourism business model with sustainability to such a point that it considers the future of this sector will be tied to the quality of the tourist experience, in which sustainability must be integrated. In the opinion of the European Commission it should not be possible to speak of European tourism without speaking of sustainable European tourism.

Nevertheless, this must not prevent us from keeping in mind how tourism has been treated by the EU. Even if the EU now has new powers which can at least co-ordinate, complete and support the actions of the states for the achievement of a sustainable tourism, what is certain is that these states must develop, and whether they reach their goal will depend on their evolution (Villanueva-Cuevas 2011).

It will be the job of European institutions, the Council of Europe included, to teach the member states and regions that the future of European tourism must be based on sustainability as a path towards quality and competitiveness, but in such a way that this characteristic is the "mark of quality" for European tourism, not merely another characteristic.

We would suggest the marketing of this quality mark in Europe would present a trump card for Europe and the European landscapes. "Landscape" should be introduced to European policy, thereby strongly connecting it to the newest ideas about tourism policy at EU level.

8. PERSPECTIVES

In the following paragraphs we make tentative projections for the future, including recommendations on how the relationship between landscape and leisure should be dealt with in Europe, and outline a number of new tasks for policy makers, planners and landscape architects. It is a first draft of a vision on the leisurescapes of Europe.

On 19 October 2007 the European Parliament adopted, by a large majority, the "Agenda for a sustainable and competitive European tourism" (19 October 2007, COM(2007) 621 final) on new prospects and new challenges for sustainable European tourism. That, and later the European Commission Communication, *Europe, the world's No. 1 tourist destination: a new political framework for tourism in Europe* (30 June 2010, COM(2010) 352 final) marks a turning point in how we view tourism. Its content is interesting. The diagnosis of current tourism is incisive and includes numerous valuable recommendations which demonstrate a thorough understanding of the issue. The resolution expresses the broad consensus in the European Parliament on the urgent need to make tourism in Europe more sustainable. Nevertheless, the resolution is ambiguous, to say the least, when it comes to the issue of not allowing the drive for sustainability to jeopardise Europe's position in the tourism market. Sustainability is essential, but preferably without damaging the industry's competitive position. Whether that is feasible is the crux of the matter. Climate change, high energy prices and recently the economic crisis will inevitably force the leisure industry to pursue a different course.

Two diametrically opposed scenarios come to mind. One assumes continued globalisation and the increasing proliferation of leisure in society: the party – planning for growth. The other foresees globalisation and the associated growth of the leisure industry provoking such a reaction that drastic changes to the world as we know it will become unavoidable: after the party – planning for sustainability.

8.1. "Slow regions"

First and foremost, a durable collaboration and network needs to be created between all those involved in landscape and leisure. Collaboration between farmers at a regional level in agricultural co-operation, aimed at landscape conservation, is developing in many places. The most successful networking model is the Italian "slow region" approach in Tuscany and Umbria, which has emerged from the slow food movement.

The slow food movement was born of distaste for the fast food industry and the way regional food products, local cuisine with its wealth of flavours, traditional farming and cattle breeding were being ousted. It was initiated by a group of concerned private individuals and took shape in the late 1980s. Within a short time the organisation expanded into a horizontal collaboration, a network of farming co-operatives, shops and customers.

This network structure proved the ideal model for expanding the slow food movement, as the entire chain, from production to consumption, can be kept under close control. The promotion of slow food cannot survive without defence and restoration of the cultural landscape in which all these delicacies are produced. And so the movement was expanded and adopted a "slow region" approach, based on the combined marketing of accessible countryside, agritourism, culinary delights and a rich array of cultures.

Decisive for the scale on which the movement is organised locally is the cultural unity of the region, in which the cultural landscape plays a major role. Since its establishment, the number of farms participating in Tuscany has increased by 165%

to around 20% of the total number of agricultural enterprises. The movement has since spread throughout the world, gaining a firm foothold in various corners of Europe. The network model of a slow region has also caught on in Germany, France, Switzerland and various eastern European countries. The use of regional products in the catering trade can further make a significant contribution towards safeguarding jobs and supporting the regional economy, in full harmony with the preservation of agriculturally formed historic landscapes. Increased use of local agricultural production in the food and restaurant industry has a positive effect on reducing long-distance transportation, thus reducing noise and exhaust fumes (Villanueva-Cuevas 2011).

8.2. Regional narratives and networks

The integration of the local population plays another essential role in successful implementation of sustainable tourism. It is advisable to integrate the local population at the stage where tourism concepts are developed. A model for the region can be designed, for example, by introducing a round table with experts from the tourism industry, politicians and interested and committed representatives of the local community (Villanueva-Cuevas 2011).

In the Netherlands tourism entrepreneurs work together in a public-private partnership with the government. They have formed a network which is focused on innovation in leisure and landscape. The foundation STIRR facilitates the innovation of the system by supporting innovative projects and by organising the knowledge around so-called regional narrative projects.

Regional narratives are storylines developed by leisure networks which explore and invent regional identities that can be enhanced and valorised. A good example is the narrative for Dike of the Delta, which is a collaboration of 12 enterprises. In the storylines they focus on the struggle against water in central Holland.

Figure 50. Agritourism

Agritourism is a good way to generate new income for local people and connect to people and landscape. Source: Hazendonk et al. 2008

Another example is the recent development of the identity of Hadrian's Wall in the northern part of England. Cultural heritage protection and leisure development go hand in hand here (Berkers and Emonts 2009).

Governments should facilitate the development of so-called regional narratives by regional networks of entrepreneurs, administration and the public. In a regional narrative the unique identity and future development scenarios of a region are connected. It mobilises entrepreneurs and organisations to direct together administratively the development of the quality of landscape. By (innovative) sector-crossing collaboration the region can become an attractive touristic destination and an economic impulse (Mommaas 2006; Berkers et al. 2011).

Figure 51. Hadrian's Wall

The combination of heritage conservation and touristic development of Hadrian's Wall is an example of the force of regional narratives. Source: Hazendonk et al. 2008

In our view, regional development based on these new collaboration networks is the model for future European landscape and leisure policy. Europe could promote this development by making sure that not only farmers but also other rural businesses (often in the field of health care and leisure) benefit from the monies destined for the countryside. Conversely, the money flow from tourist income, such as tourist taxes, should also be spent not exclusively on recreational projects but also on agricultural projects connected with tourism and recreation, as with the ecotax tried in the Balearic Islands. The difficulty in breaking down set patterns is demonstrated by the state of affairs in the English countryside, traditionally the example of a close-knit relationship between landscape and leisure; witness the lamentation of the Countryside Commission that in the 30 years of its existence it has never succeeded to any great extent in ensuring that money flows also benefit farmers.

The proposal within the European Parliament resolution (mentioned above) to recognise annually regions that commit themselves to sustainable tourism, in conjunction with improving the landscape and cultural heritage, is a good step in this direction. Including a condition that the appointed regions must have a cohesive collaborative structure between the parties involved in landscape and those involved in leisure, as

described above, would give the proposal added impetus. This echoes the approach of the "European cultural capital" and would be a positive development, "killing two birds with one stone" and the movement could spread like wildfire from region to region.

Islands, in particular, are eminently suitable for experiments in the area of sustainable tourism and landscape improvement. The Balearic Islands, Majorca and Menorca, are famous for their experiences. Nature protection was high on the agenda of Calviá, Majorca. With 60 000 beds and more than 11 million overnight stays, Calviá was one of the first local authorities to have a local Agenda 21 with a binding model, based on the principles of sustainable development. It is working in close co-operation with residents, other local authorities and private businesses. The town drew special attention not only to the spectacular blowing-up of 12 extremely run-down hotels and buildings, but it has also applied to the Government of the Balearics for the designation of large areas and several islands as nature protection areas. This should mean that the building boom of the previous years has finally ended. Calviá and Majorca were considered models for the rest of the Mediterranean region (Eckert and Cremer 1997).

8.3. "Slow travel"

In keeping with the contours and possible solutions outlined above, we ask for special attention to be devoted to the issue of making the landscape accessible by appropriate modes of transport. Encouraging countryside tourism as part of a more comprehensive strategy for securing the great diversity of European landscapes for posterity requires tailor-made solutions. "Slow region" implies "slow travel".

Figure 52. Slow travel

All kinds of slow travel are gaining in importance. Photo: ANWB

We have to take good care of the finely-meshed infrastructure on which Europe can still pride itself. Too much has already been lost. In half a century of agricultural reorganisation, the Netherlands has been deprived of roughly 50 000 kilometres of church paths, country lanes and footpaths. In Spain, innumerable drove roads have disappeared from the landscape. We now regret that. It is crucial for countries in eastern Europe to avoid making the same mistakes and indiscriminately restructuring their landscapes and infrastructure to meet the demands of modern times.

Figure 53. Long-distance bicycle roads

The long-distance bicycle roads are a vital infrastructure. Source: ANWB

The "capillaries" of the landscape not only offer good access for leisure and tourism in bringing consumers in direct contact with producers, but they also provide the indispensable infrastructure for the expansion of the new rural economy. The open spaces that have already been lost will have to be restored, kilometre by kilometre, and that is an expensive job. Nevertheless, added value from investments made initially for recreation can be recouped for tourism. Measures to reduce the traffic-induced impact on the landscape could be a network of cycling paths and more pedestrian zones, as well as financial support for public transport, or increased use of new transport technologies (for example, electronically-operated buses). Through increased co-operation in local networks and joint marketing efforts, tourism resorts and regions can make use of the existing potential for synergy (Eckert and Cremer 1997). The ultimate objective is to create a fine-grained network of routes and paths for walking and cycling throughout the whole of Europe. Mention should be made of the various and prestigious Cultural Routes integrating the promotion of the European cultural identity into tourism.

Figure 54. Pilgrim routes to Santiago de Compostela

The pilgrim route to Santiago de Compostela is one of the prestigious Cultural Routes designated by the Council of Europe. Source: Sylvain Vaissière, ACIR

Figure 55. Torvdalshalsen, Norway

Good facilities and designed tourist highways. Source: The National Tourist Route Project / 70° Arkitektur. Photo: Vegar Moen.

Things can also be improved for motorised tourists. There are states with wonderful facilities, such as Norway, with their beautifully designed touristic highways. There are others with absolutely no facilities for people who would like to stay with their campers or caravans outside the organised campsites; and there are a number of countries where it is quite simply forbidden. The right to roam in your motor home should, in our opinion, be a basic right in Europe, except where explicitly prohibited.

A good example was in the 1990s when the *Gemeinschaft Autofreier Schweizer Tourismusorte* (Association of tourist places without a car) was created by a conglomeration of seven Swiss tourist areas with car-free zones. Car-free was defined as no private car traffic and generally as few internal combustion engines as possible. Instead, these areas promoted their destination as offering peace and quiet, with an abundance of sports activities in an intact and clean landscape, embedded in local, original culture (Eckert and Cremer 1997).

The transition to more sustainable forms of tourism also demands a different view of air traffic, certainly for short distances. Europe's tourist product has to be as independent as possible from the airline infrastructure. There is a good alternative: the high-speed train. Completion of the high-speed rail network also has a high priority from the point of view of tourism. Making large tourist areas accessible by building new high-speed railway lines would be a good idea. The revival of the intercity sleepers like those in Germany is an example worth imitating.

8.4. Leisure landscapes at varying development speeds

Not only the rural economy and European "slow regions" are at issue, however. Over the past five years, partly under the influence of inflated grain prices and the demand for biofuels, there has been a rapid expansion of large-scale agriculture and cattle farming. It is therefore important to prevent the *otium* (leisure) and *negotium* (business) from frustrating one another in the landscape. The economics of expanding agriculture could easily come into conflict with regional economics in which, in addition to leisure, homes, tourism, health care, forestry, drinking water abstraction and nature conservation, for example, are directly or indirectly dependent on the quality and diversity of the landscape. The task, therefore, is to provide a sustainable future for both "economies" in the countryside. This can be done by separating them spatially or giving the new production areas a look that is also appealing to leisure. Do not misunderstand: development should not be obsessed with quality, but geared to quality – no industrial landscapes, but no Disney landscapes, either. Authenticity is the key word in landscape development. That demands regulation at various levels.

At the European level, it is essential to consider carefully any possible undesirable effects of generic agricultural support (first pillar of the Common Agricultural Policy) on leisure potential in the countries that have recently joined the EU. We have to learn from the mistakes made after the previous expansion. European money was then used to develop areas of virgin nature (blanket bogs in Ireland) and restructure cultural landscapes (the intricate small-scale landscape in North Portugal), without realising that more could have been earned from them through tourism.

At member state level, spatial and landscape policies should be formulated in which different conservation and planning strategies are developed for areas where the emphasis is on regional economics and areas where the reasoning is based primarily on commercial economics. New member states such as Poland and Hungary have valuable cultural landscapes still richly adorned with natural features. Considering beforehand how we wish to deal with this heritage is essential to prevent the destruction of this natural (leisure) capital. Some highly exceptional landscapes were sacrificed on the altar of progress long after it was in any way necessary. If they had not been "modernised", some landscapes could now have earned a fortune.

Even more careful planning is required for landscapes where both developments are to be pursued. Highly skilful regional spatial planning is needed to link or zone the two components; or to create an illusion by restaging the landscape; or to construct a framework in which nature, recreation, forestry and water abstraction are safeguarded, independent of economic developments in agriculture, or given time to develop; or to plan the new developments in such a way that they enhance – or at least do nothing to reduce – the appeal of the landscape**.**

8.5. Town and country

Despite the sometimes major sociocultural differences, there is a strong emotional relationship between European towns and their surrounding countryside. That is a potential that should be activated. The direct vicinity of towns is the ordinary landscape in which the 225 million urban dwellers in Europe take their Sunday stroll or drive. Preserving, restoring or creating the links between towns and their landscapes should be elevated to a European standard quality. In terms of welfare economics, these are the profitable investments. They also have the side effect of putting the landscapes on the visitor's mental map and therefore increasing the chance of careful management or even survival. A tourism economy will also be able to graft itself onto these primarily recreational investments. A well-connected town generates a large market for high-quality landscape tourism: the connection between Strasbourg and its Vosges, Amsterdam and Waterland, London and its Green Belt, for example. Each individual member state or each urban region should determine the most effective ways of preserving and planning urban landscapes. In view of the high land prices in urban areas, this is not self-evident. A financial formula will have to be found to underpin the twinning of town and country, a form of income transfer between town and countryside. Depending on the administrative and formal context, tailor-made solutions will ensure effective use of such tools for planning the landscape.

For holiday and second homes located further from town, but which can still be seen as a form of urbanisation, new forms of responsibility for the surrounding countryside will have to be devised for the newcomers. If the population (and internationalisation!) of the European countryside is successfully deployed as a positive landscape-forming force, that could have a formidable effect. Organisations like owner associations can assume some of the responsibility for landscape

maintenance, once agricultural modernisation makes certain landscape elements superfluous to the requirements of production.

If, due to inflated energy prices, our mobility pattern changes drastically, this will have implications for the holiday home market in Europe. The consequences may ultimately not be as bad as we fear. The trend will then lead to fewer, but longer, visits. These private landscape paradises will continue to lead a tough existence and even make people opt for an alternative – bipolar – way of life, facilitated by wireless internet connections.

8.6. Landscapes and mass tourism

Mass tourism, the most capital-intensive form of the leisure industry in Europe, is under pressure in several ways. Its space and time developments exhibit a rapid succession of discovery, development and vacation. Landscapes and coastlines provide scenery, but cheapness, accessibility (by air) and guaranteed sun also play a role. Some concentration spots have been systematically developed and still offer a significant tourism product, but the development has often been over-hasty, sloppy and loveless. These areas, in particular, are having a hard time in the highly competitive market of the "party" scenario, where more appealing and cheaper destinations have come within the reach of many people through increasingly cut-price packages. With a touch of irony, it can be said that this segment is pricing itself out of the market, abandoning the existing tourist infrastructure to an increasingly desolate fate. In these regions, with European support from regional funds, we urgently need to develop a vision for an efficient conversion and dismantlement strategy for processes that have gone too far.

Seen from the perspective of the post-party era, the question is how such areas will fare in a primarily intra-European market. Our intuition tells us that the last few decades of "the party" should chiefly be dedicated to redevelopment for sustainable quality. This should be neither competing with theme hotels in Turkey or Morocco, nor taking a quantum leap forward, as in the Spanish province of Aragon where a European combination of Orlando and Las Vegas is planned to rise from the desert, but perhaps by picking up on the fact that southern Europe, in particular, will be cashing in on the market for the ageing population in Europe. This could also buffer the destructive seasonal influences in these resorts. In other words, the beautiful southern European coasts become the Florida of Europe. In a number of places, a further, more diverse urban development could be imaginable. The French Mediterranean coast, a continuous ribbon of development with millions of inhabitants, is a good example. The redevelopment needs to be aimed primarily at linking the landscape of the hinterland to these tourist monocultures.

Figure 56. Emscher Park, Duisbourg (Germany)

Emscher Park in Duisburg, Germany, is one of the first sites where innovative design created interesting new leisure landscapes out of derelict industrial areas. Source: Hazendonk et al. 2008.

The qualitative improvement of seriously degraded coastal areas does, naturally, have its limits, but there has to be a certain basic quality and scenic setting. Not all bathing resorts are ageing as well as Menton, a monument to tourism with its tangible grandeur and faded glory. Those seaside resorts that become completely run down and written off can, in the long term, be coaxed back to life through a cultural design strategy similar to the revitalisation of the Emscher Park industrial area in Germany's Ruhr region.

The proposals for the Andalusian coast by the office of José Segui in the land-use plan of the Costa del Sol give some good examples of how those regions can march ahead and gain a second life as urban regions where a modern generation of leisure plays an important role because of para-tourism, permanent habitation of former visitors and concentration on delivering high-quality services.

Figure 57. Green systems

Green systems help to requalify the leisure landscape of the Andalusian coast in a plan of Estudio Segui. Source: Segui Arquitectos.

CONCLUSIONS

In a period where international society is undergoing many types of changes and suffering diverse crises (economic, ecological and real estate), there is a possible danger for those landscapes and regions which greatly depend economically on (incoming) tourism. Changes in tourism flows can undermine landscapes and societies. But also other changes such as climate change or changes in hydrology can have impacts on the touristic attractiveness of a landscape and thus directly or indirectly influence the future of a landscape. We need only remember in the recent past: foot-and-mouth disease, the volcanic eruption on Iceland and revolutions in societies, for example in the North African Arabic world.

One trend is a growing interest in the quality of landscape in the broad sense. The quality and identity of the landscapes are such a positive opportunity for the tourism sector.

To date, most of the sustainability policies and programmes have lacked attention to landscape as a separate and integrating concept or objective. Typically, sustainability is focused on the environmental problems related to water-flow, energy and materials and, in a lesser way, also to natural and cultural heritage. It has to be said that, in attending to sustainability issues, landscape has commonly been the last item to be addressed. This means that typically natural or cultural heritages are taken into consideration, while common everyday landscapes are not. The latter, however, are clearly within the scope of the European Landscape Convention and yet this holistic concept of landscape is seldom used or applied.

European and national policies to stimulate tourism and its industry can be helpful for the local economy and, thus, the landscape is developed, influenced and managed for this purpose. We should therefore understand and look at the leisure industry as a driving force of utmost importance for the development of landscapes and their quality (Mommaas 2006; Berkers et at. 2011).

The Council of Europe and the contracting parties of the European Landscape Convention should give attention to this fact and use every opportunity to introduce the concepts of landscape enshrined in the convention. The present momentum in which the European Union is increasingly involved in policy and programmes for sustainable tourism means that minds are open to the landscape concept. Of course, national and local levels are of equal importance.

The notions of landscape and tourism (and leisure) are from their beginnings strongly intertwined. The convention should enable a fruitful relationship between them in the future. National, international, even European visions on leisurescapes are needed.

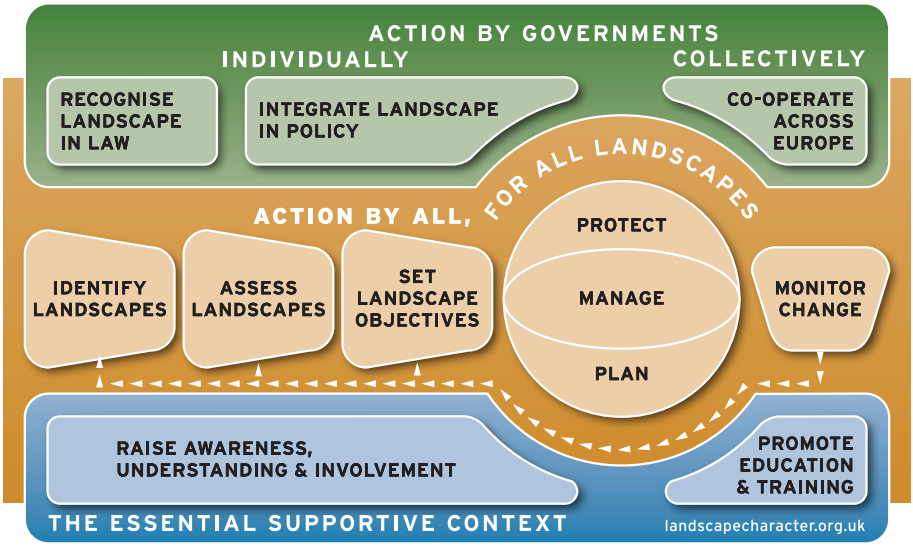
At all levels – international, national, regional, local and business – sustainability should lead our thinking and action in relation to tourism and leisure policies. It is advisable that the landscape concept, as promoted by the convention, should form an important aspect in sustainable development. The general method of working, as stated in the convention and more explicitly explained by Michael Dower (Dower 2008), outlines this integration of leisure and landscape. Landscape should be integrated in tourism policy, and leisure and tourism should be integrated in landscape and territorial development.

Plans, developments and projects, landscape assessments and identifications should be integral when drawing up tourism policies. Landscape objectives should also be developed. (Leisure) landscapes also need to be properly protected, managed and planned. Once plans are realised or developed they should be monitored. Raising awareness, understanding and involvement in landscape, as for the tourism plans, should be integrated with all undertakings in the field of tourism and leisure.

In addition, international data information on leisure and its relation to landscape data are needed if we want good planning. In the base literature for this report a lack of comparable, synchronised data was apparent. This was especially the case for sectors of leisure outside the tourism field, such as domestic tourism and national outdoor recreation. The European Environment Agency, Eurostat and the European Observation Network for Territorial Development and Cohesion (ESPON) could have a role in this. The development of the map of European leisurescapes should also be further developed. It can be a useful tool to monitor the development of European landscapes and tourism policies and combine analyses with other sectors, such as agriculture.

We have attempted to construct a European viewpoint. The European Landscape Convention relates to all landscapes, including all leisurescapes: leisure in urban, peri-urban and rural environments, the ordinary and even the despoiled, as well as the exceptional.

Figure 58. The European Landscape Convention in action



Source: Dower M. (2008), Landscapecharacter.org.uk.

Landscapes are perceived as the setting for people's lives and crucial to the quality of those lives. Leisure needs, and leisure as a driving force in landscape development, impinge on our daily, weekly and yearly living environment. The general public should therefore be encouraged to take an active interest in caring for landscapes. The same should be the case for entrepreneurs and firms, from small businesses to multinationals.

Moreover, Europe's leisurescapes are of value to all Europeans, being cherished outside the locality and beyond national borders. Therefore, public authorities at all levels should take action to protect, manage and plan landscapes in order to maintain and improve landscape quality, as part of the process of leisure development in a context of sustainable development.

In the case of landscapes of leisure there is always a tension between inhabitants, visitors and users of the landscapes. We would like to emphasise, therefore, that during planning, developing and maintaining of leisurescapes explicit attention needs to be paid to the rights, the involvement and the needs of the inhabitants and leisure workers. Authorities have the utmost responsibility to do so.

The Committee of Ministers recommendation to member states regarding the promotion of tourism to foster cultural heritage as a factor for sustainable development (Recommendation Rec(2003) 1) states that: "Tourism is a means of access to culture and nature. It should be an opportunity for self-education, fostering mutual tolerance, learning about other cultures and peoples and their diversity, as well as for enjoyment, rest and relaxation. Cultural tourism provides particular opportunities for learning about other cultures through direct experience of their heritage. In Europe, cultural heritage tourism can help forge the European identity and develop awareness and respect of the cultural heritage of peoples".

The member states which ratified the European Landscape Convention need to:

- recognise landscapes in law, for instance in laws on leisure and tourism: leisure is or can be also an expression of the diversity of (shared) cultural and natural heritage, and a foundation of identity;
- establish and implement landscape policies aimed at landscape protection, management and planning (in relation to leisure needs and development);
- establish procedures for the general public, local and regional authorities, and other parties (such as market parties) to participate in defining and implementing landscape policies (leisure has to play a role in this also);
- integrate landscape into regional and town planning policies and also into leisure policy and, related to that, cultural, environmental, agricultural, social and economic policies which may have direct or indirect impact on landscape. The action as such lies mainly within public bodies, but working closely with all stakeholders including market parties.

Thus, much of the action may lie within the remit of regional or local authorities who are the prime guardians of the planning system, landscape quality and leisure possibilities.

All authorities and other actors who want to strive for quality leisurescapes need to:

- identify landscapes: to describe their character and the key elements in that character; the role of leisure and tourism should be studied thoroughly, knowing the importance of these functions;
- assess the landscapes: to analyse what contributes to, and what detracts from, their quality and distinctiveness; again leisure is an important factor;
- define objectives for landscape quality, after public consultation ("public"

means inhabitants, visitors and users): these objectives should form the framework for the main process of physical action, embodied in the next three points: protect, manage and plan. Protect what should be protected – this could be features important for leisure, old leisure quality landscape and of course features or landscapes to be protected from leisure pressure. Manage what needs management in order to be sustained – all landscapes should be properly managed; leisure can help bring new income and spoiled or run-down landscapes need revitalisation and specialised management. A special aspect regards the management of visitors and users. Plan, in the sense stated in the convention, namely to take strong forward-looking action to enhance, restore and create landscapes;

- monitor what is happening to the landscapes**,** in terms of change and the impact of that change upon the character of the landscapes and upon the achievement (or not) of the stated objectives.

Lastly, both the transition and the impetus need to be guided by Europe's abundant design talent and landscape expertise. In the transition, the leisure industry and designers can be of great use to one another. The member states and regions can generate and perpetuate these contacts via their spatial planning and/or architectural policies. It would be helpful if a suitable percentage of the investments for each member state in leisure could be set aside for linking design and artistic applications to new developments in the tourist/recreational infrastructure. If all the thousands of individual projects are executed properly, in the long term a quality improvement and a leap forward in sustainability could be realised across the full spectrum. The outlook for leisure landscapes will benefit more from "doing the ordinary extraordinarily well" than from a few isolated "extraordinary exceptions". Landscape architects should aim to add the sustainable leisure landscapes of the 21st century to the series of leisure commissions with which they previously enriched the European landscape.[8]

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Chapter 5

Landscape and advertising

Jean-Philippe Strebler, Council of Europe expert

SUMMARY

This report is intended to put forward proposals for the presence of billboard advertising to be accommodated and regulated in landscape protection and enhancement policies, and to make recommendations on the framing of policies to regulate the presence of advertising devices for the purposes of implementing the European Landscape Convention.

The quintessence of a medium that exploits travel, in a society where there are more and more individual or collective journeys, outdoor advertising – whose whole logic is to be visible to the public at large – assumes an ever more important place in the visible landscape; this presence is accentuated by use of technologies, henceforth allowing numerous physical limits to be pushed back.

The report presents the evolution of forms of advertising expression and illustrates some legislative approaches in a few European states which have regulated the advertising presence in the landscape on the grounds of environmental concerns.

The implementation of the European Landscape Convention could prompt the signatory states to envisage adopting a comprehensive approach to outdoor advertising which combines the framing of official protection policies (relying on landscape inventories to identify vulnerable landscapes and determine the measures for limiting the adverse effects that outdoor advertising could have on it); of regulations to restrict the advertising presence (particularly on town approaches, having regard to the new outdoor advertising media, allowing the local adaptation of national rules as appropriate, and ensuring the participation of the public and the players concerned); and of preventative or punitive methods to enforce genuine compliance with the safeguards and regulations adopted.

INTRODUCTION

This study has been carried out in order to:

- formulate proposals for implementing, in respect of outdoor advertising, the provisions of Article 5 of the European Landscape Convention on integrating landscape into regional and town planning or environmental policies;
- draw up, with the Council of Europe member states in mind, recommendations on the framing of official policies that help meet the objectives of landscape quality and help ensure protection and management of landscapes, in order to regulate the presence of billboard advertising.

General measures prescribed by the European Landscape Convention (Article 5)

"Each Party undertakes:

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 the specific measures set out in Article 6;

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 … ;

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".

Specific measures prescribed by the European Landscape Convention (Article 6)

"With the active participation of the interested parties … and with a view to improving knowledge of its landscapes, each Party undertakes:

a. to identify its own landscapes throughout its territory; to analyse their characteristics and the forces and pressures transforming them; to take note of changes;

b. to assess the landscapes thus identified, taking into account the particular values assigned to them by the interested parties and the population concerned.

Each Party undertakes to define landscape quality objectives for the landscapes identified and assessed …

To put landscape policies into effect, each Party undertakes to introduce instruments aimed at protecting, managing and/or planning the landscape".

This report focuses on the diversity of the forms of advertising expression which are to be taken into account in the process of identifying and assessing landscapes. The visual impact of outdoor advertising in landscapes, which certain national legislations have already sought to contain, justifies the implementation of official policies aimed at sustaining or enhancing the goals of landscape quality, through means of action for the protection and management of landscapes.

1. ADVERTISING PRESENCE IN THE LANDSCAPE

After recapitulating the principal concepts and definitions regarding landscape, according to their expression in the European Landscape Convention, as well as those that relate to billboard advertising, this first part discusses the visual impact of outdoor advertising in landscape by way of the various forms that billboard advertising may take.

1.1. Concepts and definitions relating to landscape

The signatories to the European Landscape Convention agreed on a number of determinations and definitions set out in the preamble and in Article 1 of the convention, and it is plainly important to recapitulate them. In particular:

Preamble to the European Landscape Convention

The landscape …

… has an important public interest role in the cultural, ecological, environmental and social fields, and constitutes a resource favourable to economic activity and whose protection, management and planning can contribute to job creation; … contributes to the formation of local cultures and … is a basic component of the European natural and cultural heritage, contributing to human well-being and consolidation of the European identity;

… is an important part of the quality of life for people everywhere: in urban areas and in the countryside, in degraded areas as well as in areas of high quality, in areas recognised as being of outstanding beauty as well as everyday areas;

… is a key element of individual and social well-being and … its protection, management and planning entail rights and responsabilities for everyone".

Definitions of the European Landscape Convention (Article 1):

a. "Landscape: area", as perceived by people, whose character is the result of the action and interaction of natural and/or human factors;

b. "Landscape policy": expression by the competent public authorities of general principles, strategies and guidelines that permit the taking of specific measures aimed at the protection, management and planning of landscapes;

c. "Landscape quality objective": for a specific landscape, formulation by the competent public authorities of the aspirations of the public with regard to the landscape features of their surroundings;

d. "Landscape protection": actions to conserve and maintain the significant or characteristic features of a landscape, justified by its heritage value derived from its natural configuration and/or from human activity;

e. "Landscape management": action, from a perspective of sustainable development, to ensure the regular upkeep of a landscape, so as to guide and harmonise changes which are brought about by social, economic and environmental processes.

f. "Landscape planning" means strong forward-looking action to enhance, restore or create landscapes.

1.2. Concepts and definitions concerning billboard advertising

Advertising and communication

Advertising constitutes a form of communication seeking to make known a good, a product, a service, a place or an event, perhaps a piece of information or an idea, usually in order to gain the acceptance of the recipient of the message (consumer, user, voter) and, as the case may be, incite the person to purchase the good, product or service, or to adopt a desired behaviour pattern (conserving energy, road safety, election of a public figure). From the economic standpoint, advertising can be defined, on the one hand, as the act of promoting the sale of a product by exerting an influence, a psychological action on the audience, in order to create needs and desires in it, and on the other hand as all the means (media) used to promote a product.

Communication for advertising purposes is usually disseminated via mass media, among which the five favourite traditional media are press, television, radio, cinema and bill-posting; it now takes other forms such as promotional mail and leaflets, and advertising on the internet or on mobile telephones.

Advertising media

© Shutterstock

Press

© Shutterstock

Television

© Shutterstock

Radio

© Groume – Flickr

Cinema

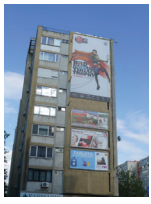

Photo: M. Déjeant-Pons

Billboards

© Shutterstock

Leaflets

© Shutterstock

Internet

© Shutterstock

Telephone

The market share of outdoor advertising may vary considerably from one state to another: while billboard advertising averages between 5-7% of promotional communication market share in the major media in western economies,[1] the market share of outdoor advertising may be distinctly higher in some countries (10-13%, notably in France, Belgium,[2] Switzerland, Russia) whereas it accounts for between 4% and 7% in other countries (Germany, Spain, Italy, Netherlands, United Kingdom, etc.). These substantial variations reflect the differing organisational patterns and traditions of the advertising market and, to an extent, are also the result of national legislation governing outdoor advertising, which may be considerably different from one European country to another (Research Centre for Networks, Transport, Urban Planning and Public Construction (CERTU 1995); Institute of studies, surveys, research, marketing – Procom (Institut PROCOM 2000); Union of Advertisers (UDA 2013)).

Billboard and outdoor advertising

It must be stressed that, compared to the media whose audience is dispersing (as television channels and radio stations multiply or newspapers or cinemas fall out of favour) or those used to accurately target potential consumers (mailshots, e-mails, text messages, and so on), the market share of billboard advertising is fairly "stable". This medium targets people on the move,[3] in a society that encourages movement, where well-placed advertising can reach all "passers-by" indiscriminately. More often than not, these passers-by do not have the option of avoiding messages conveyed on billboards; they might be able to switch television channels or turn off their television or radio during commercial breaks, not buy newspapers, flick past pages of press advertising or throw away advertising received in the post, but they cannot really avoid seeing the billboards along their route.

Although this kind of advertising is often described as billboard advertising, it has taken on highly diverse forms of expression, which might involve staging a scene against or around the backdrop of the poster hoarding (which continues to display posters), for example, or new outside communication media made possible by modern digital technologies: very large-format digital screens (ranging from a few square metres to several dozen square metres), window stickers on the fronts of buildings, temporary or permanent building wraps, night-time light projections, and so on. Traditional billboards (in the form of paper posters mounted onto fixed or mobile hoardings) will very probably decline, or even gradually disappear, as they are

1. In 2012, worldwide investment in the area of outdoor advertising represented 32.3 billion US dollars, that is, 6.6% of worldwide advertising investment, which totalled 491.9 billion US dollars (Zenith Optimedia 2012 – www.zenithoptimedia.com).
2. According to a study carried out for the Parliament of the French-speaking Community of Belgium, Wallonia-Brussels, Belgium no longer falls into this category, with outdoor advertising now representing only 7% of advertising investment in 2010, compared with 9% in 2000 (Antoine and Heinderyckx 2011).
3. In west European states, while outdoor advertising cannot really be specifically targeted, it indiscriminately reaches a broad target audience overall, mostly made up of working males under 50 years of age.

superseded by outside advertising which better exploits modern-day technological possibilities (and trends in their cost).[4]

Evolution of outdoor advertising media and technologies

M. Déjeant-Pons

Poster hoarding

M. Déjeant-Pons

Digital screen

M. Déjeant-Pons

Building wrap

M. Déjeant-Pons

Window stickers

© Virgin Money – Flickr

Projection

Advertising and corporate signage

Businesses may also need or wish to advertise their presence with various visual messages, indicating their business activity and also possibly their products or services.[5] These messages may be described as "corporate signage".

Different forms of corporate signage

M. Déjeant-Pons

Traditional

M. Déjeant-Pons

Neon lights

M. Déjeant-Pons

Town centre

M. Déjeant-Pons

Shopping centre

M. Déjeant-Pons

Retail park

While it may be said that this form of visual communication constitutes advertising for the business using it (promoting itself and possibly its products), it may also be considered that more scope be allowed for self-advertising (particularly by businesses) at a corporate address than simply posting advertising messages, at that location, without any reference to the business based there.

1.3. The advertising presence in the landscape

Given that the very purpose of advertising and corporate signage is to be seen (preferably by as many people as possible), there are a number of factors resulting

4. Market studies and forecasts for advertising over the last several years have emphasised that outdoor advertising has embarked upon a major switch to digital technologies, enabling this sector to maintain or even expand its market share in comparison to other advertising media.
5. Depending on national legislations, messages may be subject to different rules according to whether they relate strictly to the business or its products (this is the case in Switzerland or Belgium, for example) or be subject to the same overall legal regime irrespective of whether it is the business or the products that are advertised (as in French law).

in advertising and corporate signage having a stronger presence in the landscape, be it in – chiefly – urban or natural settings:

- in a consumer society companies vie with one another to draw attention to their products and seek to publicise themselves by any means possible;
- in a society where people move around more than ever before (mainly as a result of urban sprawl and the dispersal and specialisation of urban functions), it is very easy indeed to place messages in full view of the "captive" passing audience using individual or public forms of transport;
- in a media society, outdoor advertising is one of the few communication vehicles capable of reaching a wide target audience which cannot avoid the messages bombarding its vision.

Billboards seek to outdo one another…



© M. Déjeant-Pons © M. Déjeant-Pons

Despite the dangers of advertising overkill, it would appear that, in some cases, some outdoor advertising professionals simply cannot resist lining up alongside their competitors wherever they are on display in what ultimately becomes a dense forest of advertising messages, blinding in their diversity and therefore rendered largely ineffective.

Within the landscape, advertising messages have been placed on ever more varied or even bizarre supports over the years:

- historically, outdoor advertising essentially consisted of messages painted or posters stuck onto building facades; there is now a great diversity of formats, ranging from building wraps measuring several hundred square metres down to mini-posters aimed at pedestrians; outdoor advertising used to be an add-on feature, often in reduced formats aimed at pedestrians, fitting neatly onto existing built surfaces within the urban landscape;

Outdoor advertising on buildings





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Posters *Painted walls* *Large format* *Small billboards* *Mini-posters*

- little by little, outdoor advertising has broken free of these traditional supports, graduating to specific supports serving no other purpose than to disseminate advertising messages; accordingly, compared with the placing of advertising on buildings, fences or urban furniture for example, these supports are new elements, completely new additions to the landscape, for the sole purpose of advertising;

Outdoor advertising planted in the ground or installed directly on the ground

©: M. Déjeant-Pons

Individual support

© M. Déjeant-Pons

Multiple supports

© M. Déjeant-Pons

Promotional signposting

© M. Déjeant-Pons

Small-format

© E. M. – Flickr

Poster stands

- in the mid-1960s, a French company devised an exchange-based business model whereby local authorities could have the necessary urban furniture serving the community (in particular bus shelters) supplied and maintained free of charge in exchange for allowing them to be used (secondarily) for advertising; as time went by, all kinds of urban furniture were seen as opportunities for promotional advertising: lamp-posts, rubbish bins, benches, phone boxes, public conveniences, and so on, to the point where the use of urban furniture as advertising space appears to take precedence over all other community uses;

Outdoor advertising on urban furniture

© M. Déjeant-Pons

Bus shelter

© M. Déjeant-Pons

Morris column

© M. Déjeant-Pons

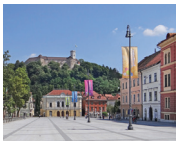
Mast

© H. Docquin – Wikimedia commons

Kiosk

© M. Déjeant-Pons

Information boards



© J.-P. Dalbéro – Flickr

Lamp-post

© B. Gade – Flickr

Public convenience

© P. Talbot – Flickr

Bin

© DocChewbacca – Flickr

Phone box

© O. Zebest – Wikimedia commons

Bench

- vehicles are also sometimes used as supports for outdoor advertising: these may be vehicles specifically for advertising (such as vans bearing posters or now even mobile display screens, bikes, "segways") or vehicles

used secondarily for advertising (public transport, private cars hired out for advertising). Where advertising is carried on vehicles, the advertising presence in landscapes is, in principle, mobile, even though some vehicles used for advertising are left parked in strategic places to leave their messages continuously on display to passing pedestrians or drivers;

Outdoor advertising on vehicles

© Pydum – Flickr

Tram

© M. Déjeant-Pons

Bus

© Nacho – Flickr

Bus

© F. Bisson – Flickr

Van

© Mic – Flickr

Van

© Ludovic – Flickr

Car

© Ludovic – Flickr

Car

© O. Rudak – Flickr

Bike

© P. Léost – Wikimedia commons

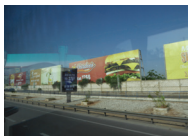
Bike

© P. Drabik

"Segway"

- building site installations also provide space, temporarily, for advertising messages (which may sometimes fund part of the building works); traditionally, this includes posters on site fencing (which may be paid for by the advertiser); more recently, advertising agencies have persuaded the owners of sites requiring scaffolding that this can serve as a support for advertising on wraps measuring several hundred square metres, with part of the proceeds helping to cover building work; while it may be argued that site fencing and scaffolding always cover up the building sites concerned, it may also be considered that, even if they can help to finance works, there should not be such a substantial expanse of advertising in the landscape;

Outdoor advertising on building site installations (fencing, scaffolding)



© M. Déjeant-Pons

Fencing

© M. Déjeant-Pons

Fencing

© Déjeant-Pons

Fencing

© M. Ilmonen

Scaffolding

© Ludovic – Flickr

Scaffolding

- digital screen technology has featured in outdoor advertising in recent years: initially confined to formats measuring less than two square metres in enclosed areas (shopping malls, airports, etc.), digital screens are rapidly spreading across landscapes, be it on building facades, specific supports,

urban furniture or vehicles; this form of advertising seems set to expand rapidly as dynamic, permanently visible messages are more eye-catching (and also therefore more appealing to the advertisers themselves) and the advertising agencies are quick to point out the "eco-friendliness" of these media (lower power consumption, paper-saving, transport-saving, etc.); billboard professionals see these new media as a key driving force in the development of the outdoor advertising market over the coming years;

Digital outdoor advertising (LED screens)


© P. Mison – Flickr

Bus shelter


© M. Södervall – Flickr

Building

© E. Soler – Flickr

Facade


© M. Déjeant-Pons

Giant screen


© Sam, O. Ose, Skjaervoy – Flickr

Vehicle

- very large-format advertising (several hundred square metres) is also booming,[6] thanks to progress in printing and manufacturing technologies and the relative ease of installation;

Outdoor advertising on building wraps (permanent or temporary)


© M. Déjeant-Pons

Building


© G. Lefeuvre – Flickr

Building


© M. Addison – Flickr

Special hoarding


© M. Déjeant-Pons

Scaffolding


© Y. Jalabert – Flickr

Road infrastructure

- the creativity of advertising agencies knows no bounds in terms of media for carrying promotional messages which take up space in the landscape.

"Original" outdoor advertising media


© M. Déjeant-Pons

Object

© J. Montraslo – Flickr

Object

© Y. Ye – Flickr

Ground painting

© M. Déjeant-Pons

Hot-air balloon

6. According to the Outdoor Advertising Association of America, it is size that is of the utmost importance for effective advertising.

2.THE CHALLENGES OF PUBLIC INTERVENTION TO FOLLOW UP THE EUROPEAN LANDSCAPE CONVENTION

Through its multiple forms, outdoor advertising is increasingly present in landscapes. While the European Union approaches advertising from an essentially economic viewpoint, certain national legislations have taken steps, through various means, to regulate billboard advertising on environmental grounds, while taking certain limitations to regulatory intervention into account.

2.1. Landscape challenges

According to billboard professionals, outdoor advertising cannot content itself with merely being there: it must catch the eye. The French poster designer Raymond Savignac believed that:

> like a boxer, it needs a punch, it needs to grab passers-by by the lapels and drag them over. Its flashy, provocative appearance and its garish make-up are so outrageous as to take it far beyond the limits of poor taste and sometimes makes it stylish. (Mouandjo, Lewis and Mbianda 2010)

Accordingly, outdoor advertising is by nature and by principle designed to be as conspicuous as possible in the landscape; there is no question of it blending into the landscape.

The diversity of outdoor advertising media described above opens up promotional possibilities on different scales of landscape:

- within a large landscape formed by municipalities, valleys, drainage basins, etc.;
- in areas perceived as part of the urban landscape (on the outskirts of town, in market town centres, etc.);
- within a landscape sequence, along a linear route.

On these differing scales, outdoor advertising is one of the most significant and fastest forms of anthropisation of landscapes.

As its presence grows ever stronger, elements are continually added to landscapes. Beyond a certain threshold (which may be qualitative as well as quantitative), it may be regarded as a type of nuisance or visual pollution which, according to the targeted obligations of "protection, management and planning of landscapes" expressed in the European Landscape Convention, are supposed to be limited through national policy measures.

Outdoor advertising, in its myriad forms, formats and supports, is increasingly present in the landscape. So even though advertising in general and outdoor advertising in particular are apt to contribute to consumer information in an economic context of free exchange – and, in this connection, the landscape where outdoor advertising is placed must also "constitute a resource favourable to economic activity"[7] – the

7. Preamble to the European Landscape Convention.

installation of supports for outside advertising is often likely to "accelerate the transformation of landscapes". The presence of outdoor advertising is often a contributing factor to the denaturing of the landscape, the alteration of the living environment and a deterioration of its quality.

The systematic use of lighting for outdoor advertising (whether projected light, backlighting or digital images on screens or in projections) is a strong factor in the impact of advertising on landscapes: the resulting light and especially movement (moving digital images, flashing) actively draw people's vision within landscapes, grabbing their attention in a quasi-intrusive manner.

As far as the economic (largely commercial) stakes of communication are concerned, it should be ensured that the pleasantness of the landscape is preserved; the presence of advertising could certainly be more or less dispensed with altogether in this respect but it should not be systematically seen as a nuisance or visual pollution: in certain situations, some advertising installations may also help to enhance the perception of landscapes.

Installing hoardings for advertising or corporate signage is considerably faster than developing an urban area or putting up buildings and, in a few days or even hours, can engender a major transformation of the landscape. While it is true that what is quickly installed can be taken down just as rapidly, it seems a far more effective approach, on the one hand, to define preventatively a legal framework for displaying advertising within the landscape (with a view to limiting criticism over arbitrary subjective decisions taken on a case-by-case basis) and, on the other hand, to envisage forms of prior checks by public authorities (which, among other things, could avoid unnecessary investment in non-compliant installations which would have to be taken down).

It also has to be borne in mind that, in a time of economic crisis, any decline in turnover from outdoor advertising (as advertisers spend less) does not necessarily equate to a reduction in the number of hoardings exploited (the available space may simply be offered at lower rates). In a tight economic situation some hoardings may also be abandoned, remaining as a real "blot on the landscape"; in this respect, the landscape also serves as a reflection of how an area functions and, in cases like this, sends out a negative message.

The outskirts of conurbations are particularly sensitive sectors in terms of landscape. The problem of town and city access points losing their character, owing to the denaturing of these urban fringes serving as areas of transition between unbuilt open natural landscapes and urbanised landscapes that have been rendered artificial, is a major landscape challenge. Sometimes deteriorated by poorly controlled urbanisation (particularly for commercial purposes), these sectors are greatly prized by outdoor advertising, either for promoting activities or services on offer in the urban district or for promoting businesses established along the access routes to the town.

Outdoor advertising on the outskirts of conurbations (town access points)

© J. Hetebrij – Flickr

Retail park

© M. Déjeant-Pons

Promotional signage

2.2. Legal approach at the European Union level

The European Union considers advertising as an economic tool, influencing the behaviour of hundreds of millions of consumers living and working in the European Union. Accordingly, advertising has a key role of providing information that contributes to the smooth running of the internal market, which, together with the free movement of goods, services, capital and people, has increased the variety of products and services on offer.

To date, the European Union has essentially approached advertising from the consumer protection angle (misleading advertising and comparative advertising (EU 2006), television advertising (EU 2007 and 2010)). The impact of outdoor advertising on landscapes has not prompted any community intervention so far.

2.3. National legislations

Outdoor advertising is more or less strictly regulated in the legislation of a number of European states. Below are some examples of the differing approach taken by national legislations to limiting the presence of advertising in the landscape.

Belgium: The rules governing advertising and corporate signage are incorporated into the regions' town planning regulations. The regional rules applicable to the Brussels region, for example, are geared to the harmonious integration of advertising into the urban landscape (structures visible from the "outdoor" public area) while avoiding any visual nuisance, prohibiting support structures that are dangerous for road safety, guaranteeing the liveability of dwellings and regulating new forms of advertising (wraps and vinyl sheeting). Advertising and corporate signage are, in principle, subject to prior planning permission, unless they benefit from the exemption granted for temporary or small-sized structures (Brussels-Capital Regional Government 2006).

France: Outdoor advertising is essentially governed by the Environment Code, which was overhauled in 2010-2012 (Dupont 2009). It is prohibited in principle outside urban districts and in "environmentally sensitive" areas and must comply with various

requirements (density, surface area, site, etc.); only certain forms of advertising (light projection, building wraps) require prior permission; in other cases the authorities are merely notified beforehand of plans to install other types of structure. The municipal or inter-municipal authorities may pass by-laws governing advertising with a view to limiting the options open under national regulations. Safety concerns may also constitute grounds for restricting the possibilities of roadside advertising.

Germany: In the absence of federal legislation, outdoor advertising falls essentially within the remit of the Building Code for which the individual *Länder* define the implementation procedures. Installations require (municipal) planning permission and are subject to local taxation. They must fit in with the urban landscape of town centres; in residential areas, only house-building businesses may carry advertising (with exception made for special events). Advertising is prohibited in natural or sparsely populated areas. The regulations seem to have a chilling effect: outdoor advertising is rare and located in areas of little landscape interest; on town access roads there are boards listing the business establishments present; corporate signage is often decorative and information-oriented rather than promotional.

Italy: National regulations and local rules coexist, depending on the areas concerned. The municipalities lay down the requirements for installing advertising, which is subject to prior permission. The Highway Code restricts roadside advertising in non-residential areas but does not prohibit it: the restrictions apply in particular to structures that may present a danger for road users; the authorities responsible for managing roads (state, regions, municipalities) establish the rules that are applicable to advertising supports, which are prohibited only in protected areas and on the corresponding access roads.

Switzerland: Outdoor advertising is regulated for road safety purposes (federal law and decree, canton regulations) and subject to prior authorisation. But the presence of advertising is considered not only in terms of the functioning of roads but also from the viewpoint that roads are a public area where the landscape dimension and the protection of sites must be taken into account. The legislative framework leaves only limited room for manoeuvre, and the regulations tend, on the whole, to be complied with.

United Kingdom: Outdoor advertising comes under the Town and Country Planning Act (1990), regulations on the control of advertisements (2007) and the town planning boards and commissions of the local authorities responsible. Depending on the case, advertisements are either not subject to prior formalities or require prior notification or permission. The regulations are characterised by simplicity and pragmatism, preferring specific assessment on a case-by-case basis to prohibitions or general rules; however, the landscapes bordering town centres appear to enjoy little protection from advertising.

In some states (such as France, Italy or the United Kingdom) the dissuasive tax rates applied to outdoor advertising may help preserve landscapes from an excessive advertising presence. It must be pointed out, however, that while the taxation of outdoor advertising may help limit its presence in the landscape, it may also have the perverse effect, particularly in times of budgetary difficulties

for public authorities, of holding those authorities back from possible action to ensure compliance with environmental regulations.

2.4. Restrictions on billboard advertising and public freedoms

A few aspects in favour of a "measured" public approach to outdoor advertising should nevertheless be taken into consideration:

- while public concerns (particularly in the area of public health, involving tobacco, alcohol, decency, defamation, and so on) have given grounds for restrictions on freedom of expression, that freedom must still be guaranteed, and the implementation of "landscape" regulations must not be used as a pretext by administrative authorities to control the content of the promotional messages disseminated; however, some associations claim that, as a corollary to freedom of expression, there should be "freedom of reception" as grounds for objecting to outdoor advertising, which is imposed on a target audience not having expressly consented to it;
- the presence of advertising or corporate signage, sometimes to the point of overflow, may in some cases constitute a "desired" characteristic of the contemporary urban landscape (the dazzling displays on Times Square, Piccadilly Circus or Nanjing Road go down very well with tourists);

This poster campaign drew strong criticism on religious grounds that had nothing to do with landscape concerns. © PrairieWeb Internet Marketing – Flickr

Advertising and corporate signage that typify certain urban landscapes

© Mathias V. – Flickr

Manhattan

© Clry2 – Flickr

London

© N. Botiger – Flickr

Shanghai

- the need to promote business activities in the place where they are carried out (corporate signage) may be regarded differently from the needs of promotional communication, where necessary, by drawing a distinction between signs mentioning the business itself and signs carrying messages relating to the products and services marketed; it does seem legitimate for a business to be able to at least indicate its existence and activity in the place where it is located, even though, for the sake of preserving and enhancing landscapes, legislation may heavily restrict its scope for promotional communication beyond the site where it is based.

CONCLUSIONS

Under the European Landscape Convention, the increasing prominence of outdoor advertising, with its different supports, formats and technologies, in natural or urban landscapes, gives grounds for envisaging the adoption of various measures by the signatory states.

Obviously, regulatory approaches geared to landscape considerations do not rule out other concerns from serving as grounds for legislative, regulatory or administrative action: road safety, protection of owners or consumers, taxation, and so on.

While a "grading system" for the protection and enhancement of landscapes is conceivable, it seems a good idea to place the onus on a global approach in which all landscapes merit protection where outdoor advertising is concerned, rather than an approach identifying only the areas to be protected and leaving the rest of the territory open to advertising that is more or less contained by legislation. A global approach of this kind could be achieved by combining public protection, regulation and control measures.

Public protection policies

The most sensitive or vulnerable areas from a landscape viewpoint should be afforded substantial safeguards from schemes to install advertising supports. This assessment of landscape sensitiveness or vulnerability should not only take account solely of land use (land in its natural state, farmland, woodland or urban district) but also superimpose the fundamental landscape (relief, hydrography, climate, etc.) and perceived landscape (perspective lines, curves, ridge lines, eye-catching features, horizontality or verticality, density effect, co-visibility, view cones, visual fields, etc.). These safeguards could also cover *inter alia*:

- *natural areas, farmland and woodland:* the "natural" quality of these landscapes would *a priori* give grounds for prohibiting outdoor advertising and restricting the possibilities of installing corporate signage for the businesses located there;
- *remarkable urban ensembles:* the legislations of the different states generally incorporate identification of the geographical areas presenting an interest from a historical, cultural, aesthetic or landscape point of view; depending on the interest identified, it would be advisable that the presence of advertising

in these places be prohibited, or at least restricted, and the installation of corporate signage be contained and controlled;

- *areas that are vulnerable from a landscape point of view owing to their characteristics or location:* visible from numerous points, located in a basin, on a hillside, at a height or on a ridge line, etc.

The landscape inventories which the states that are party to the European Landscape Convention have undertaken to compile should, *inter alia,* make it possible to identify vulnerable landscapes, define quality objectives with regard to the presence of advertising and then envisage, in the light of those objectives, limiting the risks of potential damage to those landscapes from advertising or corporate signage.

Public regulation policies

Advertising should be permitted within built landscapes only under strictly controlled conditions, irrespective of the landscapes' own urban or architectural quality. The intention is to curb "excessive advertising", for example by limiting the surface area or even the number of supports and by laying down conditions for the use of supports for advertising (buildings, fencing, special supports, urban furniture, advertising vehicles, and so on).

"Urban peripheries" require specific treatment, given the importance of these zones of transition between natural and urban areas for outdoor advertising along town access roads.

Modern media for outdoor advertising such as digital screens and large- or very large-format wraps should be taken into account as a matter of urgency in national (and local) regulations – if this is not already the case – in order to regulate their presence, which might otherwise become invasive very quickly and on a longstanding basis in many landscapes.

Depending on the institutional system specific to each state, it would be useful if national regulations could be adapted by local authorities (provincial, regional, cantonal, municipal), to ensure the best possible fit of the rules applicable to advertising and corporate signage with the specific characteristics of local landscapes; these local authorities could then play a key role in analysing any applications for prior permission required.

Tying in procedures and regulations applicable to advertising and corporate signage with those governing town planning and construction would appear to make for a more coherent consideration of landscape concerns; some states (United Kingdom, Germany or Belgium in particular) have already opted for this global approach to urban landscapes and integrated the law governing outdoor advertising with town planning legislation.

In accordance with the principles laid down in the convention, the definition of regulations – both national and local – must allow the effective participation of all the players concerned. This includes the general public, as it is the public who, on the one hand, "benefit" from landscapes that should be preserved from excessive advertising and, on the other hand, are the target of promotional

messages. The freedom to "receive" promotional messages may be juxtaposed with the freedom of expression that is so often emphasised. It also includes the professionals concerned: billboard companies or corporate sign-makers, advertisers or traders in particular, local and regional public authorities, design studios, consultancies, and so on.

Measures aimed at controlling legislation

Even if "ignorance of the law is no excuse", effective implementation of the principles of protection for the most sensitive areas and regulation of supports also means that prohibitions and regulations are checked too, preferably upstream within the framework of prior permission that many states have introduced (regardless of planning or building permission), more often than not with real effectiveness in environmental terms.

These prior checks must also be followed by checks on the lawfulness of the structures installed and allow for the initiation of court or administrative procedures to remove or make compliant any structures that have been improperly installed.

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Chapter 6

Landscape and economy: an approach from the European Landscape Convention

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INTRODUCTION

The landscape and the economy are social representations that have been the subject of numerous studies. Each study follows its own theories, but they are very similar in practice to the extent that while it is easy to understand the reality of social representations, it is not easy to grasp the concept. In truth, in everyday life the two are closely linked. In a metaphorical sense, this is comparable to the structure of water, designed to promote interactions which form links or "hydrogen bonds",[1] the existence of which is essential for all life forms.

We shall examine the links that the landscape, as conceived in the European Landscape Convention, establishes with the main objectives of the economy: social welfare, the creation of employment, provision of public goods and public structures, all of which connect with the real worries of European societies; we wish to learn more about the risks inherent in a lack of any connection between economic practice and the landscape, as well as the opportunities offered by linking landscape objectives with economic policy.

1. According to Gould (2011): "Water is everywhere on our planet. In the air, in our bodies, in our food and in our breaths. Without it, life as we know it would not be possible. Water is vital for the survival of all living things, yet as a molecule it has some pretty odd behaviour. Water molecules stick to each other, forming the 'skin' on ponds and droplets. The solid form floats on the liquid form. At room temperature water is a liquid, when most of the molecules closely related to it are gasses. Why does water have so many strange and wonderful properties? What is it about this rather tiny and innocuous molecule that makes it so important for life? To answer that you have to look at the actual structure of the molecule, exploring a world far, far smaller than microbiology usually goes. The properties of water are determined by the forces that hold it together". The "hydrogen bond" is really a special case of dipole forces. A hydrogen bond is the attractive force between the hydrogen attached to an electronegative atom of one molecule and an electronegative atom of a different molecule. Usually the electronegative atom is oxygen, nitrogen, or fluorine, which has a partial negative charge. The hydrogen then has the partial positive charge.

The first part considers the different viewpoints and methodologies that can be applied in the analysis of the landscape's economic dimension, given that it will be from such viewpoints and methodologies that the perceivable forces of attraction between the economy and the landscape emerge. These forces both determine and are determined by the capacity to implement effective public participation, to reveal the essential common factors in the economic processes or dynamics of the landscape.

The second part then considers an economic subject that has become fundamental in its development: social well-being. This concept can form a generic link to the landscape, as is pointed out in detail in the convention. The contributions of landscape theory and practice to social well-being, in both theory and practice, offer economics the possibility of an argued reworking of the subjective aspects of social well-being and welfare.

The third part deals with one of the central pillars of social well-being as reflected in economic policies, social worries and academic research: employment. Using the concept of landscape allows us to recognise work beyond its monetary value and interpret it within the wider set of human activities linked to the dynamics and management of the landscape. If employment is seen as something more than just the labour market, it can be considered a form of public participation and social construction, par excellence.

Finally, the fourth part examines the existing connections between the economy and the landscape in the light of the debate on the private versus public sphere of the economy. If the economic analysis criteria are broadened, the landscape approaches can help uncover the double aspects of public versus private, and this allows the landscape to be stressed as an essential factor in harmonising and linking these different sectors.

Each aspect has meaning within a holistic reflection on the forces of attraction that the landscape exerts upon the economy, thus establishing bridges and links which are essential to coexistence and democracy. This is something that even competition, driven by the markets, must learn to serve, since such forces cannot be the end, and exclusion cannot be the basis of social welfare; another economy is possible, one that can make this world a better place. As Europeans, we hold the historical responsibility for driving such a change, and we should recognise this vital opportunity that the landscape gives us.

1. THE ECONOMIC DIMENSION OF LANDSCAPE: THE NEXUS

The landscape and the economy are acquiring growing importance and stronger links in the complex cultural configuration process that both determines and is determined by human behaviour. Understanding the complexity of this process is the starting point in the analysis of the economic dimension of the landscape.[2]

2. Complexity supposes the understanding that reality is dynamic, modelled in space and time by an infinite number of elements, natural species, persons, organisations, cultures, technologies which are in a continual interrelationship and which materialise through the landscape and the economy, among other spheres.

Knowledge of the existing relationship between economics and the landscape is determined by the way in which methodologies are used to interpret its complexity. At one extreme, we have approaches that take on this complexity through the simplification of the cultural system; first, the decomposition, fragmentation and dispersal of its parts, then proceeding with a specialised and independent study of each one, the so-called "disciplinary" focus. Related to that, there is also the interdisciplinary focus, which groups together a set of studies from different disciplines. The desired result is objective and detailed knowledge from each sphere of reality. At the other extreme, other currents[3] of opinion interpret this approach to complexity from the point of view of the "fusion between the unit and the multiplicity",[4] the so-called transdisciplinary focus, which is based on and takes into consideration the complexity itself. The desired result is meaningful knowledge.

Meaningful knowledge is not guided by facts, but by scenarios; it is relational and emotional. It is based on dealing with a single reality as if it were multiple realities. This means that, in the matter of landscape and economics, each decision made from meaningful knowledge is based on a relationship and interconnectivity with a multitude of questions that address both local and global affairs, bringing sense and logic to the various processes from tradition, acquired knowledge, experience, real or everyday situations, creativity and social dialogue.

This methodological distinction is crucial. Firstly, because it enables us to look at the divergent results that can come from the analysis of the landscape's economic dimension. Secondly, because of the different possibilities for public participation[5] through the level of debate that arises. Collective knowledge processes are thus established, limited on the one hand by the disciplinary boundaries, and on the other, opened up by the transdisciplinary nature of the preoccupation with the problems being characterised.

When applying a disciplinary approach, the analysis of the economic dimension of the landscape will give us a very different result from the one we will get if the landscape dimension of the economy is analysed. This is because the recognised theoretical orthodoxies of the science of economics on the one hand, and the academic orthodoxies of the landscape on the other, differ substantially in their aims and research methods. Specialisation brings with it, among other things, a problem when we wish to take the debate beyond the specialisations. Such reductionism represents a serious limitation to our knowledge of reality and its key challenges in

3. These currents are developing in both the public sphere of the social or collective organisations and in private enterprises. In the latter case, it stood out for its "effectiveness in converting intangible knowledge into tangible business assets, creating an organisation based on processes, teams and communities" (Nonaka 1995).

4. An expression of Edgar Morin (1990), who, in opposition to the traditional way of thinking which classifies the field of knowledge into disciplines, formulates the idea of complex thought as a kind of relinking. It is, therefore, opposed to the isolation of pieces of knowledge, restores them to their context and, whenever possible, reinserts them into the global picture to which they belong.

5. Public participation has been defined by Rowe and Frewer (2004: 512): "at a general level as the practice of consulting and involving members of the public in the agenda-setting, decision-making, and policy-forming activities of organisations or institutions responsible for policy development".

spite of the notable academic results in each of the disciplines.[6] This is what some authors have called the social syndrome of the Tower of Babel, the conflicts of which produce effects that are critical to understanding the processes of construing the landscape.

Adopting a transdisciplinary approach as an alternative facilitates the simultaneous approach to both landscape and economy. This also assumes some recognition of the complexity, but without the possibility, nor the intention, of resolving the said complexity. We simply introduce holistic analysis, which stresses the importance of everything considered globally, and in which economics and landscape both participate, creating the synergies of their interdependence. With the introduction into the economy of the landscape approach, we are looking for the synthesis that will enable the exchange of and mutual respect for ideas, beliefs or different cultures, either individual or collective. It also opposes any kind of reductionism of reality that would limit the field of study, for example by concentrating on tradition, and thus encouraging indoctrination and "single thought".[7]

The European Landscape Convention recognises the adoption of a transdisciplinary approach, wherein the notion of landscape is established as: "an area, as perceived by people, whose character is the result of the action and interaction of natural and/or human factors". Equally appreciable is the notion of landscape management that it introduces:

> Landscape management means action, from a perspective of sustainable development, to ensure the regular upkeep of a landscape, in order to guide and harmonise changes which are brought about by social, economic and environmental processes.

For the convention to become effective there needs to be recognition of the transdisciplinary nature of the notion of landscape. This is pointed out in Recommendation CM/Rec(2008)3 of the Committee of Ministers to member states on the guidelines for the implementation of the European Landscape Convention:

> The concept of landscape in the convention differs from the one that may be found in certain documents, which sees in landscape an "asset" (heritage concept of landscape) and assesses it (as "cultural", "natural", etc. landscape) by considering it as a part of

6. According to Popper (1963: 88): "We are not students of some subject matter but students of problems. And problems may cut right across the borders of any subject matter or discipline". Also Becher (1991) warns that the specialisations are real "academic disciplinary tribes", more concerned with studying issues that are troublesome.
7. The concept of single thought, first described by the German philosopher Arthur Schopenhauer (1819) as that thought which "sustains itself, without having to make reference to other components of a system of thought", has been questioned by different authors. Edgar Morin, a well-known critic of single thought, points out: "'Single thought' was thus named by its detractors, given its desire to hold the truth and to represent reality. It is thus a question of the illusion of realism, which hopes to know the truth, to see it and control it. Obviously, it is a reality constructed for a made-to-measure rationalising of its reductionist concepts. Reality, however, cannot be rationalised, because it is so wide, indivisible and mysterious. Thus, the desire for single thought to be a forced adaptation of current realities is not very realistic, prior to all the transformation processes currently underway. If single thought were to become aware that it is itself subject to these transformation processes of the current world, it would no longer be so single, but more multidimensional. It would be a complex thought". (Vallejo-Gomez 2008: 249-62).

physical space. This new concept expresses, on the contrary, the desire to confront, head-on and in a comprehensive way, the theme of the quality of the surroundings where people live; this is recognised as a precondition for individual and social well-being (understood in the physical, physiological, psychological and intellectual sense) and for sustainable development, as well as a resource conducive to economic activity.

The convention, in the way it has been conceived and developed, offers not only the purpose but also the opportunity to encourage a community of interests that will allow a certain common sense to be used in the management of that reality, a reality which, as citizens, we all share and which is, at the same time, an economic, social and ecologically unique yet diverse space and time upon which all those needs, desires or perceptions of us Europeans, necessary for the collective building of a better world, can be given expression.

The objectives of this universal desire have been shown to be a sizeable challenge. In spite of the unquestionable advances of European society over the last half century, the changes in our lifestyles have also posed new and growing risks that threaten at all social, ecological and economic levels, to an extent which, historically, has never before occurred. As Europeans, we enjoy a comfortable life, but where is it leading us?

Every European state has recognised these risks and their incipient materialisation in the form of environmental and cultural damage which, in some cases, may well be irreversible. Every country has also recognised the need for a change in policies towards sustainable development, and different national and collective strategies have been elaborated in this respect.[8]

These policies and strategies towards a sustainable development are beginning to bear fruit in the form of some very important results, especially in terms of the integration of public interventions. However, they also demonstrate that many of them are being limited by the resistance of various interest groups, especially economic ones, many of which exercise their power on a global level, but always with a short-term perspective. This makes the development of the institutional frameworks from which to carry out the diagnosis and adequate treatment of the problems more difficult. The effect is clear: the level of the quality of life and the sustainability of development in the medium to long term are ever more uncertain.[9]

The globalisation of economic power and the associated social changes give impetus to, and are contributing to, the increasing distrust of European citizens towards politics, political parties and politicians, in spite of the fact that the majority still support democratic institutions and values. The landscape reflects this conflict between what is and what should be, distancing the representatives from the people they are supposed to represent, threatening some of the most

8. The European Union considers, in its strategy for sustainable development, the following seven fundamental challenges: climate change and clean energy; sustainable transport; sustainable production and consumption; conservation and management of natural resources; public health; social inclusion, demography and migration; world poverty.

9. As recognised in the final evaluation report of the IV Environmental Programme of the European Commission.

important social structures of the past century, while the social sciences cannot offer effective answers.

The transdisciplinary notion of landscape offered by the convention represents a bridge to unite disciplines, in particular, to those reviewing the economy which is currently playing a key role in both the development and processes of social and ecological degradation. It is a bridge that facilitates communication and the establishment of links capable of rediscovering relationships, favours the exchange of knowledge and gives impetus to social networks which are all essential to strengthening democracy. On the other hand, however, it allows the differences of opinion between the recognised landscape and economic specialists to be taken on board. Each specialism has contributed not only to an extraordinary disciplinary development, but also to a dangerous independence of these fields of knowledge in contemporary culture, typical of the western world over the last two centuries. Their theories, whenever they have been put into practice, have frequently led to worse situations than those initially envisaged because of a lack of vision grounded in reality.

European society has historically championed the world's cultural and academic progress through exploring possibilities and taking better advantage of available resources in order to achieve collective goals. However, at the start of the 21st century, this process may be changing towards an economic determinism in which human behaviour, our way of thinking and everything that happens in the environment, are permanently being determined by a supposedly optimistic model of economic cause and effect, something which will necessarily affect future social possibilities.

In its preamble, the European Landscape Convention stresses the relationship that the landscape has with economic activity and social welfare, and this is widely accepted as a general idea. In practice, however, the economic agents and authorities seem to show a total lack of concern for, or ignorance of, its application. The national economic policies, or those of the European Union, continue to concentrate on economic growth as the main aim. On observing the current instability and the European economic crisis, we must take note of a certain loss of interest in sustainable development, as opposed to growth, in spite of the fact that without sustainable development any solution to the crisis must be questioned. In addition, the convention urges us to "integrate landscape into its regional and town planning policies and in its cultural, environmental, agricultural, social and economic policies, as well as in any other policies with possible direct or indirect impact on landscape".

The key to making this integration of landscape into policies effectively lies in developing this transdisciplinary approach as proposed by the convention, and thus establishing the framework for connecting to reality, facilitating a participative analysis of the problems and opportunities, and recognising citizens' right to participate. Such a right is fundamental to the construction of alternatives and the development of decision-making processes capable of recognising and dealing with the other great conflict associated with these processes. This sets individual interests into conflict with collective public or social ones, in understanding the

meaning of wealth, as can be inferred from the most original and elementary notion of economics.[10]

The convention's economic reflection offers economics itself the opportunity to overcome the determinism with which orthodox economic theory is developed. The orthodox theory is linked to the analysis of individual motives, reduced to the principles, causes or forces that operate in the markets, and which are isolated from the forces of nature or the physical environment, as well as from the complex and delicate social-building processes. The landscape gives economic science the possibility to relate to and become enriched by other sciences, but mainly it provides the opportunity to go beyond disciplines and theoretical debates, to serve, in practice, the aims of sustainable development and social well-being, as well as to form an institutional framework based on firm collective values which enable democracy to function effectively.

2. LANDSCAPE AND WELFARE ECONOMICS: CAN THE LANDSCAPE RENEW WELFARE ECONOMICS?

The term welfare (or well-being) is commonly used in the most diverse fields and, for this reason has, to some extent, acquired an infinite number of meanings that go far beyond the simple fact of feeling well. The identifiable meanings have both physical and psychological dimensions, which can be either objective or subjective and even include emotional or perceptual aspects, both personal and collective. One general explanation for the concept's successful diversification can be found in the fact that it provides a reason for living; it gives life sense and an elementary orientation. "To be or not to be" is only the necessary part of the question, but it does not seem to be enough; human beings aspire to being able to enjoy a decent quality of life.[11]

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10. In the emerging notion of economics introduced by Aristotle (ca. 384-322 BC) in his *Politics* (Book I) and *Nicomachean ethics* (Book V), on dealing with themes related to wealth, money or commerce, two parts can be distinguished in the *khrèmatistikè:* "commerce oriented towards satisfying the natural needs of the home and commerce oriented towards obtaining money". Concerning the latter part, he offers an essential evaluation of wealth: "Wealth is good and desirable. However, wealth obtained through usury or interest is not. This is so because money was made to facilitate exchange and not to obtain more money. Of all businesses, this is the most antinatural. As with King Midas, converting everything you touch into gold prevents the natural tendency for living beings to be fed". Although much has been written since these contributions of Aristotle to explain the content and methodologies of economics, even to the extent of elevating it to the category of an independent science, this original distinction between economics and business has to some extent become one of the gravitational axes of economic notions, as pointed out by Naredo (1987). It also connects with the differentiation between "formal" and "substantive" economics, taken from the rationality typologies described by Weber which recognises the duality between a private economics, maximising individual profits, and a collective economy, which is public or social (Weber 1922: p. 64).
11. Dignity is derived from the Latin adjective *digno* and can be translated as "valuable". It refers to the human being's inherent value in that we are rational and gifted with freedom and the power to create. People can thus model and improve their lives through decision making and the exercise of their free will.

In the sphere of the economy, generally dedicated to the administration of resources for the satisfaction of the needs of humanity, attention to well-being has become so important that it has come to characterise one of the most outstanding economic currents, that of welfare economics. This has transcended the economy to spheres of social and political organisation, as well as ecological processes. The landscape is part of this process, as it facilitates the integrated understanding of this transcendence.

Welfare economics has undergone an essentially disciplinary evolution, driven by the need to demonstrate the objectivity of its propositions. Paradoxically, however, the very subjective nature of the term has marked its partiality, its limitations and its failures. The transcendental history of welfare economics has largely been written in the light of such pessimism and failures,[12] linked to the lack of interest in, or interest in ignoring, value judgments in a wide sense of the term, that is to say, ignoring a whole set of factors, contexts and subjective aspects which are notably present in the landscape and which, in practice, are shown to be much more relevant, economically speaking, than some of the most outstanding economists have considered in their theories and models.

In its origins, in the 18th and 19th centuries, the pioneers worked through a classical tradition of economic thought. Such thinking introduced the identification of welfare with that of wealth, recognising in human egoism the force that drove the economic well-being of society. It offered an aggregate view of social welfare with no references to the landscape.

Later, marginalist thought brought with it a rather different conception of social welfare, identifying it with the efficient assignation of resources through the free market.[13] In this neoclassical current, landscape is not identified as a resource linked to a specific market; in the cases where it is mentioned, it is associated with some of the market faults that this current identifies.[14] An extensive literature has been developed concerning such faults and the conditions of public intervention needed to resolve them, paying special attention to the objective of efficiency and, to a lesser extent, to that of equity.

These neoliberal currents are questioned by Keynesianism, given the limitations of public interventions during economic crises. As John Maynard Keynes pointed out in his celebrated work *The general theory of employment, interest and money*:

> Therefore, the enlargement of the functions of government (involved in the task of adjusting to one another the propensity to consume and the inducement to invest)

12. Stressed by Baujard (2011), for whom, according to an ancient theory, several authors compete to be more pessimistic concerning the outcome of welfare economics.
13. For authors such as Bentham, Menguer, Walras, Jevons, or Marshall, the economy is conceived "as a fully separate sphere with its own laws". Their ideas introduce a rupture with the value-work tradition, and their analyses associate the value of things to man's relation with these assets, displacing the nucleus of the economy with the individual assignations which, following utilitarian criteria, obey the law of marginalisation, according to which "each new unit gradually acquires a lower valuation".
14. Price (2012) said, "For economists, the essence of landscape as an 'economic problem' is the absence of conventional markets".

> would seem to a nineteenth-century publicist or to a contemporary American financier to be a terrific encroachment on individualism. I defend it, on the contrary, both as the only practicable means of avoiding the destruction of existing economic forms in their entirety and as the condition of the successful functioning of individual initiative … The authoritarian state systems of today seem to solve the problem of unemployment at the expense of efficiency and freedom. It is certain that the world will not much longer tolerate the unemployment which, apart from brief intervals of excitement, is associated and in my opinion, inevitably associated with present-day capitalistic individualism. But it may be possible, by a right analysis of the problem, to cure the disease whilst preserving efficiency and freedom. (Keynes 1936)

The remedy to capitalism's illness proposed by Keynes is known as the welfare state, which justifies public intervention to bring access to certain essential goods and services to the citizens as a whole. It also instituted the idea of so-called social rights, which guarantee a series of benefits linked to employment. The welfare state has managed to reduce social conflict by making the state the referee of the interests in dispute, and it has been recognised as one of the major achievements of the 20th century.

Nevertheless, the welfare state opens up another debate between investigators. On the one hand, there are those who represent an alternative to neoliberalism. This gives the state a primordial role in the economy as the guarantor of social security against the recognised market risks. On the other hand, there are those who go beyond the dualism of Keynesians and marginalists in their definition of the role to be played by the public sector in the economy.

Recognising the predominant way welfare economics affect public policies (alternating between Keynesian and neoliberal tendencies)[15] a profound rethink must be undertaken to promote a renewal which can be useful for decision making. It would have an effective and substantive social projection, capable of recognising basic ways to integrate economic activity, other than those of the market and of exchange – such as reciprocity, redistribution or self-production; all have been instrumental in forming the landscape, and without them landscape interpretation lacks any content whatsoever.

Orthodox economic methodologies are equivalent to interpreting the landscape as an asset with an associated market whose management responds to the objectives of efficiency and equity. However, when the contribution of the landscape to social well-being is analysed, numerous questions appear which show up not so much the imperfections of that market, but the limitations of this mercantile interpretation in the management of landscapes, failing to recognise them as part of our well-being:

- How can we define ownership in the context of landscape?
- What mechanisms of exclusion can be used to decide who can and cannot enjoy the landscape?

15. For the Nobel prize winner Krugman (2009): "It's important to understand that Keynes did much more than make bold assertions. 'The General Theory' is a work of profound, deep analysis – analysis that persuaded the best young economists of the day. Yet the story of economics over the past half century is, to a large extent, the story of a retreat from Keynesianism and a return to neoclassicism".

- Under what conditions are the preferences of the consumers of the landscape revealed?
- Who should be recognised as a "producer" of the landscape?
- How does the "consumption" of the landscape affect its conservation?
- What level of information in the market is necessary?
- Do we promote ecologically adapted human behaviour that can guarantee the conservation of the natural processes that support the lives of all the species on the planet?
- Are we capable of appreciating the social welfare inherent in our own landscape?

The list of questions, which are not disconnected to the economy itself and its evolution, is endless.

Faced with the lack of satisfactory answers to these questions from current welfare economics (or at least from ethical, moral and ecological points of view), the idea of linking the notion of welfare to other notions as universal as that of the quality of life has been suggested.[16] This would facilitate the incorporation of subjective information to the analysis, such as the information provided through the individual's own perception of life, the value of which is estimated through the relationships and social ties it promotes.

When our aspirations are to preserve a landscape that we consider to be our own, we should understand that we are perceiving well-being and quality of life in a very different way from that which the welfare economy proposes. This is because the latter is based on the belief that our well-being and quality of life is lacking – something which happens as soon as we start to consider ourselves as individuals, leading to an individual search to find what is lacking. On the other hand, in the landscape economy, we appreciate all those characteristics of our collective identity that make us aware of what we have and how we are part of our surroundings and our culture, encouraging us to co-operate in order to conserve it.

To really develop the notion of quality of life as part of our understanding of well-being, it should be understood as a concept that cannot be separated from the "landscape quality objective" as defined in the convention. This "means, for a specific landscape, the formulation by the competent public authorities of the aspirations of the public with regard to the landscape features of their surroundings". Among the public's aspirations we should note the conservation of the material and abstract cultural heritage that identifies communities and gains respect for other cultures and different

16. According to Cummins (1998: 3), "Quality of life is both objective and subjective, each axis being the aggregate of seven domains: material well-being, health, productivity, intimacy, safety, community and emotional well-being. Objective domains comprise culturally relevant measures of objective well-being. Subjective domains comprise domain satisfaction weighted by their importance to the individual". In this sense Stiglitz, Sen and Fitoussi (2009) comment: "The information relevant to valuing quality of life goes beyond people's self-reports and perceptions to include measures of their 'functionings' and freedoms".

ways of thinking, which are inherent in the diversity and wealth of the landscapes, as well as the integral care of nature.

It is within this analysis framework that the landscape shows its economic relevance, emerging as a key element in the renovation of the economic theories at the service of this social welfare proposal. This is because it facilitates understanding on a multiple space and time scale, recuperating the value of the local vernacular economies as an essential part of the culture. This conflicts with the tendencies that lead to their dilution within the global sphere which is dominated by the megamarkets. In the global markets, the citizens' role is reduced to that of producers or consumers, and they lose their sense of responsibility for the negative impacts and externalities they cause, making an unequal and inefficient behaviour widespread; one that inhibits social well-being, even in the most economistic sense: for someone to win, many must lose.

The consideration of the landscape helps us "produce" and "consume" non-material values, developing the subject-oriented economy, as a guarantee of social welfare, as against the dominant object-oriented economy, in which we are condemned to being dissatisfied, as we base our well-being on material possessions.

It is also essential that economics should include qualitative means of evaluation in its methodologies and practical applications. Qualitative methods are widespread in the sphere of landscape and offer meaningful knowledge concerning reality, and also measure social well-being and quality of life. Such means also facilitate the exchange of experiences and methodologies. On incorporating such means of evaluation, those methodological difficulties derived from the subjectivity they introduce should be accepted completely. Attempts to eliminate them generally lead to an ordering of individuals' preferences derived by converting value judgments into utility evaluations, something extremely difficult to measure, given that the satisfaction produced by the consumption of an item depends on multiple personal and collective factors. Thus, the supposed rigour will bring with it a loss of realism and a loss of confidence in the results.[17]

There are many cases which can be used as examples of how far objectivity can or cannot be used. Thus, it can be objectively recognised that the village of Ushguli, in the Caucasus, at about 2 200 metres, is the highest habitation in Europe. However, to compare the level of welfare and quality of life they enjoy to that of any other culture is not only extremely risky, but also imprudent, as it assumes the validity of the same value judgments across very diverse cultures. Even within the same culture, such aspects as gender and age can lead to very different evaluations. These cannot be aggregated to obtain a single result, since the policies that are developed from such a result necessarily have a high risk of being wrong in ways which are socially inadmissible.

17. In a first attempt to measure the quality of life, the OECD considered it necessary to introduce perception indicators. Thus, such indicators were included in its 1973 work, but they were later removed due to the methodological difficulties they entailed. In its 1976 report, it was stated that no satisfactory means had been found for including subjective indicators. It was only in the work of 1982 that subjective preoccupations were suppressed, allowing a cardinal ordering of the quality of life by country, but this was still far from being credible or resolving the debates; in fact, it only made the debates more heated.

In European regions, when indices of wealth which reflect levels of productive profit are compared with indicators of the quality of life, the heterogeneous nature of these objectives becomes apparent. According to Eurostat data, the wealthiest region in the EU by per capita income is Inner London, being more than triple the European average, while also having one of the highest indices of urbanisation. However, this primacy is not necessarily reflected in terms of quality of life, one example being that the inhabitants themselves are demanding support for the creation of new urban allotments for cultivation.[18] This is an attempt to revive traditional activities to provide them with good quality food and restore the land degraded by urban pressure. There is a growing awareness of the rural vocation in these areas.[19]

Based on the economic form of "own production", allotments had no associated mercantile profit and conventional economics did not recognise a contribution to social welfare as a direct utility from them. Furthermore, when it tries to do so through indirect methods, extremely absurd results can appear, such as estimating that the utility provided by the self-consumption of a vegetable cultivated on expensive urban soil is much higher than that obtained from the same vegetable cultivated on cheap agricultural land.

Without a landscape dimension, economics has difficulty recognising the individual and collective utility of activities carried out with no lucrative end, but which provide recognised external benefits. It is, therefore, worth noting, in the case of Inner London, that when degraded urban land is converted to traditional allotments, there is a recognisable social utility, which those who brought about the change like to share with others, and who in turn feel pleasure admiring it, associating their usefulness with no material profit, in a way typical of a system of reciprocity.

An example of the real recognition of the economic system of reciprocity is the importance of the social economic sector[20] in Europe, which has begun to be formally considered over the last few decades, even though the concept and its field of action is still somewhat imprecise. In Europe, the percentage of the adult population who work as volunteers in the social economic sector continues to grow. A comparative analysis of the EU states shows the correlation between the percentage of volunteers

18. Worthy of note among the promoted activities is the London 2012 Capital Growth campaign, the aim of which was the creation of 2 012 new urban allotments, on either public or private land, in London by the year 2012.

19. In the UK, this sentiment had the support of such illustrious defenders as Beatrix Potter, from whose pen came such characters as Peter Rabbit, Jemima Puddle-Duck or Squirrel Nutkin. At the end of the 19th century, Potter championed the collective need to defend the rural tradition in the Lake District against the growing touristic speculation of the Victorian "jet set", who wanted to build bungalows where there were farms, thus destroying the landscape and the area's social fabric.

20. The social economy in Europe is extremely important, in both economic and human terms, since it provides remunerated employment for more than 14.5 million people, or 6.5% of the active population of the EU. These figures demonstrate that it is a reality which cannot be ignored either by society or institutions. "The new SE is taking shape as an emerging sector which is increasingly indispensable if an adequate response to the new challenges of the global economy and society is to be provided. These challenges lie at the root of the increasing interest in the role that the new SE can play in the welfare society" (CIRIEC 2007).

and the state's level of development, the capacity to resist the economic crisis and the preoccupation with the landscape in its multiple manifestations.

A good example of this is the Netherlands where, at 57%, the state has the highest percentage of the population active as volunteers. Founded on a model of economic and social consensus known as the Polder model, this country can boast one of the highest per capita incomes of Europe, great social homogeneity and low unemployment since the 1980s. The beginnings of the Polder model are closely linked to the singular nature of the Dutch territory which, since the Middle Ages, has required a highly efficient management of the water levels. To achieve this, an economy of consensus was developed between the water boards, the farmers and the ecologists, among other groups with very different interests. This mutual understanding, underlined by volunteering, has characterised the Dutch landscape. It has also become vital in maintaining some parts of the country above water. The attention paid to the landscape in this state has recently given a boost to the integration of territorial policies and strengthened the coalitions between the social agents that enable these policies to be successful.[21]

Numerous European experiences show the capacity of the landscape to incorporate the contribution of non-lucrative social welfare activities into the welfare economy. Such activities include not only those that satisfy vital needs, but also those which define the cultural links that give communities their identity. They are the result of co-operation, not competition, and they demonstrate humanity's capacity to relate economically, on the basis of values other than those of individual egoism.

It is through consideration of the landscape that we understand that people's well-being results not only from their economic production. Well-being is also a result of the creation by the population of an intangible heritage and a sense of belonging to a place and an active community, locally located in physical space, part of the territory. This also creates a culture open to other values, perceived through the landscape.

The awareness-raising promoted by the convention among "civil society, private organisations, and public authorities, of the value of landscapes, their role and changes to them", constitutes the seed for this new welfare culture. This is based on other collective values such as solidarity, social responsibility, altruism, social justice, respect for differences and social, economic and ecological diversity – biodiversity – and, in being so based, sets social, ecological and economic co-operation against competition.

These values also represent the basis for social cohesion, defined as a society's capacity to ensure the welfare of all its members, reduce inequalities and avoid

21. According to Roetemeijer (2005: 64): "In the first place, there are coalitions between various governmental levels. For example between the provincial and municipalities in area-specific policies. In most cases the national government has most direct relations with the provinces, and seldom directly with the Municipalities, although this is different for large cities. Provinces in turn are 'the spider in the web' having to do with all levels of government. Consequently the Municipality is most connected to the Province. Also coalitions exist between the government and NGOs, and Government with citizens and market parties".

marginalisation.[22] Social cohesion has been recognised by the Council of Europe as one of its priorities: its experience in defining policies and indicators of social cohesion is currently an international benchmark. In spite of these advances in social cohesion, many of the objectives in this matter are still considered unresolved challenges.

The five main challenges identified by the high-level Task Force on social cohesion in the 21st century are: globalisation, demographic changes, the development of immigration and cultural diversity, political, economic and social changes, as well as the recognition of social cohesion and the struggle to conserve it. These challenges are more pertinent than ever and reveal that social cohesion problems persist, and that they are even on the increase in the current economic crisis in the Europe of today (Council of Europe 2007).

The "New strategy and Council of Europe action plan for social cohesion" justifies a social cohesion strategy for the 21st century, pointing out that: "Social cohesion is a dynamic process and an essential condition for social justice, democratic security and sustainable development. Divided and unequal societies are not only unjust, they also cannot guarantee stability in the long term". (Council of Europe 2010). This argument gains strength from consideration of the landscape and should be adequately reflected in the economic activities.

Negative effects on social cohesion are still evident in rural areas, where the process of destructuring, begun by the mechanisation and industrialisation of agriculture, still continues. Yet there are also effects in urban areas, where the forms of reorganisation into social classes and ethnic groups are more easily visible, and these contribute to an increase in social differences, as well as creating important problems of coexistence.

Some activities, such as tourism, and in particular rural tourism, stand out for their contribution to protecting, managing and planning landscapes, as they enhance both the well-being of the visitors who enjoy the traditional countryside, and develop new economic activities in the said countryside. It also favours the conservation of other activities that were in danger of disappearing, such as crafts and local food production, thus creating both employment and a permanent, resident population.

However, these economic strategies which are based on the tourist market include a very small part of the landscape. It is evident that the rural culture needs public investment and the public in general in order to survive. Something as transcendental as the future of rural culture cannot be left to luck or depend on an uncertain market, based on the ephemeral postcard charm of tourist attractions (often confused with the landscape). To be so dependent, it would drag down the profound cultures that the rural areas represent, as expressions of the popular, the ancestral heritage (vernacular), the legacy of centuries, and the essence of a landscape living through

22. The Strategy for Social Cohesion of the Council of Europe defines the following principles: equal access to rights and resources, with attention also to vulnerable groups, and dignity/recognition for individuals, as expressed through human rights; sharing of responsibilities; an activating approach (participation and reconciliation); managing the balance across interests, generations and domains of action. Economic development and social development are viewed by the Task Force as inalienably related and sustainability is seen to hinge on the effective management of both, with a particular eye to balance among different sectors of the population, different generations and different policy domains (Council of Europe 2007).

its daily activities. It would also put at risk the memories, looks, feelings, thoughts, spirits and sentiments of each countryman's soul, things which have made this collective identity grow and which converts each territory into a key reference point.

The transdisciplinary approach assumed by the convention helps guide the expansion of economic activities (as is the case of tourism) through the landscape, and allows for the inclusion of ethnographic, anthropological and ecological meanings in its the interpretation of landscape for the visitor. It is one which differs, and substantially widens, from the mere presentation of heritage sites as such. The interpretation can be understood as "the art of giving meaning and sense to a place or territory, for its recognition, use and enjoyment, and which permits its conservation as a legacy for future generations" (Santamarina Campos 2008: 40). On the basis of this approach, tourism leads to ecotourism in its most authentic dimension.[23]

This enriching effect of the landscape is not exclusive to tourism, but is widely understood over economic activities as a whole, many of which, in fact, have much closer links to the processes of the landscape's social construction, in both its material and non-material aspects. Daily activities acquire meaning and sense when there is a firm, collective will for relationships that build and conserve our values through exchange, self-production, redistribution and reciprocity.

Without such collective values we can still maintain the landscapes formally, yet we will be changing the content, since we strip them of their original meanings, introducing new ones in which the people no longer count. The old traditions are replaced by "cultural spectacles" which can be seen anywhere in the world. That is, we find that the landscape is solely a product of the market, it is denaturalised, and will end up as just another element of merchandising.

Within the convention's concepts of landscape, the desire for well-being is considered a necessity which must transcend the individual and be lucrative without becoming the imposition of an order, neither of the markets nor the authorities. Understanding

23. A particular kind of tourism has come to the fore because of its links to the landscape; it has been called ecotourism. The International Ecotourism Society defined ecotourism as: "responsible travel to natural areas that conserves the environment, sustains the well-being of the local people, and involves interpretation and education". However, the most prominent ecotourism programmes, such as those offered to Europeans that take place on other continents, should raise an elementary question: Can an activity with such high transport costs have a minimal environmental impact? Landscape management recognises the elementary answer to that question, linking ecotourism more to tourism close to home, due to its simple accessibility, using scarce mechanical means of transport, if at all. Such nearby places, in general, do not possess monumental or spectacular characteristics. Those that they do possess are essential for discovering the natural capacities and cultural and economic aptitudes which should guide citizens' behaviour, since, to conserve these places, it is first necessary for those who live there to learn to appreciate them. In this dimension, landscape enriches the visitor and, inversely, the visitor enriches the landscape. The well-being associated with this mutual enrichment is not limited, nor can it be measured, by monetary exchange, but by cultural exchange. This exchange requires time and the necessary reiteration for the formation of ties to these places and their culture, and this supposes the incorporation to the economic strategies of a vision not only of the space, in which well-being is both local and global, individual and collective, but also of the time, in which well-being is evaluated simultaneously in the short, medium and long term, as well as in the present, past and future (TIES 2015), *What is ecotourism?* www.ecotourism.org

that the personal and collective perceptions that define the landscape encompass all the values that enable communication and interpersonal relationships, as well as relationships with the natural environment, is essential for sustainable development.

3. LANDSCAPE AND EMPLOYMENT: BEYOND THE LABOUR MARKET

We have stressed that the quality of landscape, in any of its interpretations, maintains a close correlation with social well-being. It is also universally recognised that if people do not have employment, then well-being is not possible. It is also well known that well-being is an outcome of the quality of the employment generated in a society. It should not be difficult to comprehend that these two determining factors for social welfare, employment and landscape, have inseparable ties. Employment creates the landscape which, in turn, creates the jobs.

The problem we have in understanding these inseparable ties is one of the consequences of excessive specialisation and disciplinary division, discussed above. Far from helping conserve the landscape and create employment, they make it more difficult for today's societies to pay simultaneous attention to these two objectives. In fact, this characteristic has in the past been one of Europe's most deeply rooted cultural capacities, as can be seen throughout history.

If we take a look at the rural landscape of the French region of Poitou-Charentes – to be precise, the area around the town of Cognac – which has given its name to the internationally known alcoholic spirit, the predominance of vineyards is easily visible.[24] This crop has been part of the landscape for a long time but, in the 19th century, the vines here were almost completely wiped out by phylloxera, as were about half the vines of Europe. The perception of the landscape for the inhabitants of this region, linked as it is to their work and their need to feed their families, determined their decision to replace most of the vines with cereal crops. This change was as drastic a transformation in their way of life and work as the change of colour to their fields from green to yellow during the summer.

The citizens accepted this change in the landscape by the forces of nature, but the fact that the original landscape of vineyards should stay in their collective memory made it possible, years later, to gradually reintroduce the vineyards around the town of Cognac, where the production of the famous spirit has ever since been on the increase. The Poitou-Charentes region has an unemployment rate below the French average, which is due not only to this sector, but also to others with close ties to it, such as tourism. These activities which dominate the landscape of the region also determine the nature of employment. There is a strong seasonality to the work, in both tourism and the times when the vineyards require the most work, and this

24. The commercial denomination "Cognac" is reserved solely for this area by means of a decree dating from 1909. The region of Cognac has over 15 000 vineyards within a total surface area of 900 km^2, producing more than 190 million bottles of this prestigious spirit per year, of which 90% is exported.

makes the region attractive to people from different places, and the population continues to grow.

Poitou-Charentes is one of many examples around Europe which demonstrates the existence of a symbiotic relationship between landscape and employment. In the same sense, the European Union encourages the appreciation of the diversity of the landscape through the existing gastronomic varieties within territories, in order to promote and protect the richness of agricultural and food products, while fully respecting the citizens' right to an informed choice and to enjoy quality products. To do so, evaluation and protection systems have been developed for some products that have added value at the socio-economic level, as they are produced in a particular region or follow a certain method.[25]

The European Landscape Convention contains many references, both explicit and implicit, to this relationship. In its preamble, the convention says: "the landscape has an important public interest role in the cultural, ecological, environmental and social fields, and constitutes a resource favourable to economic activity and whose protection, management and planning can contribute to job creation". In addition, it recognises that "the landscape contributes to the formation of local cultures", and that its economic activities and associated employment are an indivisible part of it, endorsing the idea that the protection, management and distribution of the landscape must go hand in hand with that of employment.

This relationship has also been recognised in the projects presented for the Council of Europe's Landscape Award. The winning project of 2013, *Preserving ecological value in the landscape of the Szprotawa river valley*, presented by the Lower Silesian Association of Landscape Parks, from Poland, stressed: "The integrated approach goes beyond the single dimension of biodiversity and associates nature with culture and population. Thus the project offers a model that others might follow. It shows a good level of participation by the parties concerned in both decision making and land management. The farmers and beekeepers are stakeholders; the project has also enabled apparently conflicting economic interests to be reconciled" (Council of Europe 2014).

This positive relationship, which the convention recognises, faces the recent processes of landscape degradation in Europe and the transformations in labour markets, which are linked to production processes, institutional labour negotiation frameworks, resizing and relocation of companies, and other factors, that influence the level and stability of employment.

The growing size of European companies in an increasingly globalised economy has generally been linked to the need to increase work productivity, recognised in liberal doctrine as the engine of progress in modern economies. Yet such progress, based on the increased capacity to generate more production with fewer workers,

25. In 1992, the European Union created the following systems: protected designation of origin (PDO), protected geographical indication (PGI), traditional specialties guaranteed (TSG) and organic farming. the PDO and PGI systems can be consulted in the EC Regulation No. 510/2006 of the Council of 20 March 2006 on the protection of the geographical indication and designation of origin of agricultural products and foodstuffs.

risks falling into a dangerous vicious circle, since there are only two alternatives from the point of view of employment: condemning many people to unemployment or encouraging an unsustainable process of growth based on supply and demand of ever more goods and services. This means giving ourselves up to the cornucopia of material wealth which is only self-supporting if there is a continuous increase in the consumption of raw materials and natural resources.

Adopting a landscape approach to the economy is vital to recognising these vicious circles[26] and finding a rational solution to the paradoxical economic, social and ecological problems posed around employment. All this should lead us to formulate, among others, the following question: Is the provision of a decent job for each person, in many cases based on the heritage of traditional know-how, really a problem for society?

An elementary contribution of the landscape to employment is the recognition that there are different interpretations to work. Work can be appreciated in the landscape in both its general sense of actions carried out by a person in order to achieve a series of tasks or activities, either physical or intellectual, and in a more specific way, in what we shall call formal or declared work, which includes remunerated activities that are legal with respect to their nature, and are declared to the public authorities.

A wide-ranging definition of work that sees the worker as a citizen of a particular territory, allows us to appreciate all the manifestations of human activity and its complexity. This is because, in addition to economic functions, we can also include positive psychosocial functions such as: giving structure to people's and communities' lives; creating opportunities to develop skills and acquire knowledge; transmitting values, rules, beliefs and expectations; contributing to personal and work identity and providing status and prestige. It also includes the capacity and power to create social integration that represents the main manifestation of participation in society. Yet there are also some negative functions, such as dissatisfaction, frustration, stress, and a series of widely studied physical and mental illnesses that become more severe when work is reduced to a monetary wage and its productive condition.

The time spent working must not only be valued as time for earning money. It is essential to acquire the sense that one is participating in a collective work, with the will to build a model of society that has firm social values in which we collectively believe, and to recognise the opportunities of having the time to dedicate to private and social projects that can be developed outside the market, to no lucrative end.

In this sense, John Maynard Keynes, in an essay entitled "Our grandchildren's economic possibilities", published in 1932, foresaw a time in which we could all work less and spend more time with our families, friends and community. It is, without doubt, a strategy which is worth thinking about. The landscape tells us that indefinite growth

26. Work productivity means that if our economies do not grow, we run the risk of making people unemployed, even with zero population growth. The increase in unemployment generates an increase in social expenditure. More public spending leads to unmanageable levels of sovereign debt. Higher debts can only be revised through an increase in the fiscal tax on future income, and this supposes entering into a spiral whereby disincentives to work are created, accompanied by the foreseeable fall in public employment in order to correct the fiscal imbalance, leaving a desolate labour panorama.

is difficult to achieve and, in many cases, is not even desirable, given the ecological and social imbalance introduced by an economic model that, in order to grow, needs to extract non-renewable resources. The question that Keynes considered over 80 years ago is now worth thinking about much more closely.

The landscape provides a substantial knowledge of the concept of work, integrating its economic, social, cultural and environmental dimensions. At times when the market economy reduces its lucrative capacity, the landscape allows us to recognise other values and other ways of working which are linked to the above-mentioned systems of economic activity: reciprocity, redistribution and self-production.

The development of the so-called tertiary sector, or social economy sector, offers a good model for the orientation of employment in the private sector. The co-operative solutions to employment, labour reinsertion for people with a disability, and many other ways of organising that incorporate other values into work which are not strictly speaking economic, are viewed as one of the most innovative ways of strengthening work places. This change would require a strong political will and the conviction that, if the landscape is to be a manifestation in a democracy in which everyone participates through their daily activities, then employment should be recognised as an inherent right to the condition of being an active member of society.

Another dimension of employment that landscape helps one appreciate is the difference between declared and undeclared work,[27] which has close ties to such phenomena as immigration and labour exploitation (European Commission 2007). The sectors of activity, the size of the companies and the extension of the geographic sphere of their activities are aspects that are linked to the landscape and which affect the level of legalised work. Yet the question is not so much to identify these illegal situations in order to impose the observance of fiscal obligations and social security matters, but more to guarantee the protection of workers' conditions, as proposed by the International Labour Organization.[28]

Furthermore, the result of considering relational and emotional aspects of human beings in a meaningful approach is to recognise that you have to perform a job in

27. The European Commission, in its communication on undeclared work, provides the following definition: "any paid activities that are lawful as regards their nature but not declared to public authorities, taking into account differences in the regulatory system of Member States". The focus of the International Labour Organization with respect to undeclared work is part of the wider concept known as the informal economy, defined as "any economic activity carried out by the worker and an economic unit which – by law or in practice – is not covered, or is insufficiently covered by a formal arrangement". This definition includes the concept of undeclared work as understood by the EC, as well as "the worker who is sometimes outside the sphere of application of labour legislation (for instance, the domestic or agricultural worker)". See Commission of the European Communities (2007); ILO (2010).

28. The International Labour Organization has pointed out that "Workers in the informal economy, clandestine workers, or those subject to working in a situation of non-declaration, frequently face a series of disadvantages. They generally earn less and work more hours than a formal worker. They can be deprived of their right to social security and they can suffer unstable living conditions. Formal employers are affected by this unfair competition on the part of employers who use clandestine workers and pay wages below the legal or market minimum" (ILO 2010).

order to consume, and also to consume in order to produce. Therefore, the classic functions of supply and demand upon which the decisions are made in economic markets are revealed as academic constructions tied to technical criteria, loaded with strong value judgments.

The transformation of a landscape related to "progress" brings as many difficulties as it solves, with a significant impact on employment. When landscape degenerates or is abandoned, a population stops sharing a common destiny.

The landscape invites us to conceive the labour environment as the result of a shared perception by all the members of an organisation. This shared perception comes from the interaction between an objective reality, linked to tasks, responsibilities, power hierarchy, or work rules, with a subjective reality linked to sensations, emotions, prior knowledge, competence and expectations. The style of leadership is a determinant for the work environment, and it is generally accepted that a better work environment is achieved in those organisations that adopt a participative model of leadership.

In addition, consumers should recognise their fundamental role in controlling the spread of undeclared work, since they are responsible in their buying decisions for favouring certain practices of social and ecological behaviour. When the landscape does not form part of the consumers' culture, their loyalty to the goods and services produced in decent labour conditions, better adapted to the environment, is lost.

Consider the relationship between the landscape and employment in the case of such a basic sector as the textile industry, in which Europe has become a net importer, mainly from the two Asiatic giants: China and India. It can be seen that something of the sense of local identity, reflected in the presence of a typical dress for each area, has been lost. In Belgium, a country which has traditionally been one of the best-known textile industries in Europe, the loss of its production capacity is notable. All the textile producers have suffered a loss of business, with clear consequences as far as employment is concerned.[29]

The wardrobe culture of each territory must be conserved, in both production and consumption, as part of a human landscape whose personal and collective identity responds to the cultural adaptation and the natural and climatic conditions. The wardrobe as a representation of local know-how and a desire to belong to a community is in opposition to the destructive desire to identify oneself with a way of dressing representing an exclusive social class.

Furthermore, the landscape reflects the intersectoral, social and ecological influence of these effects on employment. These values, which would introduce the landscape into the textile sector, are common to all sectors that attend to essential necessities and must, therefore, be introduced into the collective employment negotiation strategy between the different social agents, business organisations, trade unions, public authorities and civil society.

29. The sales figures in the Belgian textile industry fell by 6.3% in the first quarter of 2012, and by 9.8% in the second quarter. The fall in the third and fourth quarters was similar, 4.2% and 3.2%, respectively, and no particular change could be appreciated. The sluggishness of the market in 2012 has had an effect on employment. Between mid-2011 and mid-2012, around 1 500 jobs (6.4%) have been lost, which would currently have given employment to around 22 000 people.

Awareness of this landscape transformation process, which has gone from developing without growing to growing without developing, using non-renewable resources, should bring about a change in the orientation of employment. It will probably move more towards quality of work and encouragement of inclusive policies involving all the citizens in the conservation of both the material and immaterial heritage, which are part and parcel of the landscape, and which guarantee quality of life.

This orientation should mainly be translated into a demand, in the case of public employment, to be at the service of the collectively perceived landscape, and be based on the work of a social vocation that will require co-operative selection and working methods, as opposed to competitive ones.

Concerning employment, the integration of the young must be recognised as a priority, since they represent the new sap that will feed the landscape's vitality. As the European Commission has indicated:

> Youth unemployment has a profound impact on individuals as well as society and the economy. Unless current trends are reversed quickly, today's levels of youth unemployment risk damaging the longer-term employment prospects for young people, with serious implications for future growth and social cohesion. Within Europe's broader strategy to create growth and jobs, helping young people enter and remain in the labour market and acquire and develop the skills that will pave the way for future employment is therefore a top priority for the European Union. (European Commission (2013: 2)

If the difficulties young people experience to enter the labour market are not satisfactorily resolved, there are extremely serious consequences for the landscape, as can be seen, in particular, in rural areas over the last few decades. The rural industrialisation that produced an impressive increase in labour productivity is the origin of the unceasing exodus of youth from the rural areas to the cities; young women in particular who, although they have been traditionally more active in the rural areas in carrying out work both within and outside the home, suffer a lack of recognition and opportunities, which favours their silent exodus from the rural landscape.

However, youth without a future condemns these places to a future without youth. They are not "anti" the rural system, it is "anti" them and "anti" itself since, when the cultural dynamics of the rural landscape stops the generational feedback, then it is lost. Perhaps these places do not change much physically, but their landscapes, the individual and collective perceptions they transmit, will have been profoundly and easily transformed in a way that is irreversible.[30]

Knowledge of the parallelisms and synergies between the Leader initiative and the landscape approach promoted by the convention would allow these limitations to be overcome through the development of a work culture, based on the labour

30. This problem directly affects over half the population of the EU living in rural areas and represents 90% of the EU's territory.

tradition of each territory. This tradition could be renewed to develop the strengths that would allow them to face the threats and pressures of the global economy.[31]

The European Landscape Convention anticipates these scenarios by considering the importance of training in the landscape. In accordance with Recommendation CM/Rec(2008)3 of the Committee of Ministers to the member states concerning the guidelines for setting up the convention, we would like to express the importance of this through the following conditional sentence: *if* landscape constitutes a teaching resource because, when reading it, pupils are brought face to face with visible signs of their surroundings that relate to spatial planning issues and landscape reading also makes it possible to understand current and historical approaches to landscape production as an expression of a community's identity, *then*, school curricula at various levels should foster an awareness of landscape themes through learning to read landscapes and through sensitisation to relations between people's surroundings and landscape, to relations between ecology and landscape problems and to social and economic questions.

In effect, the European Landscape Convention offers ways to face the threats to employment and working, created by an economic system based on growth and profit, generating social inequality and environmental degradation. The convention is a strong impetus through participation, sensitisation, training and education in the landscape, upon which our capacity to recognise all these offers of work around us depends. It also offers ways to respond to its renewal and conservation, as Europe's landscape is the result of a social and ecological metabolism in continuous change which requires an ever wider and more inclusive vision of employment.

4. LANDSCAPE AND PUBLIC ECONOMICS: A HOLISTIC VIEW

It is widely recognised that the economic analysis of the landscape is generally inspired by public economics, that landscape transformations adhere to the sphere of non-mercantile phenomena, and that they are regulated by the public authorities (Oueslati 2011). However, in so far as public economics includes doctrines with diverse, and sometimes contradictory, interpretations of the role that the public sector should play in the economy, these controversies are also transmitted to the landscape.

We have stressed the controversies in such aspects as social welfare and employment. The implementation of the European Landscape Convention provides, therefore, an opportunity to debate and establish an institutional framework that allows the bringing together of proposals from projects or other landscape policies.

31. In the case of rural employment, the incorporation of the instruments proposed for the practical setting up of the European Landscape Convention within the Common Agricultural Policy (CAP), of which the rural development policy is an increasingly important component, would allow the development in these territories of their strengths, recognising the fact that they are essentially natural and sociocultural.

The European Landscape Convention recognises a principle of coherence[32] which offers a necessary complement to the explicit recognition of integration from which the principle of cohesion is derived. This coherence is approached on both a theoretical level (in which the landscape's economic nature is debated in order to determine the legitimate public intervention) and on a more operative level, promoting a basic harmonisation and joint effort among the different public authorities involved in landscape policies. This avoids unnecessary duplications and contradictions in their actions contradictions which may well create confusion among the citizens, thus, in some cases, discouraging them from participating, and in others creating confrontations or divisions that can distort the personal and collective perceptions which define landscape.

One of the convention's notable achievements in the theoretical sphere has been to make some propositions to help overcome the spiral into which the longstanding academic debate has been drawn, stemming from a certain part of economic literature concerning the nature of the landscape's public or private good. It does so from a belief that landscape is the heritage of all, that it contributes to both individual and social well-being, and that its protection, management and distribution involve both rights and responsibilities on everyone's part. It does so also from the integrated understanding of the economic, social and ecological aspects. These aspects are not identified in the landscape as three independent pillars that hold up a common development, but as inseparable components that determine such individual and collective perceptions through which the landscape acquires its form and content.

The transdisciplinary nature of the landscape, as described in the convention, breaks with the dualism of the public as opposed to the private, as well as with the gradualisms, more or less efficient, more or less equitable, more or less well-being. Economic theory which insists on classifying the natural landscape as a public or private good, supposedly in order to be coherent, in fact promotes a particular intervention by the public sector and, claiming to be objective, falls into an intrinsic contradiction that prevents any objectivity or real coherence.

The convention, having recognised the landscape as a reality that is both objective and subjective, transfers the concern for precision in the classification and measurement of the landscape's components to the process of establishing relationships in order to ensure sustainable development. People aspire to enjoy high-quality landscapes and to active participation in their development, as encouraged by the convention; the public is recognised as being inherent to the private, and personal perceptions are determined by value judgments and collective rules.

In this sense, it should be pointed out that the contributions of the neo-institutionalism theory, which encourages individual agents and groups to pursue their respective interests in a context of collective forces, should acquire the form (Ostrom 1990) of institutions. These forces have historical roots and strong contextual links that mould the desires, preferences and actions of the groups and individuals through whom social action takes place. There should be the right balance between

32. The principle of coherence is implicitly recognised in the text of the convention, as explained in Prieur (2006).

the object and its environment in the function of the institutions.[33] The social, political and economic institutions are the most important raw material of collective life. In recent years, they have increased in size and have become considerably more complex and ingenious.

The landscape, as it is conceived by the convention, is intrinsic to human beings in their personal and social condition, whose activities are both the cause and effect of the landscape. The landscape continues indeed its production process, which is that of both consumption and enjoyment. Economic and landscape theorists should assist in interpreting this process, while also respecting the dynamics of the inherited rural and urban landscapes.

The attention paid to the "anthropological places" that have the essential identity of relational, historical and "being" characteristics in common, is a response to the risk of producing a creative economic system of "non-places" that are ephemeral and enigmatic, areas which grow and multiply through the modern world, as described by Augé (1992).

This extraordinary complexity of the landscape is also its wealth. The convention recognises that this depends on "the quality of life for people everywhere: in urban areas and in the countryside, in degraded areas as well as in areas of high quality, in areas recognised as being of outstanding beauty as well as everyday areas". Such a responsibility, on both a collective and personal level, brings with it the implication that the public authorities should take the lead in the question of the protection of the landscape from both an operative and a strategic point of view. Before discussing what to do, with whom and for whom, the decision of "why" should first be resolved, that is to say, the landscape's common objectives, so they can acquire real meaning when being defined in a participative manner.

The collective decision-making processes on this strategic level are affected by numerous difficulties, this special care has to be taken in the development of the participative processes which transcend the formal authorities, the representative democracies and, obviously, the markets. While not considering the markets and authorities as dispensable, they are simply considered a means and not an end to which such a society as Europe should aspire. We should remember that democracies are not founded on institutional permanence, as this has a price to be paid in rigidity, which is precisely one of the main threats to democracy, as it limits freedom of expression and public participation.

Landscapes are always the result of widespread direct participation of the population, which is why the decision-making processes are resolved through both formal institutional logic, through which the rules are made, and informal processes, through which the personal and collective spirit is developed. It is this spirit which finally determines the success of any territorial system. When the formal rules do not correspond with this spirit and social will, the action that brings about the landscape is

33. In the basic theory of institutional design, Robert Goodin stresses political intentionality. He considers "the creation of a way to encourage valuable results in a particular context which can serve as the basis for action to be fundamental" (Goodin 1996: 49).

not developed under the auspices of the institutions, but above and beyond those institutions, with the consequent effect of social dislocation.

The institutional standards must respond to the behaviour of the cultural and natural actors present in the landscape, whose conservation is determined by appreciating the stability and recurrence of its dynamics. Such an appreciation requires coherence in the definition, distribution and co-ordination of the competences of the different public administrations and civil society.

The landscape is the perception of both time and space; a chronological and historical time that essentially exists in a human dimension. A space, which is unique on a planetary level, has been moulded in each territory through a slow cultural process in which the institutions have historically been a response to that cultural perception. The institutions should, therefore, be the main interested parties in taking care that the social connection will not be broken, as in such a case the perception of both people and communities would lose all sense. Any action by the institutions that contributed to breaking the connection would, sooner or later, turn people against them, as has happened throughout history.

Landscape's economic dimension achieves the double condition of being public and private precisely through the participation of the public. It is the participation procedures that the public administrations can formally develop which determine the public's level of commitment to putting that responsibility into practice. The European Landscape Convention, which in general promotes voluntary involvement, makes the public's participation an obligation of the state and its main theme, even though it leaves states with the flexibility to select the means of the public's participation.

The organisation of public administrations into international, national, regional or local levels of government should take into account their common interest in conserving the landscape, since every citizen on this planet simultaneously belongs to a town, region, nation and continent. When conflicts or alliances occur between the different levels of authority which do not concur with the perceptions of the citizens in essential aspects, then there are inevitable reactions that may have very diverse and uncontrolled manifestations, even violent ones, when the institutions demonstrate a lack of sensitivity towards social preoccupations.

The convention stresses the special role played by local and regional authorities recognising the principle of subsidiarity, and the opportunities offered to these authorities by considering the landscape. The Recommendation CM/Rec(2008)3 of the Committee of Ministers to the member states concerning the guidelines for the implementation of the European Landscape Convention indicates in this sense that, "the actions should be carried out on the closest institutional level to the citizens".

The responsibility of public authorities towards landscape is also recognised by the convention, as well as the importance of international co-operation. Moreover, the voluntary commitments of the population to the landscape will strengthen the implementation of the actions developed by institutions, through closer links to the citizens. Awareness-raising actions, training, education and collective public

participation are in this regard very useful. International co-operation, which can promote the exchange of information and experience between public administrations, proves to be a way to support governments in the implementation of the convention.

The Council of Europe's Landscape Award, as well as those that each state can adopt with its own specifications, as mentioned by the convention, is part of that co-operation and exchange of information; in particular, recognising the awareness-raising promoted by the "exemplary actions carried out by public collectives and governmental organisations".

CONCLUSIONS

In conclusion, the interpretation of the landscape, within the approach proposed by the convention, builds bridges with the economy in order to boost a context for activities adapted to the ecological scenarios and to the culture of each territory. Such safeguards should mould private and public actions, individual and collective actions, from and concerning the markets and the powers they represent. As this renewal, or reframing, of the economy is carried out prompted by consideration of the landscape dimension of the territories, citizens develop a "culture of cultures" which helps promote the diversity of perceptions of their territories and reduce inequalities which threaten social cohesion. This renewal strengthens democracy by giving the economy a humanism that maximises the value of each individual. It becomes a force that replenishes welfare, employment and social life.

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Chapter 7

Wealth and variety of terms, instruments and approaches to landscape in Europe

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INTRODUCTION

As we all know, the term "landscape" has multiple connotations: it is not uncommon for the word to have several meanings in the same country, and sometimes even in the same language. A hundred languages are officially spoken across the 47 states which make up the Council of Europe. Within these 100 languages, 120 words are used to denote landscape in all its various meanings.

The Council of Europe, however, is no Tower of Babel and its members have managed to agree on a single, common definition as a basis for the European Landscape Convention.

This definition – an area, as perceived by people, whose character is the result of the action and interaction of natural and/or human factors – is the fruit of an intelligent compromise that has enabled it to find its way into a growing number of domestic laws.

The wealth and variety of underlying meanings attached to landscape have not been erased by the convention, however, and when discussing landscape, it is always worth remembering that the people we are speaking to may not have the same understanding of landscape that we have.

I recall the meetings of the group of experts tasked with drafting the convention. The group was chaired by a representative from the United Kingdom, the head of the Countryside Agency. It was only after several meetings that this gentleman realised that, for the French, "landscape" encompassed towns as well as countryside, whereas for him it referred solely to the countryside. "Countryside", indeed, would seem to be a more accurate translation of the German "*Landschaft*" and the French "*paysage*" than "landscape".

Since then, I have taken a close interest in the terms and meanings of landscape, as used by the many people encountered at meetings held in connection with the convention. Through these interpersonal contacts, I have managed to put together a collection of definitions and comments that reflect a personal, rather than an expert, perspective.

In the light of all these discussions, it is clear that this linguistic and semantic diversity has not been, and is still not, a barrier to implementing the European Landscape Convention. Far from it.

In order to better understand this seemingly paradoxical situation, I propose to begin by looking at the words used to denote landscape, and the meanings assigned to them, across the vast pan-European area. Just as language is a reflection of how populations think, so the law is a reflection of how societies think. The second part of this report deals with the various accepted meanings of "landscape" in the international instruments that apply in Europe. The third and final part provides a brief description of how words and their meanings have inspired methods of identifying, assessing and describing landscapes under Article 6.c of the European Landscape Convention.

1. LANDSCAPE IN THE LANGUAGES OF EUROPE

The word "landscape" is relatively recent. Experts have found references to "*landschap*" in the Netherlands in 1462 and to "*paysage*" in France, "*paesaggio*" in Italy and "*paisagem*" in Portugal around 1550. In the Netherlands, "*landschap*" refers to the abundance that was expected to flow from the cultivation of land reclaimed from the sea. Flemish paintings are a wonderful testimony to this very close link between *landschap* and a social utopia characterised by abundance born of intelligent spatial planning. Evidence of this kind of thinking can be found in the famous frescoes *The Allegory of Good and Bad Government* which, since 1339, have adorned the walls of Siena town hall in Italy. The French term *paysage* differs from *landschap* as the oldest known definition in French, meaning "a painting depicting a rural scene or a garden". In this instance, therefore, landscape thinking is, above all, the expression of satisfaction in the aesthetic relationship with the land.

A third important word that one comes across in Europe is "*krajina*", derived from the Slav languages. This refers first and foremost to an area or province, clearly delineated by a well-guarded border.

One feature common to all of these words is the fact that their root (land, *pays*, *kraj*) signifies country, land, place. Such roots are to be found in most

languages. The Finnish "*maisema*" and the Estonian "*maastik*", for example, have a common root, "*maa*", which means country, land, province. From the very beginning, therefore, landscape has been tied, in one way or another, to the territory where people live.

1.1. The first factor in the wide variety of meanings assigned to landscape is the way in which words have migrated within Europe

As we know, Europe is a tremendous hub for interchange and cross-pollination. Since they first emerged, the terms "*landschap*", "*paysage*" and "*krajina*" have spread far and wide. While, in many cases, the terms themselves still sound familiar, their meaning will sometimes have changed considerably, depending on the country.

The German word "*Landschaft*", for example, made its way to Russia where "*ландшафт*" (*landshaft*) denotes the immense expanses of nature that are so much a feature of that vast country. The French "*paysage*" likewise travelled to Russia and "*пейзаж*" (*peyzazh*) means tracts of land that have benefited from the attention of a landscape architect. The word was most likely imported in the 18th century by Catherine II who brought in French landscape gardeners to work on numerous extensive projects to beautify her native land.

Elsewhere, words were imported in response to changing concepts or policies.

1.2. A second factor in the diversity of meanings assigned to landscape is the variety of languages spoken in a given country

In Finland, three official languages are spoken: Swedish (*landskap*), Finnish (*maisema*) and the Sami language (*eanadat*). In Belgium, there are also three official languages: French (*paysage*), Flemish (*Landschap*) and German (*Landschaft*).

In some countries the picture is more complex because, even though there is only one official language, several languages and dialects are spoken, each conveying a different understanding of the word "landscape".

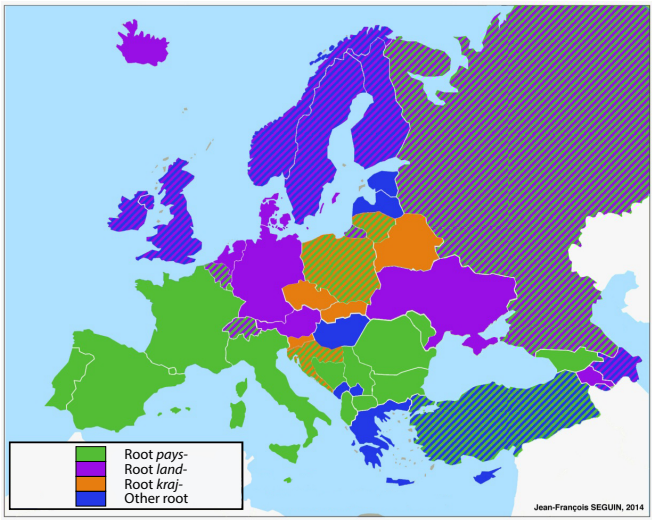
In France, the official language is French. Depending on the region, however, the Alsatians will talk about "*Làndschàft*", the Bretons "*maezad*", the Basques "*paisaia*", the Catalans "*paisatge*", the people of Provence "*païsage*" and the Corsicans "*paisagiu*".

1.3. A third factor in the wide variety of meanings is the existence of several words, or several meanings of the same word, within the same language

In some countries, two distinct words, reflecting two different approaches to landscape, have emerged from the same linguistic root. In Croatia, for example, two terms are employed: "*krajolik*" and "*krajobraz*". *Krajolik* is used mainly in human and social sciences while *krajobraz* tends to be employed more in the field of life and earth sciences.

Conversely, within one and the same country, the same word may have two meanings. In Sweden, for instance, "*landskap*" refers to landscape as "an historical, political territorial unit founded on cultural and geographical features which many people identify with", *landskap* being equivalent here to "province". *Landskap* is also, however, "the physical setting or environment in general terms, including a scenic dimension".

Figure 84. Map of the main roots of the words used to denote "landscape"



Some initial conclusions from this brief survey

Throughout Europe, landscape is the reflection of a very powerful bond between individuals, their communities and where they live. This bond takes many shapes and forms but it is fair to say there are three main types of relations:

1. Through landscape, individuals and communities express satisfaction with the harmonious nature of the area where they live and which they have transformed in order to make it habitable. This harmony is reflected in the patterns observed, which are in keeping with aesthetic values. Landscape, in this sense, is about both the land and how it is portrayed in art and literature. This visual connection with the land is expressed through the notion of expanse, which explains, for example, Europeans' attachment to what are referred to as "open" landscapes.

2. Through landscape, individuals and communities express satisfaction with the natural resources which the land places at their disposal, as it were. The French geographer Vidal de la Blache, indeed, defined the French term "*contrée*" as follows: "*a 'contrée'* " is a reservoir where energies lie dormant. These energies, of which nature planted the seed, depend for their use on Man". "*Contrée*" is the origin of the English word "country" which most definitely implies places where humankind has succeeded in harnessing the forces of nature. Landscape is, in this sense, more "rural" or even "natural" in character.

3. Through landscape, individuals and communities express satisfaction with the quality of their surroundings. Landscape here means our everyday surroundings, as shaped by social and economic relations, and cannot be reduced to nature or culture alone. The Norwegian representative in the group of experts responsible for drafting the European Landscape Convention said that, in her view, "nature is our culture". Landscape is both a window and a mirror of these surroundings, and of individual and collective well-being. Our relationship with this landscape is the ambivalent one of the spectator-cum-actor. The European Landscape Convention acknowledges this fact in its preamble: "Wishing to respond to the public's wish to enjoy high-quality landscapes and to play an active part in the development of landscapes".

"Landscape", in all its linguistic diversity, is understood by Europeans to mean a visual and aesthetic relationship with the land, as a natural territorial resource and as the territorial setting which "contributes to human fulfilment". These three aspects of the concept of landscape are not disjointed, however. Each individual, and each community, makes use of these three approaches to landscape, depending on the time, place and circumstances.

It was no doubt thanks to this that the Council of Europe, drawing on the work of the Congress of Local and Regional Authorities, was able to come up with a single definition of landscape, one that owes its success partly to the fact that the definition is open-ended and respects the wide range of linguistic features. At the same time, this definition provides an aid to communication and discussion, which all Europeans can adopt and use.

2. LANDSCAPE IN LEGAL INSTRUMENTS AND INTERNATIONAL TREATIES

If language is a reflection of a population's culture, then the law is a reflection of society's culture. It is interesting, therefore, to examine the different meanings of landscape that have informed law-making.

It was neither feasible, nor indeed desirable, to examine all the domestic laws within the compass of this brief report. Attention has therefore been focused solely on international instruments: European Union directives and conventions at various levels.

Recommendation No. R(79) 9 of the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe to member states concerning the identification and evaluation card for the protection of natural landscapes reads: "natural and semi-natural landscapes: the natural environment including the physical environment as a whole (climate, soil, water), the biocenoses (flora, vegetation, fauna), the whole more or less formed by man and by past and present social and economic factors". Although, strictly speaking, this text has no legal force, it is interesting because it provides a definition of "natural and semi-natural landscape". This natural landscape is understood to mean the physical environment and biocenoses, more or less formed by man. Landscape here is not a place for people to live in, but first and foremost a habitat for wild flora and fauna.

European Council Directive 85/337/EEC of 27 June 1985 on the assessment of the effects of certain public and private projects on the environment (Article 3) states that: "The environmental impact assessment will identify, describe and assess in an appropriate manner … the direct and indirect effects of a project on the following factors:

- human beings, fauna and flora;
- soil, water, air, climate and the landscape;
- the interaction between the factors mentioned in the first and second indents;
- material assets and the cultural heritage."

In this directive, landscape is understood to be one of the component elements of the environment in the widest sense, since it also includes cultural heritage. These components are divided into four categories, with landscape being classed among the abiotic elements (soil, water, air, climate).

European Council Directive 92/43/CEE of 21 Mai 1992 on the conservation of natural habitats and of wild fauna and flora calls upon member states of the European Union to encourage, through land-use planning and development policies, "the management of features of the landscape which are of major importance for wild fauna and flora". This binding legal instrument sees in landscape (or at any rate landscape features) an environment conducive to wild flora and fauna, rather than to the growth of human settlements.

The UNESCO Convention concerning the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage (1972) does not deal with landscape. It was not until 1994 that the "Operational guidelines for the implementation of the World Heritage Convention" introduced, within cultural heritage, the concept of "cultural landscapes", meaning landscapes which "represent the 'combined works of nature and of man' designated in Article 1 of the convention" ("cultural heritage" includes sites that are "works of man or the combined works of nature and of man"). In the interests of efficiency, the guidelines explain that "cultural landscapes fall into three main categories, namely:

(i) … clearly defined landscape designed and created intentionally by man. This embraces garden and parkland landscapes constructed for aesthetic reasons, which are often (but not always) associated with religious or other monumental buildings and ensembles.

(ii) … evolved landscape. This results from an initial social, economic, administrative, and/or religious imperative and has developed its present form by association with and in response to, its natural environment. …

(iii) … associative cultural landscape. The inclusion of such landscapes on the World Heritage List is justifiable by virtue of the powerful religious, artistic or cultural associations of the natural element, rather than material cultural evidence, which may be insignificant or even absent".

Landscape is regarded here as a product of culture, that is to say, as a work "constructed for aesthetic reasons", in "response to its natural environment" or as a projection of "religious, artistic or cultural" phenomena on the natural element.

Interestingly, the convention makes no mention of landscape in the context of natural heritage even though this natural heritage can also have a powerful aesthetic dimension. The guidelines, indeed, state that among the criteria used to determine outstanding universal value, sites must "contain superlative natural phenomena or areas of exceptional natural beauty and aesthetic importance".

The objective of the protocol on the implementation of the 1991 Alpine Convention which relates to the conservation of nature and the countryside (1994) is to "protect, care for and, to the extent necessary, restore nature and the countryside in such a way as to ensure … the diversity, specificity and beauty of the natural and rural landscape". Landscape here is viewed primarily in terms of an aesthetic relationship with natural and rural areas. The aesthetic qualities of alpine landscapes are based on three "values": "diversity, specificity and beauty".

The Convention on Access to Information, Public Participation in Decision-Making and Access to Justice in Environmental Matters (Aarhus, 1998) recognises landscape as one of the environmental elements, namely "air and atmosphere, water, soil, land, landscape and natural sites, biological diversity and its components, including genetically modified organisms, and the interaction among these elements" (Article 2.3).

Although it is a United Nations document, this convention adopts the concept contained in the European Union directive of 1985 on the assessment of the impact of certain public and private projects on the environment. Landscape is an element of the environment but, this time, it is not confined to abiotic features. What is interesting about the concept of landscape that seems to have inspired the Aarhus convention is that some languages, such as Creole and at least one of the Sami languages, do not, strictly speaking, have a term for landscape. Instead, another word is used, such as *alentou* in Caribbean Creole or *eanadat* in the Inari region of Finland, which means that which is "around" a person or community, that is, the surroundings. Because of the lifestyle of these population groups, landscape is conceived in terms of a place in which to live.

As far as the European Landscape Convention (2000) is concerned, landscape is "an area, as perceived by people, whose character is the result of the action and interaction of natural and/or human factors" (Article 1.*a*). This definition deliberately invites us to view landscape from the perspective of well-being and quality of life. The preamble to the convention is quite clear in this respect: "the landscape is an important part of the quality of life for people everywhere" and "the landscape is a key element of individual and social well-being". "Landscape" here is considered with reference not to nature or culture, but rather to close interaction of "natural and/or human factors".

The Framework Convention on the Protection and Sustainable Development of the Carpathians (2003) takes into account "the high ecological importance of Carpathian mountain ecosystems, such as natural and semi-natural grasslands, as part of the ecological networks, landscapes and traditional land-use". This convention proceeds from the position that ecosystems, which may be anthropised, are part of the landscape. Landscape is thus understood here as the "traditional", highly environmentally responsible relationship between communities and nature.

What broad conclusions may be drawn from this quick glance at the international instruments on landscape?

The first is that, since 1979, the concept of landscape has not evolved in a linear fashion over time. The variations in the meaning of landscape show that, instead, the concept has acquired various additional meanings depending on the focus of the different instruments developed.

These various meanings can be divided into three broad categories:

1. *Landscape is the aesthetic face of territory*. The UNESCO World Heritage Convention and the Alpine Convention are both examples of this approach.
2. *Landscape is the natural face of territory*. More accurately, landscape is first and foremost a concept that relates to pieces of land where human action is not the dominant feature. In this view, landscape is synonymous with the natural environment and ecosystems, as well as rural areas, usually ones that have been developed by farmers. The directive on natural habitats, the Carpathian Convention and the 6th Environment Action Programme[1] are all typical of this approach.
3. *Landscape is a place where populations live*. Legal instruments assign it the task of humanising the notion of environment in order to turn it into a political issue, a question of democracy rather than a subject for experts alone. The Aarhus Convention and the European Landscape Convention best exemplify this approach.

3. CONCEPTS OF LANDSCAPE AND METHODS OF IDENTIFICATION

It appears from this brief overview of the different connotations of landscape in language (as a means of expressing a population's culture) and in legal instruments (as a means of expressing society's culture) that there are three approaches to landscape which are distinctive yet interconnected: a visual, aesthetic approach; a natural, biological approach; and a political, societal approach.

Together these three facets form the "prism" of landscape, as it were. For each of these approaches, scientific and technical concepts have been developed which can be used to implement Article 6.C of the European Landscape Convention: "each Party undertakes: to identify its own landscapes throughout its territory; to analyse their characteristics and the forces and pressures transforming them; to take note of changes; to assess the landscapes thus identified, taking into account the particular values assigned to them by the interested parties and the population concerned".

A study of the various methods for identifying and assessing landscapes shows that these methods can be divided into three categories, with one for each landscape approach.

1. The 6th Environment Action Programme (European Union 2003) takes the view that "preservation and improvement of landscapes are important to quality of life and rural tourism as well as to the functioning of natural systems". This action programme differs from the other texts in that it assigns an economic value to landscape through "rural tourism". Yet although the programme refers to quality of life, and 80% of Europeans live in towns or cities, it very clearly associates landscapes solely with rural and natural areas.

3.1. The "sensitive" approach

The first method is based on the visual, aesthetic approach. Known as the "sensitive approach", it relies on the "expert sensitivity" of landscape designers, a sensitivity that allows them to translate what they, as experts, feel about a particular landscape into "landscape ambience" which confers a distinctive character on the territory in question.

This approach was developed in France in the late 1960s, when the "Délégation à l'aménagement du territoire et à l'action régionale" launched the "Organisations d'études d'aménagement des aires métropolitaines" (OREAM). According to the landscape architects, who played a key part in the scheme, this approach helps unify landscaping practices from designing parks and gardens to creating larger landscapes.

The "sensitive" approach is first and foremost a visual one in which areas are assessed by a "trained eye" in terms of their land-use features, internal organisation and "kinetic" aspects.

Landscape units are identified by "locating the visual boundaries of the study area as physical barriers apt to restrict the field of vision and hence provide information about the shape and size of the spaces engendered".

The landscape units thus identified can be divided into different types of landscapes that are clearly based on visual characteristics, such as "compartmentalised landscape", "enclosed landscape with clearings", "theatre wings landscapes", "open landscape", and so on.

3.2. The elements-based approach

In the late 1980s and early 1990s, England's Countryside Commission developed guidelines for "Landscape Character Assessment" (LCA) and "Historic Landscape Characterisation" (HLC).

"Landscape character" is based on a series of analyses of geological features, geomorphology, hydrography, soil, vegetation, land use and human settlements.

The perception of "landscape character" is guided here by the choices made when defining, selecting and prioritising the various elements.

> NCAs [National Character Areas] divide England into 159 distinct natural areas. Each is defined by a unique combination of landscape, biodiversity, geodiversity, history, and cultural and economic activity. Their boundaries follow natural lines in the landscape rather than administrative boundaries (Natural England 2014).

This approach proceeds from the assumption that:

> The character and biodiversity of the landscape are closely linked. Many of the features that contribute most to our appreciation of the landscape – trees and hedges, ancient woodlands, the flowers of old meadows, pastures and heaths – are an essential part of its biodiversity. (Durham Landscape, UK, 2011)

3.3. The "structuralist" approach

The "structuralist" approach is inspired by the concepts and principles of spatial analysis popular among geographers. Here, landscape is understood as being the place where populations live, as "a key element of individual and social well-being".

It first emerged in France in the early 1990s with the passing of the 1993 "Landscape Act" which introduced the terms "landscape unit", "landscape structure" and "landscape elements". The publication of *Méthode pour des Atlas de paysages* (Luginbühl et al. 1994) marked the birth of this approach.

The "structuralist" approach is based on the study of landscape structures and focuses on the organisational structure of landscape elements over the territory in question.

Landscape structures are a reflection of the tangible and intangible relations that connect these elements to one another and how they are perceived by populations. In this respect, they arise from the interaction between the biophysical structure and the social structure of a particular territory. They represent the characteristic features of a given landscape, enabling it to be identified as a landscape unit, which is the piece of territory corresponding to the presence of specific landscape structures, one of which is said to be the dominant landscape structure.

In order to describe landscapes, the structuralist approach studies and spatialises the "forces and pressures transforming" landscape structures. These forces and pressures are symbolic, social, economic, natural and political in nature. The forces and pressures are studied over the long term (history of landscapes) or in the present.

Another characteristic feature of the structuralist approach is that, in order to assess landscapes, it studies and spatialises "the particular values assigned to them by the interested parties and the population concerned" (European Landscape Convention, Article 6.C). This assessment can be used "with the active participation of the interested parties" (Article 6.C) through the introduction of "procedures for participation by the general public" (Article 5.C).

Landscape units can be mapped on any scale and attached to various types of landscapes.

This structuralist approach is effectively a synthesis of the so-called "sensitive" approach and the "elements-based" approach in that it is concerned with how populations make spontaneous connections between nature and culture. In this view, landscape structures are the idea of interconnectedness between the physical (natural) components of a particular territory or piece of territory, according to sociocultural systems.

CONCLUSIONS

The great multitude and variety of terms and meanings of landscape across the different countries which have signed up to the European Landscape Convention have not generated misunderstanding and incomprehension between populations or between "specialists in landscape appraisal and operations". Far from being a

Tower of Babel, Europe affords tremendous opportunities for the interchange of terminology, ideas and experience, populations and social and political systems.

The multitude and diversity of the terms used both in conversations between people and in international legal agreements are not an indication of disagreement, and hence a weakness. Rather, they are a reflection of the three faces of the "prism of landscape" on which populations and societies draw, depending on the time, place and circumstances.

The European Landscape Convention is, quite deliberately, not prescriptive. It cannot be used, therefore, to impose any one of the three main accepted meanings of landscape, even though the definition set out in Article 1 refers to landscape in the sense of people's surroundings.

The convergence of meanings of commonly used words, legal terminology and methods is reassuring, because it means that everywhere in Europe, landscape policies and tools for implementing them can be devised that accord with the "aspirations of the public with regard to the landscape features of their surroundings".

APPENDIX

Selected multilingual glossary

Terms gleaned from participants in workshops, conferences and meetings held by the Council of Europe Secretariat of the European Landscape Convention

Albanian	*peizazh*
Alsatian	*Làndschàft*
Andorran	*paisatge*
Azeri	*mənzərə, landşaft*
Basque	*paisaia*
Belarusian	*peizaj, kraiavid*
Breton	*maezad*
Catalan	*paisatge*
Corsican	*paisagiu*
Creole	*alentou*
Croatian	*krajobraz, krajolik*
Czech	*krajina*
Dutch	*landschap*
English	*landscape*
Estonian	*maastik*
Finnish	*maisema*
French	*paysage*
Galician	*paisaxe*
Georgian	*peizaji*

German	*Landschaft*
Greek	*τοπίο (topio)*
Hungarian	*táj*
Icelandic	*landslag*
Irish	*tírdhreach (tir: land, native soil)*
Italian	*paesaggio*
Latvian	*ainava*
Lithuanian	*kraštovaizdis*
Macedonian	*сцена (scéna), пејзаж (pejzaž)*
Moldovan	*peisaj*
Montenegrin	*predio*
Norwegian	*landskap*
Polish	*krajobraz*
Portuguese	*paisagem*
Provencal	*païsage*
Romanian	*peisajul*
Russian	*ландшафт (Landschaft), пейзаж (paysage)*
Sami	*eanadat*
Serbian	*предео (predeo), пејзаж (pejzaž)*
Slovak	*krajina*
Slovenian	*krajina*
Spanish	*paisaje*
Swedish	*landskap*
Turkish	*peyzaj (development), manzara (view, vision), yatay (horizon)*
Ukrainian	*ландшафт (Landschaft), пейзаж (paysage), краєвид*
Valencian	*paisatge*
Wayana (Amerindian language of Guyana)	*ëwutë (village)*
Welsh	*tirwedd*

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Chapter 8

Landscape and democracy

Yves Luginbühl, Council of Europe expert

INTRODUCTION

Figure 87. "Great Place"

"Great Place", equivalent to the palaver tree. Source : Composition of Yves Luginbühl.

> My later notions of leadership were profoundly influenced by observing the regent and his court. I watched and learned from the tribal meetings that were regularly held at the Great Place ... Everyone who wanted to speak did so. It was democracy in its purest form. There may have been a hierarchy of importance among the speakers, but everyone was heard ... As a leader, I have always followed the principles I first saw demonstrated by the regent at the Great Place. (Nelson Mandela 1995)

To a non-specialist, investigating the relationship between landscape and democracy[1] might seem incongruous on the face of it. Until recently, landscape issues were governed by political decisions taken in the context of representative democracy, but usually backed by expert opinion. Democracy thus seemed self-evident. However, on reflection, many questions soon arise, relating to methods of territorial governance, the place of academic knowledge relative to empirical know-how, the interest shown in landscape by the public, the relations between the politic world and civil society and the spread of experiments in participation in political decision making. In truth this is a vast field, one drawing attention to whole swathes of European or even world political history. While it is crucial to address the political issue of the democratic process (as many authors have done since antiquity) it is clearly more complex to investigate the links that exist between democracy and landscape, even though they have been the subject of a number of studies and publications.

This report,[2] written for the Council of Europe, is unlikely to be able to deal exhaustively with all the questions to be considered. However, it will attempt to open up lines of enquiry and set the terms of a debate which will inevitably arise at the regular meetings centring on the European Landscape Convention, such as the conferences on the convention and the annual workshops.

The report is organised along the following lines:

- The first part focuses on the role of landscape in European political history and in the methods of territorial governance which preceded the systems claiming to be democratic in the 18th century;
- The second part examines the arrangements for exercising democracy and their capacity to reflect the opinions of all the populations concerned relating to the development of their living environment. This, of course, is the point at which the issue of levels of governance (ranging from the local to the national and the international) will be raised;
- The third part of the report investigates the changes now occurring in this democratic process in the context of the globalisation of trade and the present crisis, and their impact on landscapes;
- The fourth part is given over to contemporary forms of participatory democracy and the experiments in this area which are spreading throughout the world, particularly in Europe;
- In part five the focus is on the various factors which influence the success of these experiments and may either hamper them or ensure their full and successful realisation;
- In the final part, which will serve as a conclusion, there is a summary, and certain subjects for further debate or investigation are suggested.

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1. Democracy, from the ancient Greek δημοκρατία/dēmokratía, meaning "sovereignty of the people", a combination of the words δῆμος/demos, meaning "people" and κράτος/krátos, meaning "power" or "sovereignty", from the verb kratein, "to command", is the political system in which the people are sovereign.
2. This report has been produced in the framework of the Council of Europe activities for the implementation of the European Landscape Convention with the support of the Federal Office of the Environment of Switzerland.

1. THE LESSONS OF THE POLITICAL HISTORY OF TERRITORIAL GOVERNANCE

We ought to look back at Sumerian, Indian and, above all, Greek antiquity and the Greek "*polis*", a city-state in which the forum provided the setting for public debate. However, these first forms of democracy were highly inegalitarian, prohibiting the participation of women, slaves or metics, at least where Athenian "democracy" was concerned. So instead of going back to that era, let us start instead with the Italian "*quattrocento*", which provides a highly representative example of the questions raised by territorial governance and landscape management. This is a well-known example, which has been used to illustrate the European Landscape Convention so often that it has almost become a commonplace.

It is of course the famous fresco by Ambrogio Lorenzetti painted on the walls of a room in the Palazzo Pubblico in Siena in 1338 and presenting a lesson in local governance. This *Allegory of Good and Bad Government*, made up of four painted panels, was created at a remarkable political juncture[3] which saw a transformation in the local governance and landscape management of a government which had originally consisted of a Council of 24 before being narrowed down to the Council of Nine, preserving the power of the great families of the municipal aristocracy.

As Chiara Frugoni states:

> rather than have themselves represented directly, the Nine preferred to establish the government of the 24, which lasted from 1236 to 1270 and was set up to counter the absolute power of the *podestà* and the influence of the great families through the constitution of the council known as the "elected consistory", which marked the entry of the people into the government of the city. In a propaganda piece such as this fresco, a reminder of the past can offer the reassuring support of tradition and history and evoke, through its depiction of this past situation where the government was much more open to the lower social classes than the government of the Nine, the no doubt somewhat demagogical model from which the government claimed to draw its inspiration. (Frugoni 1988: 68)

The fresco represents:

> an approach to territorial governance which can be transposed to landscape governance and is based on the theory that everyone, at his or her own temporal and spatial level, governs a part of the landscape in which he or she lives – an approach which refers in turn to the dual notion of the rights and duties of each citizen. If we look closely at Lorenzetti's fresco, all of the persons depicted oversee a part of the society represented in the painting at their own level through the functions they perform or, in other words, control some of the components of the rural or urban landscape in the painting. The fact that the artist portrays good government next to the landscape it manages along with the subjects of its authority does not mean that that landscape depends for its political management solely on the prince and the figures surrounding him. Lorenzetti successfully makes the viewer feel that all the people are in their rightful place and

3. The political system in Italy was one of autonomous cities – Italy was not unified until the 19th century – and the cities of Siena and Florence were constantly at war, with the army of each city regularly pillaging the territory of the other.

> fulfilling their function, even the "bevy of dancing girls", as G. Duby so aptly describes them. The political meaning of the painting is one of order, peace and abundance and a feeling of serenity emanating from the landscape, even though we know full well that this political regime is not a democracy, but an authoritarian regime in which human rights still have little meaning. (Luginbühl 2012)

By contrast, the landscape of the bad government is one of pillage, war, crime and a lack of any productive activity. On this representation of bad government Lorenzetti has included writing, spelling out its vices such as greed, lust, pride and injustice.

Denis Cosgrove talks of the question of the representation of political authority and points out that those who held such authority, such as the Duke of Siena, considered that allowing representatives of the neighbourhoods which made up the city to take part in decision making was a step too far. Subsequently, the political elite radically restricted the role of these representatives, thus giving more power to the rich aristocrats and upper middle classes and favouring individualism over community life (Cosgrove 1998: 27).

It should be said that during this period, the social elites, and sovereign power in particular, attempted to move against collective practices and the common lands these entailed. This was the case, for instance, in England where the Lords governing the counties began setting up enclosures (from the 13th century onwards) to establish private estates to replace the collective lands known as the commons, used by poor peasants. The commons may be regarded as a form of shared governance of a territory – we will not go so far as to say that it was democratic – which gave those peasants access to a subsistence economy negotiated between themselves and the ruling nobility. This system evolved over time, particularly between 1750 and 1850 when parliamentary enclosures were introduced, establishing individual land ownership throughout the United Kingdom. This change in territorial and landscape governance, which changed the English landscape from an open field system to a landscape of fields surrounded by hedges (of hawthorn and oak), took place throughout the country and enabled the English monarchs to impose their sovereign law instead of the customary law which was one of the principles of the feudal system. At the same time there was an economic revolution, with the advent of liberalism, the agricultural revolution and the beginnings of industrial development, which were processes around which Adam Smith (1776) and then Ricardo (1817) devised their market-based economic theories, leading in turn to the theories of Karl Marx and his book *Das Kapital* (1867).

Another example deserves to be cited because it occurred in a European region where the first word equivalent to the term landscape emerged in the 15th century. In Dutch, German and Danish Friesland, the peasantry who occupied the marshlands on the shores of the North Sea constructed *terpen* (Lebecq 1980:125-48), which were artificial hillocks built up from earth taken from the surrounding area to provide ground that would be safe from the highest tides (Lebecq 1980). On these *terpen* they set up their farms, where they lived in more or less complete isolation from the ruling nobility. In this way, they managed their living environment almost entirely autonomously, untouched by the binding rules of feudalism. This was very widespread practice in the 10th and 11th centuries, so much so that researchers mapping

these *terpen* have been able to identify at least 1 000. To claim that this form of land and landscape management was democratic would clearly be an exaggeration. However, it did amount to a form of shared governance involving a small number of individuals on a very local scale.

If we refer to this example, it is because it was in this area of the northern European coastline that the term *lantscap* appeared in 1462, representing the first known occurrence of the equivalent of the word landscape. The term combines *lant*, meaning country, and *scap*, which is the equivalent of the German word *Schaft*, meaning community, but it complements this with customary law in a form of territorial governance.

However, it was in fact the destiny of landscape to break with customary law and come under sovereign law, as is revealed by the changing meaning of the English word "landscape", which derived from the Danish *landskab*. Kenneth Olwig provides a superb account of the changes in the meaning of this word, which was taken over directly from the Danish following the marriage of King James I of England to the Danish princess, Anne, who brought the term to England with her. The royal couple saw it as a means of imposing sovereign law as opposed to the customary law favoured by the Lords and, following the attachment of Scotland to England, of establishing the United Kingdom (Olwig 2002). It should be reiterated that customary law was not the sign of a democratic form of territorial and landscape governance, but neither was sovereign law, which was more like a form of absolutism.

Other forms of government have, however, existed in the meantime, as in England, where the English Parliament emerged, restricting the powers of the monarch in accordance with the principles of the Magna Carta. The first elected parliament in England was de Montfort's Parliament of 1265. Only a small minority had a vote, meaning that the parliament was elected by only a very small percentage of the population.[4] Parliaments only sat when the king or queen saw fit to summon them (most often when he or she needed money). The power of parliament did grow over time, however, particularly on the occasion of the Glorious Revolution of 1688, in the wake of which a Bill of Rights was adopted in 1689, giving parliament more influence. The electorate grew slowly, and parliament gained more and more power until such time as the monarchy fulfilled only a figurehead role.

The period between the Renaissance and the 18th century saw despotic rulers prevail throughout Europe, and it was of course for this reason that the revolutions of the Age of Enlightenment occurred.

The first two modern democracies arose at this key moment in the world's political history. The American democracy of 1788 preceded the French democracy, and these models were copied throughout the world. Although the American system was not viewed by its founding fathers as a democracy, it is considered by historians to be the first liberal democracy, because the Constitution of 1788 established the natural principles of freedom and equality before the law and rejected aristocratic regimes.

4. Less than 3% in 1780.

However, there was no immediate link between these democracies and the landscape issue. Furthermore, democracies have changed and have not followed the same principles throughout history. In France, universal suffrage was established in 1848, but votes for women were introduced in 1944. The examples already mentioned show at any rate that this form of political governance could be applied on differing scales, and there are countless highly diverse examples on all scales throughout the world, with varying degrees of openness to the participation of certain groups in society. The example from Africa of the "palaver tree" is certainly one instance of this, but can we talk about it in terms of democracy? Nelson Mandela clearly believed that the "palaver tree", which he called the "Great Place", was a democratic system for the exercise of power, enabling everyone to have a say, irrespective of the social hierarchies which inevitably existed (Mandela 1995). While women only have a minor role to play and their participation should be increased, the "palaver tree" is a means of discussing the problems of the local community, the conflicts that divide it and any punishments that need to be imposed on individuals who have infringed the community's rules. However, like the "terpen" of the North Sea coast and Lorenzetti's fresco, these examples occur at local level and are not connected with the national scale which is, after all, where the world's political democracies are put into practice.

2. ARRANGEMENTS FOR THE EXERCISE OF DEMOCRACY AND LEVELS OF GOVERNANCE

One of the prime concerns of the theoreticians on the exercise of democracy was to find the method of representation which would satisfy the greatest number of citizens. This question was a source of conflict between French revolutionaries, particularly between Emmanuel Joseph Sieyes,[5] who contrasted the form of representative government he had helped set up with the direct democracy advocated by Jean-Jacques Rousseau,[6] who had more confidence in the people. The system of government was still based on a limited right to vote, determined by the wealth of individuals (namely census suffrage) and limited to men (women did not have the right to vote) and to an electorate which excluded people of other races or colonised people.[7] In addition, the United States and France practised slavery. It was abolished in the United States in 1865 (earlier in some states) and in France in 1848 (as well as between 1794 and 1802), but in practice discrimination continued in the political sphere for much longer. It was, however, only in the mid-19th century that the advocates of the representative system began calling it "democracy", and the

5. E. J. Sieyes: "Citizens who appoint representatives renounce – and must renounce – the possibility of making law themselves. They have no particular will to impose. If they were to dictate their will, France would no longer be a representative state; it would be a democratic state. In a country which is not a democracy (and France cannot be one), I repeat that the people can only speak and act through their representatives" (speech of 7 September 1789).
6. Jean-Jacques Rousseau (1762) considered that democracy could only be direct: "Sovereignty, for the same reason as it is inalienable, cannot be represented; it lies essentially in the general will, and that general will cannot be represented".
7. In the United States people were excluded on the basis of the colour of their skin while in France they were excluded if they were from the colonised peoples.

word lost its original meaning. These initial considerations prompt us to think that it would be wise to summarise the various forms of democracy so that the political context is properly delineated before we address the question of the relationship between democracy and landscape.

The question of the representativeness of citizens thus arises from the very beginning. The aim was to solve the problem which had given rise to the aforementioned debate between Sieyes and Rousseau, contrasting direct democracy with representative democracy. Direct democracy is a system which enables the people to adopt laws and important decisions themselves and to choose enforcers whom they can subsequently dismiss. Indirect, or representative, democracy is a system in which representatives are drawn by lots or elected by the citizens for a non-binding fixed-term mandate, during which they are not necessarily liable to dismissal by the citizens.

However, there is also a form of semi-direct democracy in which the people are nonetheless required to rule themselves on certain laws by means of a referendum, which may actually be a vote on a popular initiative, either to oppose a bill through a veto or to table a bill. The latter scenario occurs for example in the Swiss cantons and in Italy.

Representative democracy itself can be divided into several different types of system, namely parliamentary, presidential, semi-presidential, assembly-based and liberal democracy. The main feature of the parliamentary system is that the government is politically responsible to the parliament, from which it usually stems. The parliament may therefore dismiss the government through a vote of no confidence, the procedures for which vary from country to country. In exchange, the government, the holder of executive power, may dissolve the parliament, the holder of legislative authority. There is therefore a separation of powers within a parliamentary system, but it is regarded as "flexible" because of the reciprocal supervision between the executive and the legislature.

The presidential system is characterised by a stricter separation of powers. The executive has no political responsibility towards the legislature, which cannot dismiss it. On the other hand, the head of state, who is also the head of government and is elected by direct or indirect universal suffrage, has less power over parliament than in a parliamentary system, as he or she cannot dissolve it. In the United States, where the system is truly presidential, the president has the right to veto legislation.

The semi-presidential system combines the features of the parliamentary system and the presidential system, so is sometimes referred to as a mixed system. In the French Fifth Republic, the head of state is elected by direct universal suffrage and appoints and dismisses the members of the government. He or she may dissolve the Assembly, which, like the Senate, may only challenge the government through a vote of no confidence. If the president does not have a parliamentary majority, he or she is forced in principle into "cohabitation", thus losing effective authority to the government and the head of government. When that happens, this system is more like a parliamentary system.

The assembly-based system is represented by a single assembly, elected by direct universal suffrage. It has exclusive political authority, as the executive and judiciary

are subordinated to the legislature. The system was applied in France between 1792 and 1795, when the convention was charged with drawing up a constitution. This type of system is not necessarily associated with a separation of powers.

In a liberal democracy, the capacity for elected representatives to exercise decision-making powers is subject to the rule of law and is generally delimited by a constitution which places the emphasis on protecting individual rights and freedoms, thus establishing a binding framework for leaders. This is not a particular type of representative system, so it may be parliamentary, presidential or mixed, as in France. Nor does it require a representative system in the strict sense, as it can also extend to a semi-direct system (such as Switzerland's) or a participatory one. Among its main principles, which are also found in most representative systems, we find individual rights and freedoms, but also freedom of expression, assembly, association and the press, property rights and the right to do business, in other words, the right to free trade.

No further comment will be made on these various forms of democracy, but an attempt will be made to investigate the links that are established between them and the question of landscape. In this connection, several introductory remarks need to be made:

- The first relates to the idea that societies form the landscape. The situation differs according to whether the landscape is regarded as something outstanding or is equated with people's everyday living environment.
- The second has to do with the applicable level of governance. The situation differs according to whether people think in terms of a national scale or an activity is carried out at local or regional level.
- Thirdly, the relationship between democracy and landscape varies according to the political and social status of the people involved. The process of drawing up laws or other measures or launching development, management or protection activities will differ according to whether it involves elected representatives, associations or just local residents.
- Lastly, the participatory process depends on what we mean by it. The role of citizens, experts, political leaders and institutions will differ according to whether the process is one of information, consultation, discussion or participation.

2.1. The definition of landscape

The definition of landscape has most certainly changed over time. Before the 1970s it was most frequently equated with outstanding landscapes and covered by the regulations introduced in most European countries to protect such landscapes because of their picturesqueness, role in legend or their scientific or artistic qualities. From the late 1960s onwards, the academic community began to pay attention to the landscape again, after it had fallen somewhat by the wayside following the great wave of interest that had stemmed from the work of geographers in several countries such as the UK, Italy, the Netherlands, France, Russia and Spain, who had regarded the landscape as the result of biophysical processes such as tectonics, hydrology,

erosion or geomorphology, as a means of identifying countries' mining resources (this was the case with the Russian school, which added much to our knowledge about the formation of mountain ranges such as the Caucasus) or as a product of the interaction between nature and human activities (as was the case with the French school including Paul Vidal de la Blache). Historians had also produced a whole series of works on the history of the landscapes of certain countries, among them W. G. Hoskins in England, Emilio Sereni in Italy and Roger Dion in France. These works mostly date from the inter-war period, although some were published in the 1950s.

The emergence of environmental concerns changed the meaning attached to landscapes and prompted a revival in the research work on the subject, which had been declining generally in much of Europe. The most important innovation, and one which was connected with the relationship between democracy and landscape, was undoubtedly the emergence of studies on the social perceptions or representations of landscapes. The effect of these was to turn the spotlight onto the diverse range of social views on the landscape and to reveal their major impact on political activities. The research showed that social players act according to their social perceptions or representations of landscapes, and not necessarily in response to the problems that actually arise in the field. In this way, these academic studies, which were produced in many European countries and simultaneously in North America, began altering the meaning that was attributed to the landscape by injecting the dimension of social perceptions and representations, and by shifting the focus increasingly onto everyday landscapes and away from outstanding ones.

It was as a result of this that, when the European Landscape Convention was drafted, the discussion almost immediately showed an interest in those everyday landscapes – although outstanding landscapes were not forgotten. Everyday landscapes were therefore included within the scope of the convention (under Article 5), and this prompted an upsurge in interest throughout Europe, the main argument being that the large majority of European people now lived in landscapes which were not outstanding, but above all urban or suburban (although of course sometimes rural) and that the main challenge was that of improving these people's living environments.

The other aspect of the semantics of the term "landscape", which is connected with the above remarks, is the fairly widespread tendency among elected representatives to view the landscape as something that is linked with conservation and hence at odds with their desires for economic development. Here again the old idea of the landscape (equated with the protection of outstanding sites) comes up again and again, and it is relatively rare for elected representatives to accept the new definition which is more alive to social concerns and aspirations, as assessed through social perceptions and representations. Below we will discuss the position of elected representatives in relation to democratic processes during landscape development operations, but it can already be said that they do not welcome trying to engage in discussions with their electorate.

It can be concluded, therefore, that the meaning that is assigned to the landscape determines the democratic quality of the debate between those concerned and of the political decisions taken. Fortunately, the meaning of the term has shifted to encompass greater participation by the people concerned, as is clearly

indicated in the European Landscape Convention when it defines the landscape as an "area, as *perceived* by people", hence alluding to the social representations and perceptions which act as a driving force for political action. Some evidence of the demand for democracy is provided by the appeal made by campaigners in South America for the example of the convention to be transposed into a world landscape convention or into a convention that would apply to a whole continent. Also raised in this connection is the relevance of landscapes more connected with people's everyday lives.

2.2. The question of level of governance

These new semantics also prompted the emergence of experiments with participation (which were sometimes spontaneous) and although they were not directly linked to the European Landscape Convention, they were incorporated into its principles to a degree, particularly in the articles on the identification and assessment of landscapes and landscape quality objectives[8] and those recommending that the public should be encouraged to take part in these activities. If these experiments are carried out in small areas, and not countrywide, the pursuance of policies for the benefit of landscape depends both on national institutions and local and regional authorities. This is the meaning of the landscape as envisaged by the European Landscape Convention, which calls on the state parties to implement landscape policies at this level. It can be accepted that this is a democratic process achieved through decisions taken by elected individuals representing the people. In this way, they can have a law adopted which will be of benefit to the landscape.

The national level is also the one at which decisions are taken to promote policies for the protection of outstanding landscapes such as those that are candidates for inclusion on the World Heritage List. In this context, the democratic process is played out between the experts and the elected representatives of local and regional authorities or the nation. They need to have electoral representativeness with standing in expert circles in order to defend their case in the community and international institutions. To a certain extent, democracy steps aside in the face of diplomatic concerns and power politics between international experts and political figures, especially given that most applications for world heritage listing have not involved the populations concerned, or been the subject of public consultation.

This is not always the case, as certain applications have succeeded thanks to appeals from the populations concerned, and UNESCO has fully realised that community action is a key strength where it comes to local partners having a sense of ownership of applications and any subsequent listings. In some respects, the World Heritage

8. Article 6.C "Identification and assessment" and, in particular, "b. to assess the landscapes thus identified, taking into account the particular values assigned to them by the interested parties and the population concerned". And Article 6.D "Landscape quality objectives": "Each Party undertakes to define landscape quality objectives for the landscapes identified and assessed, after public consultation in accordance with Article 5.C".

Convention was lagging behind communities' demands for democracy and is now trying to catch up. This is a reflection of the discrepancy between the expert-based approach favoured by UNESCO and the demand by the public, which most opinion polls highlight: for their political representatives to pay more heed to them. These polls show that many people accuse their elected representatives of failing to listen to them. In the same way, the public rarely has any say in decisions on the protection of sites or landscapes at national level, which are regarded as matters for expert reports and technical opinions by the administrative departments concerned and local and regional elected representatives. Public surveys may be conducted but they are not really a sign of any real democracy and are more like consultations, which are a very different matter.

The level of governance is therefore a key factor in the proper exercise of democracy with regard to landscape issues. We have already looked at some examples of this and they are on the increase throughout Europe, and even elsewhere in places such as North and South America, where campaigns for account to be taken of the aspirations of the populations of small territories are commonplace and endeavour to combat developments deemed unsatisfactory. The case of Veneto is an interesting example, because it is one in which the committees (*comitati*) that were set up to oppose projects took no account of the local population's desires and are now attempting to devise development projects based on studies of the local landscape. (Varotto 2000; Varotto and Visentin 2008).

The local level is therefore the one at which the democratic process is most operational, although it raises countless questions which will be examined below. It is clear in particular that this is the level that most enables residents to regain control over the quality of their living environments, and it is indeed for this reason that more and more experiments are being carried out. It provides a form of resistance to all types of processes driven by the globalisation of commercial and financial transactions, which the citizens of Europe (and the world) cannot combat directly. In this way, the local level seems to serve as a kind of haven from globalisation. However, at this level there is of course also the question as to whether local residents are really capable, through the elected individuals who represent them in the political sphere, of having any influence on decisions which are taken at world level. For example, can they have any impact on the price of food, which is decided on the world markets and has a bearing on landscapes, because it means that certain crops are favoured over others, or on the price of oil, which affects transport infrastructure and methods?

Another issue that arises with regard to the level of governance is that, in some cases, spatial development decisions are taken by local authority bodies from which citizens are remote in administrative and political terms. This is the case, for example, with associations of municipalities or nature parks, where procedures for landscape analysis and the preparation of development programmes are the sole responsibility of technical experts and elected representatives, and residents are never consulted or even informed about them.

2.3. The status of the people involved

Local and regional governance and the landscape governance that goes with it depend on the interplay of power between social or pressure groups such as economic, political or trade union lobbies. The processes of global trade and financial transactions are carried out by economic or financial groupings which influence decisions and are the very opposite of democracy. The prices of cereals, animal products, and so on, which determine the fates of whole swathes of European landscapes, are fixed by global agreements (WTO) in which the major multinational food trading companies, which have not the slightest concern for local or regional development or landscapes, operate solely with the goal of making a short or medium-term profit.

These processes take place at international level but they are also present at national level, where it is the power brokering between political parties, trade unions or economic pressure groups which affect the political decisions in favour of one or another. The public interest often comes second to vested interests. Examples of this can be seen in policies on housing and infrastructure, which lie in the hands of major property or civil engineering companies, as in the case of motorways. The influence of lobbies is often greater than that of associations working to protect the environment or landscapes. The recent dramatic example of the Sivens Dam project in France is a very telling one in this respect, and many other cases could be cited throughout Europe.

At local level also, even though citizens have more chance of taking part in negotiating procedures, some groups act in their own interests first, and the public interest comes second. At this level, the process is more balanced, but there is no doubt (as is proven by certain experiments with citizen participation) that some people have more of a capacity to intervene than others, if only because they are more used to speaking in public and are more skilled in imposing their views over those of other residents with less debating experience and less skill in argument. The democratic process can also be skewed when local issues are hidden because, if they were brought up in public, they would reignite underlying conflicts which some local groups do not want to be aired in front of the entire local population. This is especially the case with the question of the preservation of hedges in many regions, which also raises the issue of water quality. Environmental groups do not all agree with one another, and tensions can arise between those wishing to preserve biodiversity and those more attached to the quality of landscapes, with the two aims proving difficult to reconcile in a calm manner.

The people who promote such participation procedures may also belong to various spheres of society. Research workers, landscape practitioners, artists and environmental and landscape associations are all involved in various ways, and sometimes they work together, but problems arise in agreeing on the methods and tools to be used. Sometimes tensions also arise between these communities or even within one and the same group, such as the disagreement between ecologists and human sciences experts, who do not view the landscape in the same way. The involvement of artists sometimes can also pose problems, for although they draw the public's attention through the works and creations that they display in public spaces, they do not

always carry a practical project through to its completion. These people from various backgrounds can offer solutions or prompt conflict within participation procedures.

Nonetheless, it is through public negotiation and by pitting different viewpoints against one another that problems can be solved. However, there are many obstacles to such debates, which are, as well, not necessarily appreciated by elected representatives, who sometimes see them as a waste of time when they themselves are bound by electoral time frames and often wish to take a decision which may play a decisive part in their re-election.

2.4. Definitions of participation procedures

Definitions of participation procedures vary, ranging from the provision of information to true participation. In a technical report drawn up in connection with a research programme on landscape and sustainable development run by the French Ministry for Ecology and entitled "Participation and Landscape", the author, Yves Michelin (2013) refers to Jean-Eudes Beuret (2006), and, in agreement with the members of the programme's Scientific Committee, identifies the following different types of procedure:

- *Communication*: this is a one-way process which attempts to gain the support of a target group;
- *Information*: this is also a one-way process, but it does provide access to a form of power in that it increases people's capacity to act;
- *Consultation*: while consultation does enable various opinions to be expressed, it does not allow decision-making powers to be shared and provides no guarantee as to whether the opinions expressed will be taken into account;
- *Dialogue and exchange*: the aim of dialogue and exchange is to help those involved get to know one another better and to put them on an equal footing;
- *Concerted action*: the aim of concerted action is a collective effort to build up forward-looking approaches and goals, but it does not always allow people to play any part in the decision-making process;
- *Negotiation*: the aim of negotiation is to arrive at an agreement within the context of balances of power.

Before this second part of the report is concluded, it seems clear that these four parameters, namely the meaning assigned to landscape, the level of governance, the status of those involved and the forms of participation, are inextricably linked. It would be difficult to keep them apart when analysing and attempting to improve the democratic process as it relates to landscape. It also seems essential to clarify the significance of the ways in which democracy has been and is exercised, as evidenced by the changes they have undergone in the last few decades. Between 2000 and 2010, the emphasis was placed on concerted action, which is not yet a fully-fledged form of participation. A report produced in 2007 by the French Ministry for Ecology and Sustainable Development attempted to take stock of the definitions of the terms and expressions used in the context of information, public participation, concerted

action and engagement activities in the context of risk prevention plans.[9] It insists first and foremost on the challenges, aims and meaning of participation and concerted action, stating that:

> Concerted action is not an end in itself. The reasons why people get involved in a participatory process such as concerted action on a project or a policy or the establishment of specific bodies for concerted action can vary considerably. They may stem from a strong political desire, a regulatory obligation or a particular context, for instance. Consequently, although calls for participation and concerted action are increasingly frequent and urgent, and it seems to have become impossible to "do without" concerted action, concerted action should not just be conducted for its own sake. It only has any meaning in relationship to the goals set for it and which were the reason for it. Those goals are what will determine the procedures and tools used and the assessment of the action taken. These goals may fall into differing categories. A single process of concerted action may have several aims, of a highly diverse nature. (ibid: 5)

That report also describes the citizenship aspect of procedures, setting out what is expected of participation and concerted action: "It can be expected that a participatory approach will create renewed interest in public affairs and community matters and that it will restore confidence between (elected) representatives and those they represent (citizens), in a context which is often described as a 'crisis of representative democracy' or a 'crisis of politics'. One of the main symptoms of this is the high abstention rate at elections". So those expectations are highly diverse, and participation and concerted action also enable issues to be shared and public action to be changed, and may make a useful contribution to the preparation of projects.

The extracts from the report referred to above are quoted in Appendix 1 because, if brought up to date, the report perfectly summarises the conditions in which so-called participatory democracy can be exercised. Although the report refers only to the subject of risk prevention, this does not make it any less applicable to landscape.

While the most conventional definition of democracy is that of a political system in which the people are sovereign, it seems preferable to propose Paul Ricoeur's definition, stating that a democratic society is one which is aware that it is divided, in other words shot through with conflicts of interest, and which decides to operate by involving every citizen in equal measure in the expression, analysis and consideration of those conflicts, with a view to finding a compromise. (Ricoeur 1997a; 1997b).

We will see below that this definition is more of an expression of democracy as applied to landscape development.

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9. Programme on "Information, public participation, concerted action and engagement in risk prevention plans". This was carried out by the French Centre for Studies on Networks, Transport, Town Planning and Public Buildings (CERTU) (Lydie BOSC), under the authority of the MEDAD/DPPR/SDPRM (Ministry for Ecology and Sustainable Development – Directorate for the Prevention of Pollution and Hazards, Sub-Directorate for the Prevention of Major Hazards) (Magali Pinon-Leconte), with the contribution of members of the programme's steering committee.

3. TRENDS OF DEMOCRATIC PRACTICE IN THE CONTEXT OF GLOBALISATION AS THEY RELATE TO LANDSCAPE

3.1. Emergence and development of participation

Citizens' strong demand to be heard by political leaders could constitute strength of democracy if only it were really fulfilled. Usually, in fact, the residents of a place regret not being heard by their elected representatives, so it is understandable that the alternative movements springing up everywhere in Europe have developed and sometimes challenge or participate at local level. These are still not very common experiences, usually based on opposition to political decisions imperilling the landscape lived in by populations confronted with projects which they do not support. Sometimes changes that upset what the populations regard as established balances of interests prompt local elected representatives to venture into local debate. These experiences arise in connection with alteration of the living environment, tending towards the collective construction of new landscapes. But they do not yet constitute a dominant movement. While still marginal in relation to the customary institutional procedures, they reflect a resolve to broaden democracy, consistent with its evolution through history.

Pierre Rosanvallon has thoroughly analysed this historical trend, and in particular the question of representativeness of the entire population in a system operating through elections favouring the majority party (Rosanvallon 2008). In his view, the democratic regimes of the United States and France have followed a process of evolution which has broadened their societal base either by universal suffrage or by extension of the vote to women, or again by creating power-curbing bodies intended to avert the excesses which inevitably ensued from the election of representatives of a majority party.

Societies themselves, and no longer states, have explored the avenue of mobilising certain groups which, by organising rallies of "citizens", have tried to intervene in official decisions. This style of mobilisation took shape in the United States in the 1960s with the initiatives taken by the philosopher John Dewey. This form of contribution to political decision making has found scope for expression in most European countries. Moreover, it resulted in the Convention on Access to Information, Public Participation in Decision-Making and Access to Justice in Environmental Matters (Aarhus, 1998), to which the European Landscape Convention refers, which advocates public participation in the process of initiating landscape-specific action from the landscape identification and assessment stage onwards.

In the 1990s, the social sciences debated this question of consultation and participation and the forms which they take; many publications appeared and research programmes on this theme were undertaken. These publications often centred on the collective mechanisms which grow around environmental issues and allow debate between opposing groups of a local society. These mechanisms have occasionally been constructed by scientists themselves or by institutions under a plan for development or management of an environmental problem.

In those early years of participation, a debate arose about the role of experts vis-à-vis politicians and civil society. Yves Le Bars,[10] at a colloquy on modelling at the nature–society interface,[11] describes three ages of an official decision: the first is that of the expert making decisions to satisfy basic needs; the second is the one where the decision-maker involves several experts in response to a challenge, and the third that of three-way dialogue involving the decision-maker, the experts and "others". The term "expert" might also be considered rather vague since, in the landscape sphere, it may refer to landscaping practitioners or scientists, two very different things. In this period of incipient participation by civil society in official decision making on landscape planning or environmental issues, a colloquy took place with the title "*Les experts sont formels*" (The experts are categorical) adopting a critical stance towards the expert's role. This corresponds to the first period described by Yves Le Bars, and it is true that a critical discourse with regard to experts did develop, sometimes rather caricaturing them.

Since that period the context has changed, and participatory democracy and its variants have developed, though without the expert's role being made completely explicit. Is the expert to be the facilitator of the participation mechanism? Or a mediator? Or again, should the expert not be content to contribute his or her proficiencies and knowledge to the preparation of a common landscape project? The question of mediation is open to debate in the sphere of landscape: some researchers hold that the landscaper is primarily a new mediator; others consider that, while mediation is a tool at the service of participation, the main thing is to arrive at a landscape project which improves people's living conditions, so the landscaper should not renounce the status of designer. These are questions which may enter into the lines of enquiry which we propose to develop at the Council of Europe.

3.2. Landscape and interactive democracy

Participatory projects of this kind require mobilisation of the participants over time, whereas research and study grants are only provided for limited terms, precluding the continued conduct and facilitation of participation over a period of time. Continuity raises the question of the time and the intervals between election periods – often leading to hiatuses in citizen participation experiments – and of the time-frame of these experiments: elected representatives are not immutable, and their replacement on the occasion of an election may lead to changes in the priorities set for the activities initiated or in their course, whereas the processes of debate which justify them and the exchanges of information are unfinished.

> These two interactive processes in the work of justification and information exchange outline a far stronger and richer relationship for that purpose than the one established

10. General Council of Rural, Water and Forestry Engineering, chair of research group, adviser to the General Directorate of Cemagref (National Centre for agricultural mechanisation of rural, water and forestry engineering), adviser to the Select Committee for Public Debate on Radioactive Waste, chair of the Technical Research and Exchange Group, former chair of the National Agency for Radioactive Waste in France.
11. Modélisations à l'interface Natures et Sociétés, Colloque NSS Cirad IRD, Montpellier, December 2005.

> by a mandate … Admittedly political power draws closer to society first of all under the constraint of justification and through the circulation of information. But citizens also feel stronger when they understand the world better, when they are better equipped to realise the issues of the moment, to assign a language and a meaning to what they experience. The sense of remoteness, of confiscation in fact, also stems from ignorance … When they feel more involved in this circulation of information and knowledge, citizens therefore actually establish a new relationship with the governing class. And so a new social economy of proximity concomitantly with social control – empowerment – is what is at work in interactive democracy. (Rosanvallon 2008: 330)

The expression interactive democracy differs from the more commonly used participatory democracy and also from deliberative democracy, in the sense that it makes for ongoing reflection among all the players mobilised. This is why the landscape project, viewed as an open process not limited in time, is more relevant than the preparation of a completed plan resembling an architectural design. It enables the players not only to engage in a "process of ongoing exchanges, not only between the political power and society but also within society itself. Thus it goes beyond the conventional distinction between participatory and deliberative democracy" (Rosanvallon 2008: 337), but also to absorb the knowledge gained by analysing the effects of applying field-tested measures: "It is an incessant task of inclusion, reaction and interpretation. Thus there is a certain de-materialisation of politics in no way implying loss of sociological relevance" (Rosanvallon 2008: 338).

Interactive democracy is consistent with the principle propounded to justify landscape's meaning as the outcome of interaction between biophysical and social processes.[12] Interaction can be complemented by the idea of adjustment, signifying that in the actual course of the planning process, the players gradually adjust and possibly alter their positions with the help of new knowledge derived from experimental developments. History, moreover, provides appropriate lessons for understanding the concept of adjustment present in the work of geographers, historians and archaeologists where they analyse the reactions of societies to situations of environmental crisis.[13] Exploitation of a resource may indeed bring about a critical situation because its extraction has been too intensive and its reserves are exhausted.

During extraction, societies realise that the resource is beginning to run short for the continuation of an economic activity. Crisis breaks out and societies then enter a phase of downsizing the exploitation of the resource, followed by another phase of adjustment of their technical, social, as well as political capabilities. Adjustment is a moment of, and an opportunity for, reconstitution of social forces, political institutions, economic activities and technical systems allowing the commencement of a new growth phase on a new pattern of exploitation of the resource (Beck et al. 2006).[14] It becomes a mode of governance presupposing transformations of the technology used, but also of the social and political configurations. Technology, in

12. As formulated by the European Landscape Convention in its definition of landscape, it "is the result of the action and interaction of natural and/or human factors" (Article 1).
13. See discussion of the concepts of interaction and adjustment in Luginbühl 2009a: 212-237.
14. See in particular contributions by Jean-Paul Métaillé and Bernard Davasse concerning forestry resources in the Pyrenees.

which the political world often seeks refuge, does not suffice although systematic recourse to it is taken for resolving an environmental crisis; the problem of climate change has brought into being technological speculation purportedly providing the answer to exhaustion of energy resources. Use of renewable resources is often identified as the way ahead, whereas the entire global social and political system is at stake and needs to be reconstituted. Technology is often merely an evasion of the necessities of radical change to the whole political and social system. Thus, interactive democracy opens onto a permanent cognitive, informational and social interchange. As Edgar Morin puts it:

> As soon as an individual embarks on any action whatsoever, it begins to break free of his intentions. The action enters a universe of interactions, and it is finally the environment which takes hold of it in a way that may become opposite to the initial intention. The action will often rebound on us like a boomerang. This compels us to follow the action, to try and rectify it. (Morin 2005: 106)

Following and trying to rectify the action is the aim of landscape projects conceived as continuous processes in which the action attempts to steer the current transformations in the direction which may emerge from debate. But do all citizens want debate? While governments need alternative forms of exercise of democracy to address controversial situations, it is not certain that everyone subscribes to the solution of interactive democracy, least of all the political world, as stated above. Participatory democracy is often criticised by elected representatives themselves, who regard it as a perversion of representative democracy or a muddled path liable to disrupt the political process and the place of the elected representatives of the people in political decision making.

It seems obvious that in the debates which coincide with these experiences, having a say depends on voluntary affiliation and raises the question of the participants' representativeness and the pressure that may be exerted by class organisations on collective debate. Indeed, what does an action signify when its participants are not selected on lines representative of the local society concerned? This question poses many problems in the organisation of such actions and in their social and political relevance. Massimo Morisi distinguished various categories of policies, among which landscape projects may be placed as public policies arising from deliberative or argumentative democracy,[15] alongside public policies originating from the political world, those born of technocracy and those resulting from a referendum. He also introduced other questions regarding the organisation of this form of participation. (Morisi 2008)

Initiative was the first: the difference between an action of local democracy undertaken by a political institution and one undertaken by a residents' association arising from realisation of a conflict situation is not insignificant. It casts doubt on the social validity of participation; not all residents of a place where a conflict situation has emerged participate, but the representativeness of the participants can be presumed not to constitute an obstacle in itself to the circulation of information. The crux is that

15. The terms denoting non-representative democracy vary; interactive democracy is closer to the concept propounded here than deliberative, argumentative or participatory democracy.

the action of participation should commence, provided that it is open enough; in a given locality, information circulates by word of mouth and the whole population is soon informed, to a greater or lesser extent, of the debates taking place, whose staging bears witness to a controversy. The debates may be enriched by the informal conversations occurring outside scheduled meetings.[16]

Today, citizens' alienation from politics is confirmed by a European survey which yields the following results:

- confidence in elected politicians: from 1.60% to 5.60% of respondents (21 countries and 2 regions);
- confidence in political parties: from 1.71% to 5.66%.

These results in fact indicate very low confidence in elected representatives and political parties, confirmed by elections in Europe generally, particularly European Parliament elections, where abstention is high, and by the rise of far right and far left parties. They make it easier to understand the success, albeit relative, of participation operations in respect of landscape. But, they are not straightforward; they require particular conditions to ensure a certain effectiveness.

4. CONTEMPORARY FORMS OF PARTICIPATORY DEMOCRACY APPLIED TO LANDSCAPE

4.1. Diverse and sometimes spontaneous experiments

Participatory experiments involving landscape emerged in the 1990s and developed thereafter. They accompanied social movements which appeared in Europe relating to problems of quality of the living environment threatened by infrastructure or alterations deemed contrary to the well-being of the populations concerned.

In France, studies in the Côtes d'Armor Department pinpointed one of these spontaneous experiments which took place in a small hydrographic basin. The Mission of Rural Initiative,[17] a local association, organised a demonstration about damage to water quality from the spreading of slurries from enclosed livestock breeding; it invited the residents of the municipalities along the river in question to a festival on its banks. Afterwards the participants took a stroll along the stream and were asked to observe the existing hedges, the positions of former cut-down hedges and places where it would be important to replant; the farmers present discussed and broadly agreed with the observations made. After the festival, the association involved itself in hedge replanting proposals, persuading the

16. Pierre Rosanvallon (2008: 327) mentions a study by the UK's Electoral Commission revealing that each day 15 million political conversations take place in England, thanks to the new means of communication, and this he calls "diffuse citizenship involvement".

17. The Mission of Rural Initiative (*Mission d'initiative rurale - MIR)*, referred to in a research programme on evaluation of the policy on reconstituting "bocage" landscape. "Evaluation des politiques publiques de paysagement du territoire", 2003, UMR LADYSS. Hughes LaMarche, Director of the Research Programme on Public Policies and Landscapes, Ministry for Ecology and Sustainable Development, France.

farmers to participate. Its action took on the appearance of a festive event where debate proceeded in a convivial manner and resulted in collectively discussing the replanting of hedges; subsequently the association provide the farmers with aerial photos of their farms showing the alignment of the hedgerows, enabling them to follow their development.

These movements are akin to the experiments that the social sciences tried in the same years, taking inspiration from the spontaneous actions that arose in contexts of opposition to political decisions. During works conducted in the Dordogne valley in 1993, landscape workshops were organised along the same lines as had been followed by "Mairie-Conseils".[18] The workshops followed an extensive study of the Dordogne valley landscapes[19] which had a dimension of scientific experimentation, surveying the 284 municipalities in the valley to locate the landscapes of local interest, the transformations as perceived locally, and the known individual and collective, public and private projects in each municipality;[20] these details were mapped on a scale of 1:25 000, and on that basis the landscape workshops were held with the elected representatives, the technicians of the administrative authorities concerned and some residents. This experiment was described in the conclusions of the first European Landscape Convention workshops, held in Strasbourg.[21] Only the essential inferences will be drawn from them here.

The workshops began with a group tour of the selected territory (five municipalities representing approximately the area of one landscape unit) during which the participants were able to exchange on-the-spot knowledge about the transformations of the landscapes and comment on them. The tours were continued with indoor workshops which officialised the state of play shown on the maps produced beforehand by the survey: participants were invited to make their own additions to the maps. These were amended and validated at the subsequent meeting, an important stage that set the seal on recognition of a document which ranks as a body of shared knowledge.

The process of negotiation surrounding a collective development plan was founded on exchange and sharing of information, starting from a common concern, the quality of the river water causing alarm to the elected representatives because of a decision by the public health authority to close a camping ground with 2 000 places, owing to the presence of bacteria dangerous to the health of bathers. Without going into the detail of the meetings, we shall highlight the importance of commencing the negotiation process on a definite fact that makes sense to the community, on which

18. Operational body of the *Caisse des dépôts et consignations*; Annie Blanchard and Yves Gorgeux in particular have conducted experiments on mobilisation and participation of local players and residents in several municipalities or groupings of municipalities in France.
19. Conducted for EPIDOR, the Dordogne valley inter-regional and inter-departmental management agency, by the STRATES laboratory and SEGESA, Society for Applied Economic, Geographical and Sociological Studies headed by Jean-Claude Bontron; STRATES, CNRS laboratory – Paris 1 University, became LADYSS in 1997. The survey response rate was 72%.
20. Inspired by a similar project carried out in the Loire valley.
21. 1st Council of Europe Meeting of the Workshops for the implementation of the European Landscape Convention (Strasbourg, France, 23-24 May 2002), Council of Europe, European Spatial Planning and Landscape Series, No 74.

it is then possible to itemise the various urban planning, ecological and agricultural implications of the water quality issue, such as the domestic water supply system, the cost of which is high if dwellings are spread out, for example. The upshot of this debate was thus to reconstitute, step by step, the landscape of the valley tract concerned, and the meeting acknowledged the need for control over the territory through planning instruments or specific measures, albeit with respect for the overall integrity of the territory. Each party contributed approaches for remedying the problems ascertained in common, and little by little a collective project that may be likened to a landscape project was built up.

The following lessons were learned from this experiment:

- collective reading of the landscape is an important phase which has been replicated elsewhere and proven its effectiveness;
- the second point is mapping: it enables each participant to pinpoint the important local landscapes, the transformations and the projects, while sharing this knowledge through debate with the other residents;
- the third point is the process of devising the project on the basis of shared knowledge. It is constructed step by step through mutual input of solutions originating from the various players present, elected representatives included. But one of the problems besetting this process is its continuity. In the absence of funds allowing it to be taken further, the process halts and there is nothing to ensure that all the measures imagined during discussions will be carried through. This is a genuine problem, unresolved as long as the appropriations made for these experiments by the local and regional authorities are limited in time; moreover, the possibility of a change of elected representative is never to be ruled out, leaving the continuation of the operation in doubt.

At all events, this type of participatory approach is instructive regarding the public contribution to the collective experience of devising a landscape project in the framework of democracy.

4.2. From opposition to project

In Italy, Mauro Varotto and Ludovico Visentin (2008) have analysed these movements as they appeared in Veneto: they mapped the *comitati* formed to oppose disputed new infrastructure developments; those committees, numbering 108 in the year 2000, fall into two categories:

- those whose approach is to contest new dumps, infrastructure, television or telephone relay masts, quarries and incinerators, in particular;
- the second category inclines more towards preparation of landscape development plans.

The two Italian geographers remark that this second category has grown at the expense of the first. In a space of 10 years or so, the committees moved from protest to proposal, and their number reached 253. Furthermore, they acquired a broader spatial basis, changing up to the supra-local level or organising at the regional level

through mutual contacts via social networks, thereby forming more powerful unions in dealings with local and regional governments. By organising at a lower level, they also changed direction, tending to become organisations with a civic purpose or defending grassroots democracy:

> their desire for the environmental quality, civic conscience and sustainable social justice of economic development processes constitutes the cultural challenge of the new respect for the civic environment. (Varotto and Visentin 2008)

> In many cases, the protest of the committees is transformed into political proposal, structured within a wider scheme of alternative territorial development which operates in the committees to guide the administration of spatial planning. (Varotto 2008: 6)

This trend is also noted by Rosanvallon: "In the 1960s and 1970s, participatory democracy was typically invoked by social movements demanding a reapportionment of powers. … The stakes are no longer the same at the start of the 21st century" (Rosanvallon 2008: 323). To his mind, governments need these alternative movements which perform a role of transmitting information or finding a way out of controversial situations. In asserting that they are "nearly always set up by governments themselves", he overlooks the spontaneous movements originating from neither the political nor the scientific world, and particularly not the social sciences, but appearing when there is a conflict situation or a problem facing society at a given level, as in the case of the committees in Veneto, thus bringing innovation to the relationship between landscape and democracy. They are part of a whole constituted by the alternative associations proliferating just about everywhere. Their peculiarity is the use of landscape to convey civic demands for improvement of the living environment, associating wishes for greater social justice with calls for sustainable development and with recognition of the emotional and aesthetic values of the territory where they emerge.

Many further examples could be mentioned. What can be borne in mind from these indications is no doubt the diversity of the democratic forms of participation which are linked with landscape. Also, the clear progression from opposition to project, which is increasingly taking on the appearance of a continuous process, although that is not always possible under the political and financial conditions of their implementation. We now propose to consider the factors in the success or failure of these experiments, the procedures for which have evolved since their appearance in the social arena.

5. FACTORS IN THE SUCCESS OR FAILURE OF PARTICIPATORY DEMOCRACY APPLIED TO LANDSCAPE

The success or failure of landscape participation operations depends on multiple factors. These belong to very different worlds, and some have already been examined, such as the political moves of elected representatives who do not always look kindly on these experiments, because the requisite debating time impairs their capacity to take decisions ensuring their re-election, and also because they disturb their own concept of representative democracy and rely on a definition of

landscape which does not correspond to their own concept, more akin to protection. Considering landscape as a project has not yet become a way of life for the political world, although certain experiments have had definite success, like the landscape project of Saint-Flour in France implemented in 1993 by landscaper Alain Marguerit, who continues to monitor it regularly, thus confirming the continuous nature of the landscape project through time.

In the Netherlands, Lifescape is an operation based on deployment of new practices favourable to landscape preservation and sustainable development. This type of operation supported by the European Union is widespread in several countries of Europe. Lifescape stems from an approach to landscape which sets out to influence processes of economic and social change favourable to the living environment and conditions of local populations:

> Change requires a response. Our landscapes, the people and the nature which are part of them, the economic exchanges which they sustain, all change rapidly. Lifescape – Your Landscape is a response to this change. To take up this challenge, the programme seeks to bring people together beyond national borders to stimulate innovation, establish the best practices and demonstrate an effective approach. Thus on the one hand Lifescape involves human nature and concentrates on the links which people have or might have with each other and with the landscapes around them. On the other hand, these links are to be used and applied to specific cases of sustainable management of rural landscapes (INTERREG IIIB 2012 : 7).[22]

Negotiated landscape action thus no longer applies directly to landscape features but to processes of transformation of landscapes and to the way landscape is conceived. The "Lifescape – Your Landscape" operation not only sets out to stop landscape developments deemed harmful to landscape quality and to the living conditions of the residents or nearby populations, but has also conducted many educational operations or cultural events capable of influencing concepts of landscape as well. It innovates by introducing new practices to maintain economic activities favourable to quality landscapes:

> "Lifescape – Your Landscape" helps explore new ways to profit from the rural landscape while preserving its beauty and cultural and historical values. Fourteen partners in five European countries work together and share experiences to arrive at new approaches for long-term preservation of their landscapes.[23]

5.1. Context

The context in which participation operations are run also constitutes an essential question: the forms of participation may differ depending on whether the process takes place in a rural, urban or suburban landscape. Experiences of all three cases exist in numerous European countries; they differ in form, if only because the residents' knowledge is not identically shared. The relative anonymity of urban residents is not

22. The programme is present in Belgium, the Netherlands, Germany and the United Kingdom, with 14 institutional partners.

23. *Ibid.*, p. 1.

necessarily conducive to the emergence of processes of spontaneous participation, yet some experience shows that mobilisation sometimes occurs at the prompting of neighbourhood community movements, as was the case in Paris with the example of the Jardins d'Eole project in which an association brought about a debate with Paris City Hall to achieve the creation of an urban park on derelict railway land. In towns, neighbourhood committees to which residents are invited have also been created. But as the initiative came from elected representatives, misgivings appeared on the part of residents suspicious of action originating from the political world.[24]

In the rural realm, residents' mutual acquaintance is often greater and may foster a situation of better participation; often, however, it also carries antagonisms bequeathed by history or neighbourhood conflicts that result in cases of deadlock hardly conducive to public debate. Populations are often older and less inclined to participate in a debate, more wary than in town where there are more young people. The case of the urban periphery, where old-established and recent populations mingle, is possibly different again. Generally though, in the absence of evaluation of current experience, it is still difficult to draw conclusions, allowing only generalisation. In all situations, then, initiating a participation process is not so easy as might be believed, and should be carefully studied or else should stem from an initiative by a voluntary movement, a community of artists, a local collective, and so on. The development of participation has still not reached maturity: it may be necessary to wait for the current experiments to have their positive or negative effects before the new ones can absorb the lessons of the former.

To exemplify the multiplicity of experience with participation centred on landscape, information is appended concerning the work of the "Paysage et développement durable" (Landscape and sustainable development) programme of the French Ministry for Ecology (see Appendix 2) which has allowed at least six teams to engage in research projects with a participatory dimension. Two of them made a form of analytical inventory of this experimentation on a European scale, some details of which we shall provide.

5.2. Input of knowledge

Input of knowledge into the participatory process is also an unresolved question: in which forms is this input to be effected? At which stage of the process should the knowledge of practitioners or scientists be contributed: at the start of the process, or as questions specific to a given theme crop up? The process itself generates new knowledge which helps fuel the debate and possibly influences the decisions. Scientific knowledge is often hard for residents to understand, and this is often an argument of landscape practitioners for keeping researchers out of the participation process.

Between academic knowledge and empirical knowledge there are indeed gaps that may upset the workings of knowledge-sharing between those involved in the

24. In this connection see the leaflet published by the Standing Conference for Territorial Development, Ministry for the Walloon Region (Harou et al. 2003): "La participation des citoyens à la vie communale: enjeux and pratiques". See also: Barret 2003; Luginbühl 2009c; and Luginbühl 2009b.

participation process.[25] However, empirical knowledge is often used by scientists, for example to assess the animal or plant species in a territory, as do ecologists, by making counts of birds or mammals in a given territory, and social scientists record residents' personal accounts in order to understand their social representations of the landscape or ascertain the hazard zones remembered by the older people, such as flood-prone areas or avalanche paths. In the urban landscape, sociologists, anthropologists or geographers question residents and gain insight into the clashes of usage or ethnic conflicts in a neighbourhood.

The research programmes conducted by the French Ministry for Ecology covered several experiments in participation in various settings; they reveal numerous factors of success or failure. A first finding from the analysis of these experiments (conducted in various French regions and also studied in other countries) shows that some of them, often in the hands of artists' or architects' collectives, aim to bring together residents of an urban district at festive events, but often those operations do not lead to a tangible project, merely organising conviviality and mutual acquaintance between residents, without drawing them into the adventure of devising a collective project. In a way, these collectives have some success with elected representatives, precisely because they constitute operations without a real development goal and leave them free to prepare the development plan as they please under a cloak of participation.

5.3. Facilitating and arriving at the landscape project

In an operation conducted in a municipality beside the Loire[26] those in charge also emphasised the process of participation, while presuming that process to be crucial and the achievement of a development plan to be secondary. But they finally acknowledged that the project was important, as it mobilised part of the population, who had formed an association to make their municipality more beautiful.

This is in fact a pitfall which the writer regards as a hazard: while the process of participation is crucial, it must nevertheless reach a compromise on a plan which satisfies all players. The aim of these participation operations is indeed to carry through the approach in order to improve the living environment of the populations, and not to rally them for the sole purpose of creating social cohesion, even

25. See in this connection the definition of citizen knowledge proposed by Héloïse Nez (2011), posted online on 29 February 2012: "Our initial definition of citizen knowledge is thus fairly broad: it includes all the learning, experiences and techniques - that is not only cognitive resources (knowledge in the strict sense) but also the practical skills (know-how) which can be deployed by a player holding neither elected status nor professional status when intervening in participatory mechanisms. Thus citizen knowledge is distinguished from the institutional knowledge carried by elected representatives (whose legitimacy is founded on universal suffrage) or professionals (regarded as experts, i.e. individuals endowed with a specific proficiency and holding a recognised position as specialists), even though individual careers show that the boundaries are not always so impermeable between the different types of players and branches of knowledge". She distinguishes between various types of knowledge: practical, professional and activist, as well as voluntary sector expertise.

26. The municipality of Villandry, on whose territory a common development project has been devised by the residents and a team of scientists and practitioners (see Appendix 2).

if this is essential. Facilitation of the participation process is a condition of success, and those in charge of the operations, most of them simultaneously landscape practitioners and mediators, must not abandon their mission as designers. This question of facilitation is essential, and the status of facilitators must be accurately thought out: should they be a full stakeholder in the operation, for example a practitioner or a scientist? Should they be independent and have no responsibility in the measures envisaged, settling for the simple role of facilitation, as certain colloquy organisers do by calling on journalists?

The Vall de Camprodon operation staged in Spanish Catalonia resulted in the landscape charter negotiated by numerous private and public local partners and led to a programme of landscape actions signed by all the players who had participated collectively in its preparation (Mallarach 2010). Modelled on the European Landscape Convention, the charter sets the landscape quality objectives shared by these various players. It innovates, compared to the habitual process in this type of document, which, starting from a diagnosis, ends in the preparation of a landscape project founded on an array of different operations designed to "restore meaning" to the landscape, to define a "new identity". While the programme of actions firstly involves definition of the landscape quality objectives, it has not yet entered fully into a permanent, organised process of participation by residents, although many local associations participated in the meetings organised by the municipality of Camprodon.

Here, the question of the meaning assigned to landscape recurs, although the question of identity is a matter for discussion. The meaning which the planning process gives to landscape is fundamental, allowing detachment from the problems posed by the hard-to-negotiate aesthetic dimension. It is, moreover, one of the problems facing sites on the World Heritage List: in the natural heritage category, criterion (vii), referring to the exceptional natural beauty of a nature area, is no doubt the most discussed question in the world organisations linked with UNESCO, the International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) and the International Council on Monuments and Sites (ICOMOS). To avoid deferring to a definition of natural visual quality which is highly complex and often invokes academic canons, the IUCN in a joint study with ICOMOS in fact stresses the meaning given to the natural landscape (IUCN 2013).

Other questions arise such as validating the decisions, disseminating the content and conclusions of the debates, ways of rendering the decisions, interaction between the local forms of grassroots democracy and the debates at regional, national or international level. These are avenues to explore which could fuel the discussions at Council of Europe meetings on matters relating to the implementation of the European Landscape Convention.

5.4. Evaluation of participatory projects

There remains the essential question of project evaluation; validation of the different stages of the participation process is part of it, and is essential, in that it enables participants to recognise the outcome of their commitment. But it is very surprising that large numbers of plans purporting to be landscape projects have never been subjected to an evaluation of their real effects on the landscape. However, the French

ministry responsible for landscape issues has initiated a research programme on evaluation of official landscape policies.[27] If we consider that a landscape project can be likened to a process nurtured by self-generated knowledge, its own progression also offers an evaluation phase. The lessons which come out of the planning process are a means of evaluating the project's effects: they continuously inform those involved in the project about the effects of the measures adopted and implemented and allow these to be altered or corrected as the project goes ahead. The planning process provides a loop of retroactivity: as presented by Jean-François Seguin (2008), the landscape project constitutes a territorial process which begins with knowledge, progresses through definition of the landscape quality objectives, through the framing of the protection, management or development measures to the following stage of assessment, monitoring and evaluation, which retroactively provides input of knowledge and fresh impetus for the action influenced by what the process has yielded in the way of new knowledge.

CONCLUSIONS

The relationship between democracy and landscape is a complex area dependent upon many factors within differing spheres of significance. While many different experiments exist throughout Europe and worldwide, they are not applied in the same way on international, European, national, regional and local scales. It seems clear that the local scale is the one most in tune with the wishes of the people concerned, whereas the international scale is highly dependent on processes which it is difficult for people to control. Furthermore, the draft Constitutional Treaty of the European Union, proposed in 2004, when it distinguished participatory from representative democracy, regarded participatory democracy as a means of maintaining "an open, transparent and regular dialogue with representative associations and civil society". Although that treaty was not adopted because several countries voted against it there is still a relatively keen desire for participation in European societies.

Among those factors, the very meaning of the word "landscape", which does not always mean exactly the same thing in every country of Europe, yet which was defined with the consent of the great majority of European countries through their ratification of the European Landscape Convention, interacts with the scales of action and the status of the stakeholders involved. In Europe, as on other continents, there are manifestations of people's wish to be listened to by the political world, which often seems to be out of its depth in terms of circumventing the major global processes of commercial and financial exchanges. The use of participation is becoming a democratic practice called for by numerous social movements (such as the "Indignant" movement and the World Social Forum) which nevertheless find it difficult to get their views across.

Several lines of enquiry are already proving relevant in pursuing the commitment to putting into practice a democracy that makes it possible to tackle the issue of

27. *Politiques publiques et évaluation: analyse, évaluation, comparaison*, (1998-2005), French Ministry for Ecology.

the environment and landscape in which people live their day-to-day lives, and we shall propose several of these, without claiming that the list is exhaustive.

a. On the European scale, what path can be followed to promote implementation of a democracy which enables the everyday landscape – the environment in which people live – to be improved? Is it action on the European sectoral directives and the Common Agricultural Policy, on infrastructure programmes, on health and education standards? Or is it opening up European Union research programmes, currently too marginal, to the landscape issue?

b. On the national scale, encourage governments to include a landscape objective in sectoral policies, as already advocated by the European Landscape Convention, and develop participatory urban planning documents which take account of the landscape dimension. Make systematic the use of landscape atlases, or inventories of the same type, such as the United Kingdom's Landscape Character Assessment, with public participation in the landscape identification, assessment and classification phases and in landscape quality objectives. Interlink these atlases and similar with photographic landscape observatories and the databases relating to demography, housing, agriculture, infrastructure, and so on.

c. On the regional scale, start participatory action programmes such as landscape plans, charters, contracts, and so on. Consolidate regional atlases and their participatory aspect through use of the internet, to consult and involve the public.

d. On the local scale, encourage elected representatives to carry out participatory operations in landscape improvement through protection, management and enhancement, and to develop experimental activities with the assistance of regional or central government.

Over and above these recommendations, however, it is essential to develop a discussion of interactive or deliberative democracy, by promoting research in the social and ecological sciences (they have already turned attention to this subject) but receive insufficient support in terms of research funding, which has been sharply reduced in recent years due to the crisis and the need to cut public deficits. The issues below could be considered by a European Landscape Convention discussion group within the Council of Europe.

a. Looking beyond the relevance of participation, the question of the relations between science and action which has arisen (but on which discussion is incomplete). Particularly because the media play a part in the dissemination of this knowledge and, as is well known, make changes and usually make it less complex:

> "The New World of interactive democracy will only take shape if a newly renovated form of journalism emerges alongside it; one that is capable of leading public debate while at the same time maintaining an actively investigative presence in society, and endeavouring to decipher intellectually the complexities of the world". (Rosanvallon 2008: 342)

The author argues that a new foundation for this kind of journalism cannot be separated from the capacity of social sciences to inform public debate and enrich its quality.

Here consideration needs to be given to the contribution of knowledge, whether academic, secular or empirical knowledge, and to its form and timing within the participatory arrangements made for landscape matters.

b. The question of the facilitator's role also seems crucial: while the facilitator of participatory operations is often a member of the community of landscape practitioners or architects, the problem arises from those facilitators' positions and status in those operations: mediators or designers? This brings us back to the subject of their educational establishments' training and syllabii.

c. Landscape projects: how should they be designed? They are often modelled on an architectural or garden project, but their scope and content differ according to the scale of the intervention. The landscape project as an ongoing and participatory process now seems to be relevant, but that continuity raises the question of the responsible authorities' commitment to putting in place medium- or long-term procedures and appropriate funding. What teams should be set up in such projects? Interdisciplinarity is a must, but it is not self-evident, and when research is combined with action, it is vital to consider the issue of the place of academics alongside landscape professionals and other stakeholders.

d. The evaluation of democratic participation operations: not very often evaluated, there is nevertheless a need for consideration to be given to their actual effects on the day-to-day landscape and the well-being or otherwise which results for residents. If a participatory landscape project becomes an ongoing process, how can evaluation, which is also ongoing, be put in place?

The exercise of democracy cannot escape the complexity of the landscape production and transformation processes for which the involvement of society on a European scale came into being with the European Landscape Convention. The landscape itself is a "complex" of tangible and intangible meanings which science has separated and thereby reduced, to the point at which landscape action is difficult, although it offers potential commensurate with the high hopes of its advocates in this respect:

> science has been blinded in its inability to control, to plan, even to conceive of its social role, in its inability to integrate, to articulate and to reflect on its own knowledge. If indeed the human mind is incapable of apprehending the huge mass of knowledge in every discipline, then either the human mind or the division of knowledge into different disciplines must be changed (Morin 2005: 106). [28]

28. Translated from the French.

APPENDIX 1: PROGRAMME REPORT "INFORMATION, PUBLIC PARTICIPATION, CONSULTATION AND INVOLVEMENT IN RISK PREVENTION PLANS"

Report realised by the Centre d'études sur les réseaux, les transports, l'urbanisme et les constructions publiques (CERTU) (Lydie Bosc) under the supervision of MEDAD/DPPR/SDPRM (Magali Pinon-Leconte), with a contribution from members of the programme's steering committee (extracts).

Objectives of participation and consultation:

1) to meet the expectations of society, which increasingly asks to be informed and consulted about and involved in the policies which concern the environment and places where people live;

2) to promote citizenship, giving citizens a greater say, more power to make proposals, and a bigger role in their own environment, neighbourhood and town;

3) to raise citizens' interest in public affairs by inviting them to have their say about collective issues concerning their cities and public areas, and to take part in discussions in the political arena;

4) to restore social cohesion and combat exclusion, thanks to the introduction of public fora for discussion, expression and comparison of viewpoints, and to raise awareness about collective issues;

5) to promote a new concept of the common interest, which, in sustainable development activities, is built up collectively on the basis of a variety of common interests (environmental, social, economic);

6) to bring elected representatives closer to the public. The introduction of participatory activities fosters proximity between representatives and those they represent, a proximity which is not only physical, through the holding of public meetings, but also more intellectual, through the sharing and exchanging of views about the implications of the projects and policies under discussion.

Participation and consultation also make it possible for issues to be shared:

1) giving citizens responsibility, enabling them to take part in the preparation of public decisions;

2) getting citizens involved in concerns and issues of common interest, particularly in the environmental field;

3) keeping citizens informed. The educational dimension is crucial in consultations. Embarking on a process described as consultation without giving the people concerned a role to play in the discussion would be both ineffective and dishonest (in the sense that this is not consultation). Informing citizens also offers an opportunity to explain the implications and constraints of a project, which may make its acceptance easier, thanks to a better understanding;

4) raising awareness of how eco-citizens should behave, for example, is related to the two previous points.

Participation and consultation enable public action to be transformed:

1) conducting consultations makes it possible to open the eyes of the public authorities' technical departments to differing external viewpoints and methods of operation. Hearing about all these viewpoints and methods of operation (those of residents, traders, users, and so on) and taking them into account will give rise to a broader and more cross-cutting vision of the subjects dealt with; in order to engage in consultations, the language used will also have to be adapted to suit those taking part, and new knowledge will have to be brought into play; thus consultation may help to:

a. reorganise the administrative system, introducing a more cross-cutting approach and breaking down the barriers between departments and sectoral policies;

b. improve public action by taking greater account of citizens' needs and concerns (a more attentive administrative system, closer to those it serves) and making policies more consistent;

c. modernise the public administrative system through the introduction to departments of new tools and new responsibilities (facilitation, mediation, communication).

Finally, participation and consultation may be useful during the preparation of projects:

2) participation by the people concerned by a project, and particularly its beneficiaries, is a vital source of information and knowledge to:

a. improve the project through contributions of knowledge and various skills (residents' and users' day-to-day practices and usage of spaces) and by holding discussions of possible options;

b. adapt the project to users' expectations through better knowledge of the needs;

c. forestall, pay attention to and defuse any conflicts or disputes relating to the project by creating a forum for exchange at an early stage;

d. encourage appropriation of the project by the public (its users) by sharing information, explaining the implications, answering questions and replying to comments;

e. legitimise the project. In an increasingly complex environment in which the stakeholders are ever more numerous and varied, widespread participation ensures the legitimacy of the decision taken. The procedure itself whereby the decision is prepared (particularly when it is compulsory) becomes a source of legitimacy.

APPENDIX 2: EXPERIMENTS IN PARTICIPATION IN LANDSCAPE MATTERS

For information, see the research projects of the French Ministry for Ecology: website PDD2. http://paysage-developpement-durable.fr

1) "L'appréhension du paysage urbain, une opportunité pour renouveler les conceptions urbaines environnementales et les démarches participatives" (Apprehending the urban landscape, an opportunity to renew urban environmental concepts and participatory action), Emeline Bailly, CSTB, France, Rosemary Wakeman, Fordham University, New York. A comparison of participatory activities in La Plaine St-Denis, northern Paris, and Melrose in the Bronx.
2) "Gestion participative des paysages: construction d'une ressource culturelle pour l'appropriation des enjeux de biodiversité?" (Participatory landscape management: creation of a cultural resource for appropriating biodiversity issues?), Aurélien Allouche, Alain Dervieux, François Mesléard, Alain Sandoz. The researchers are developing participatory activity in the Camargue regional nature park, attempting to assess the capacities of such activity to manage flood risk and biodiversity or the restoration of nature.
3) "La participation et la médiation paysagère et le renouvellement des pratiques paysagistes" (Participation, mediation in landscape matters and the renewal of landscape practices), David Montembault, Agrocampus Ouest, Serge Briffaud, Rémi Bercovitz, Ecole Nationale Supérieure d'Architecture et de Paysage de Bordeaux, Monique Toublanc, Ecole Nationale Supérieure de Paysage de Versailles, Antoine Luginbühl, Association Passeurs, et al. Research-action covering two different geographical areas, one relating to the preparation of a landscape project in a municipality in the Loire area, the other to a historical approach in the Deux-Sèvres Department.
4) "Paysage et développement durable: à la recherche d'une participation créative" (Landscape and sustainable development: in search of creative participation), Yvette Lazzeri, Hélène Balu, Anne Cadoret, Florent Chiappero, Michel Chiappero, Caroline Giran-Samat, Arinna Latz, Béatrice Mésini, Hélène Tudela, Martine Perron, Centre d'Études et de Recherches Internationales et Communautaires (CERIC), Aix-Marseille University, CNRS, University of Pau, University of Toulon. Research into current participatory activities in Europe, especially in the architectural field.
5) "Dynamiques des modèles paysagers dans les villes nouvelles, cultiver des paysages durables" (Dynamics of landscape models in new towns, cultivating sustainable landscapes), Marie-Jo Menozzi, independent ethno-sociologist, Etienne Bertrand, Gally design office, Julien Laborde, Mnémosis. Research into participatory activity relating to Val Maubuée new town.
6) "Interface, dynamiques paysagères et perceptions des interfaces arborées, Quels enjeux pour la mise en place de la Trame Verte et Bleue?" (Interface, landscape dynamics and perceptions of interfaces featuring trees, implications for the introduction of the "Trame Verte et Bleue" network), Sylvie Guillerme et al, GEODE, CNRS and University of Toulouse-le-Mirail. Research relating to the participation of those who deal with non-forest trees in south-western France.

Numerous participation experiments were identified and analysed during the research, including the following.

Estonia

Preselection and designation of Natura 2000 sites: municipalities of Otepää and Konnumaa; stakeholders responsible: Ministry of the Environment, local administrative authority of the national park, the county's environmental council; two phases: 1) Information: top-down process leaving little scope for local knowledge, information mainly ecological, little socio-economic information; 2) Consultation: the participation procedure excluded socio-economic concerns and was considered unilateral.

France

Regional nature parks in Provence Côte d'Azur: Alpilles, Lubéron, Camargue, Verdon; programmed landscape reclassification operation "Ensemble, dessinons nos paysages" (Defining our landscapes together) comprising three phases: 1) Participatory analysis with the public and businesses, gathering of the perceptions of residents and institutional players of "landscape blackspots;" 2) Construction with residents of a landscape reclassification project; 3) Project reconstruction, round tables and workshops.

Calanques national park, Marseille: numerous participation problems referred to in the Lazzeri team's analysis covering the failure to take account of the nearby urban populations, uses by various marginalised social groups and the lack of a management plan. Study piloted by the state, with a public-interest grouping, associations, local authorities, local elected representatives, residents, various users and professionals. Lack of communication, risk of marginalisation of certain population groups, etc.

The Conservatoire des Restanques, "Mediterranean orchard and garden", Marseille: a project led by an association called Colinéo, set up in 1973, which specialises in conservation and environmental education and awareness-raising for schools, particularly in educational priority zones (ZEPs), and which has "environmental protection" approval under the Code on Environment, Youth and Public Education and is also approved by the national education authorities. The Conservatoire des Restanques lies south of the Massif de l'Étoile, bordering the 13th and 14th districts of Marseille, in a relatively impoverished area of dense urbanisation. The project entails extracting from a process of increasing urbanisation a natural area of wasteland, an area rich in biodiversity, which the association will enhance. The stakeholders involved vary widely and include volunteer residents from the nearby municipalities, property owners from the Zone d'aménagement concertée (ZAC) Batarelle development area, academics, Aix-Marseille University (trainees, scientific research), the City of Marseille (financing, missions), the Departmental Council (financing of training workshops), the Regional Council (financial partnership), schools (environmental education), the national Mediterranean botanical conservation garden of Porquerolles (rare and ancient plants), the building industry federation (construction of a 250 m^2 eco-building), Ademe (the environment and energy agency) and the Regional Council (financing

of an architect). The participation procedure is based on the Natura 2000 network and the social policy of the Bouches du Rhône Departmental Council. Local residents object to building being allowed in the area. Various work sites have contributed to sustainable development: fruit tree planting with schools' help, an educational trail, training workshops (brush clearance, plant maintenance, fruit tree pruning), picking of communal olives, lectures by academics, scientific and nature research. The project resulted in the rehabilitation of a neglected area of former farmland (terraces, olive grove): embellishment, protection of flora, planting of Mediterranean fruit trees, highlighting of Mediterranean herbs, erection of an eco-building.

Redesign of a local public space in the Blosne neighbourhood of Rennes (June 2012), "*Promenons-nous dans le bois*" (Let's walk in the woods), a project in a disadvantaged urban district: temporary rearrangement of a little-used public space within a housing block in a district undergoing renovation carried out by the National Agency for Urban Renewal (ANRU). Intervention by the "Collectif Etc" collective to unite residents of that district and beyond. Subsidy from the city council (12 000 euros, excluding fees); stakeholders involved: various associations, the district's elected representatives, the consultation workshop, residents; effects of the project: the main users were children, who turned it into a play area for which the municipality took responsibility; good reception of the area and respect for it, consideration of the possibility of repeating the process in other spaces within housing blocks in the district, bringing back into use this particular public space.

Public participation operation in Mont-de-Marsan: the Saint-Médard district (the main entrance to the Mont-de-Marsan conurbation) was the subject of numerous redesign proposals from its residents. Various problems are crystallised in this district, which nevertheless has strong landscape potential. The Mont-de-Marsan conurbation tasked the "Passeurs" collective with introducing a new public participation operation in order to plan an urban design project most appropriate to users' views. On the basis of a shared consideration of the landscape, a dialogue began about the ways in which the area was changing and the developments in citizens' lifestyles, representations, practices and expectations. The approach was built up jointly by residents, elected representatives, technicians and landscape specialists, from the "getting to know you" mobilisation and knowledge production phase right up to the landscape development design stage. Sponsors: Mont-de-Marsan urban community, City of Mont-de-Marsan. Total research budget: 27 000 euros. Work carried out by the "Passeurs" collective (www.passeurs.eu).

Sweden

Regional landscape strategies and public participation: the Swedish Government decided to develop implementation of 16 environmental objectives and the European Landscape Convention. The Regional Landscape Strategies were tested in seven counties in 2006 and 2007 through various pilot studies; the municipality of Vellinge in the county of Scania was a volunteer. In that county, hallmarked by a high degree of urbanisation, intensive agriculture and horse breeding, disputes emerged between horse riders and landowners because of the lack of appropriate bridle paths. The purpose of the research undertaken was to come up with a project for positioning

bridle paths in places agreed between riders and landowners; several meetings took place between them; the question of biodiversity (arising due to the environmental objectives) was not taken further; an association of riders and landowners was set up, and the top-down process was superseded by a bottom-up process, enabling the land-use dispute to be resolved.

United Kingdom

Participatory action plan for the River Dart basin in Devon and its subsequent extension to other river basins started in 2003. This is run by the Devon Wildlife Trust, an association which works to protect landscapes in conjunction with other institutions and associations. The project comes under the EU Water Framework Directive and receives support from the European INTERREG programme. Its aim is to preserve water quality. The participants were selected on the basis of various criteria including the sharing of knowledge, the development of participants' skills and the encouragement of small groups. They were involved in the participatory drafting of the action plan, organisation of two festivals and active public participation. The plan received media coverage.

The other experiments are detailed in the research report: *Paysage et développement durable : à la recherche d'une participation créative* (Landscape and sustainable development: the search for creative participation), final report of the Landscape and Sustainable Development Programme of the French Ministry for Ecology, scientific leader of the project Yvette Lazzeri, from the Sustainable Development and Mediterranean Territories Unit, International and Community Research Centre (CERIC), Aix-Marseille University, CNRS, University of Pau, University of Toulon, CERIC-DICE UMR 7318, 13628, Aix-en-Provence, France. www.pole-developpementdurable.univ-cezanne.fr.

Experiments in participation in the landscape field analysed by the team of Agrocampus Ouest, Passeurs, The French National School of Landscape Architects

Structure	Category	Project
Gruppe F, Berlin	Landscaper	Leise-Park (2012): conversion of a former cemetery into a city park with children's play equipment.
Société Publique Locale Angers Rives Nouvelles, Angers	Urban planner	Projet Maine-Rives Nouvelles (2010-2013): drawing up of the order and support for the project to redesign the banks of the river Maine.
Nomadisch Grün, Berlin	Film-maker	Prinzessinnengarten (2009): shared garden and place of sharing, developed on urban wasteland.

Structure	Category	Project
Collectif Etc, Lyon	Architects	"Au POIL", Project for the Ollière district and local ideas – municipality of Châteldon (Puy-de-Dôme).
Dubois Nathalie, Nantes	Landscaper and artist	"Le grand salon" in Béziers (2006): reclassification of the public space linking two major ensembles.
Association l'Atelier d'Urbanisme, Perpignan	Landscape engineer	Project to restore the river Têt (2013): continuation of the project begun in 2008 on the banks of the river Têt (low riverbanks, theatre) in Perpignan.
Die Baupiloten, Berlin	Architect	Alteration and extension of the school meals facility at Heinrich Nordhoff school in Wolfsburg.
Institut für Partizipatives Gestalten (IPG), Huntlosen, Germany	Landscaper	"Gut Sannum, Freiraum für alle" (2010-2012): design and development of the area around a centre for adults with disabilities.
Théatre Foirail Camifolia, Chemillé (49)	Landscape engineer	Participatory "in bloom" project in the municipality of Saint-Georges-des-gardes (49).
Agence Itinéraire-bis, Lyon (69)	Landscaper	Residential area improvements in the district of Bel-air, with its residents (Lyon).
Phytolab, Nantes	Landscaper/ botanist	City-port 3 (ongoing): redevelopment of the seafront at St-Nazaire and "test actions" in the Petit Maroc district (participation by Respublica and urban scenography by Etc).
Agence Campo, Nantes	Landscaper	"Ecosphère" (2013): collective garden opened in a public area.
Vous êtes d'Ici, Aubière (63)	Geographer, consultant engineer	"Morne à l'eau" (2013): consultation workshop on the environmental issues and landscapes of the municipality of Morne à l'Eau in Guadeloupe, under the DIVA research programme.
Les Robins des villes (RDV), Lyon (69)	Architect/teacher	Participatory alterations to 10 school yards (Lyon).
Teichmann Landschaftsarchitekten, Berlin	Landscaper	Columbiadam (2012-2014): design and development of a collective park in the middle of a group of 220 flats, near the former Tempelhof airport.
Weidinger Landschaftsarchitekten, Berlin	Landscaper, lecturer at the Technische Universität	Nöldnerplatz (2006): design of a children's play area on part of the square (participation ensured by two artists).

Other experiments identified

Joint readings

- "Subjective geography" by Catherine Jourdan (Mapping cities such as Nantes and Rennes with primary school children);
- "Practical atlas of the landscapes of Auvergne" (Marie Baret, Victor Miramand: mobile workshops);
- "Participatory photographic atlas of the landscapes of la Brenne", by Claire Blouin-Gourbillière, La Brenne regional nature park (Doctoral thesis entitled "L'élaboration d'images 'paysages' habitantes: un levier participatif d'aménagement du territoire. Le cas du Parc naturel régional de la Brenne", written with financial support from CIFRE);
- "Stock rearing and landscape" walks – David Montembault, Jean-Marc Besse (CNIEL) (Comparative interpretations of agricultural landscapes on the occasion of heritage open days, to bring producers closer to consumers. Experimental in 2008, these walks now take place on about 20 farms each year.).

Artistic projects: revelation/reappropriation of places

- "Public seats" project – "L'infusoire" collective – Parc de la Moutonnerie, Nantes (Co-operative making and placing of public seats to enable people to reappropriate the park);
- "On the sentier des Lauzes trail" (Comparative views of landscapes: footpaths exploring arts-related themes in the Vercors, Monts d'Ardèche and Pilat regional nature parks) – Intervention by artists and participatory projects;
- "The Monplaisir neighbourhood, 100 views and comments" – Photographer Marc Legros, Angers (Identification and explanation of the landscape qualities of a "sensitive" neighbourhood by its residents).

Spatial planning

- Plan to reshape landscapes in the upper valley of the river Bruche – Haute Bruche group of municipalities – Pierre Grandadam (2007 National Landscape Award);
- Drafting of the landscape charter of the Armorique regional nature park – Lise Vauvert (Consultation with local stakeholders to classify those landscape units already identified and raise local issues; involvement of 20 Agrocampus students in this project);
- "The 'Trame verte et bleue' network: A participatory landscape-based approach" – Sylvain Guerveno, Loire Anjou Touraine regional nature park (Consultations about the introduction to the park of the "Trame verte et bleue" network).

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