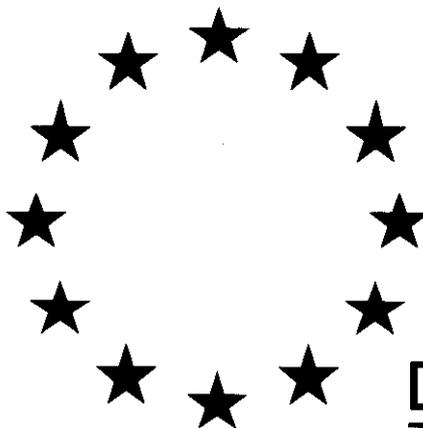


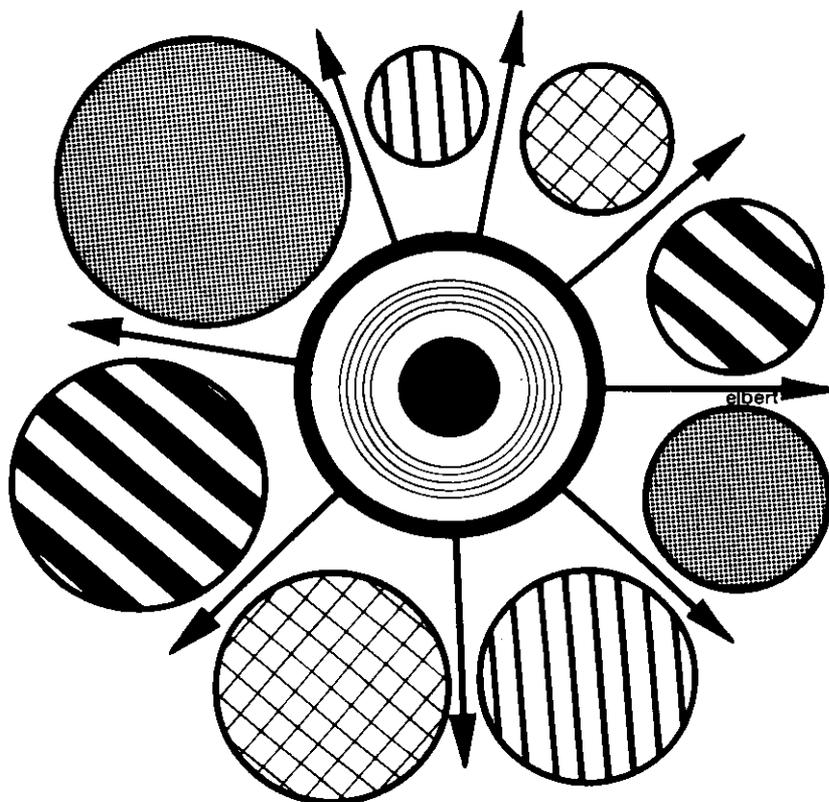
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EUROPEAN REGIONAL PLANNING
STUDY SERIES

49



Land use policies in regional planning
— Economic aspects

Report of the European seminar
Antalya, 21-25 September 1987

Strasbourg 1989

EUROPEAN CONFERENCE OF MINISTERS
RESPONSIBLE FOR REGIONAL PLANNING
(CEMAT)

EUROPEAN SEMINAR
"LAND USE POLICIES IN REGIONAL PLANNING - ECONOMIC ASPECTS"

Antalya (Turkey)
21-25 September 1987

R E P O R T O F T H E S E M I N A R

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I. OPENING SESSION

WELCOME ADDRESS BY MR BAHAEDDIN GUNAY,
GOVERNOR OF ANTALYA

Mr Chairman,
The Honourable Mayor of Antalya,
The Honourable Senior Officials of the Ministry of Public Works
and Settlement,
The distinguished participants and guests,

We are indeed very pleased to have the Seminar on Land Use
Policies in Antalya.

I am honoured to greet and welcome you on behalf of my
government.

I hope you will enjoy your stay in Antalya during the Seminar
which is organised by the Ministry of Public Works and Settlement and
the Council of Europe.

Distinguished guests,

Antalya is a province endowed with a shoreline of 640 kms, which
constitutes the cleanest and most beautiful beaches of the
Mediterranean coast. On these shores, the sun, forests, turquoise
bays, natural beaches and around one hundred antique cities co-exist
in magical harmony. Antalya possesses invaluable works of art dating
as far back as 18,000 years BC and traces of various civilisations up
till the present. Consequently our Antalya is progressing in the
direction of becoming one of the major centres of tourism, not only of
Turkey, but of the whole Mediterranean coast.

Today, I would like to express with great pleasure that 21
touristic establishments with a total bed capacity of 21,000 serves
the world tourism at present, and the 147 establishments of
international standards under construction, will add to this a total
bed capacity of 39,000. The growth of tourism can be appreciated with
all dimensions when we consider that another similar capacity exists
in other facilities of unprecedented features.

Antalya, besides tourism, possesses considerable agricultural
potential. Parellel to this, Antalya has become one of the most
important commercial ports.

Antalya is free-trade zone will start operating this year forming
the final step in the utilisation of this great potential.

We have adopted land conservation as a basic principle in these
sectoral developments, and as a result, coastal planning and
protection have been carried out for years now. We are deeply
concerned about the protection of our shores and seas. In my
province, there is close co-operation and co-ordination between public
and private establishments, and this is supported and encouraged by
all means of the state and government.

Therefore, nothing would make us happier than the discussion of subjects of vital interest to us, such as land use planning, balancing and preservation within the framework of this seminar. I would like to mention here that we shall benefit to a great extent from the ideas, policies, and solutions, to be formulated within this seminar, and that they will provide us with necessary guidance.

The South Antalya Tourism Development Project, which has been mentioned in the Fifth Five Year Development Plan as a successful project and has attracted the interest of many Mediterranean countries while taking place in tourism literature, is playing a significant role in the development of my province. The project, comprises a coastal line of 80 kms in which a licenced bed capacity of 64,000 is planned. 7,000 beds out of 64,000, serve for the European and world tourism at present.

Besides the above mentioned project, Antalya-Konyaalti, Antalya-Citadel, Antalya-Colakli, Antalya-Side, Antalya-Incekum and Antalya-Alanya Tourism Development Projects are also worth mentioning. I hope these projects will be discussed in the Seminar.

I would like to express with pleasure that the World Investment Bank has contributed as credits an amount of 26 billion US dollars to the South Antalya Tourism Development Project and that this credit has been utilised efficiently within the project receiving the appreciation of the Bank.

I believe that this Seminar will be of great benefit to Turkey and all other countries and will contribute to the handling of the tourism sector in Turkey and the establishment of peace in the world. I wish success to the seminar.

Thank you.

OPENING OF THE SEMINAR BY MR ISA KALKAN,
DEPUTY UNDER-SECRETARY, MINISTRY OF PUBLIC
WORKS AND SETTLEMENT (TURKEY)

Honourable Chairman, Governor and Mayor, and the distinguished delegates, guests and members of TRT and the press:

I am honoured to welcome you to the "Land Use Policies in Regional Planning - Economic Aspects" Seminar organised by our Ministry and the Council of Europe.

I would also like to express our pleasure in receiving the distinguished delegates from friendly nations in our country.

Turkey, who has willingly carried out many activities within the framework of the Council of Europe, has been following the activities of the Ministers responsible for Physical Planning since 1974. However this seminar will be the first activity realised by this group in our country. One of the major objectives of this seminar, is to offer you the opportunity of having a general opinion on our country prior to the ninth meeting which will be convened at the ministerial level in 1991, as well as providing you with information as to the rapid increase in land prices experienced in the periods of rapid development in the countries where the market economy prevails. The vitality and increased volume of investments in all economic fields naturally reflects itself in the increased demand for land for different uses.

It should not be forgotten that land is a limited resource. The utilisation of this resource carries vital importance, not only because it provides an economic value at present, but also because of the need for preserving certain options for the future generations.

Utmost attention should be paid to the preservation and improvement of the delicate balance between economic and social benefits, in the transformation of land to urban parcels.

Conservation of the agricultural and forestry areas which are of prime economic value carries great importance for both the present and the future. Considering the starvation problem confronting the world; in addition to preserving the agricultural land which is or is not under irrigation depending on climatic conditions, and the areas which will gain importance in terms of agriculture through maximum use of surface and ground water resources should be planned effectively for preservation purposes.

Keeping these in mind, the areas which are chosen for settlements should be planned in such a way that would meet the needs of the contemporary citizens without transforming the locality into a concrete jungle.

Attention should be paid to not creating new unhealthy environments while we are trying to improve the existing ones. The prevention of high density settlements that lead to various problems - such as infrastructure, transportation and environment - in the

planning phase, is one of the major principles leading to a healthy built-up environment. The same is true for touristic areas. Over utilisation created by the tourism potential of the area will eventually lead to the destruction of the environmental values and the touristic characteristics of the area. Therefore, the major principle in planning adopted in our country is to plan and take the necessary measures for the preservation of the environment, that is to be preventive rather than curative afterwards.

What type of managerial and financial measures have been taken for the implementation of these basic principles in Turkey in the recent years? I am not going to elaborate here the details of the measures taken. However, as you know, a series of reforms have been realised in the field of land use planning, starting from the eighties. The transfer of planning, implementation and control functions to local authorities within the framework of a decentralisation policy in order to increase their effectiveness is perhaps the most important of all of these reforms. Consequently, in addition to the elimination of delays caused due to distribution of decision making powers between different levels, the resulting decisions became much more flexible to encounter the changing realities.

I would like to stress this: the effective implementation of a land use plan is just as important as the preparation of that plan within the framework of the prevailing laws, principles and rules. Otherwise the desired aims can never be reached.

As a second reform, additional financial means have been provided for the local authorities enabling them to actively participate in the production of urban parcels. Nowadays, many municipalities can expropriate vast areas in the outskirts of big cities to accommodate low income groups. Through transforming these areas into urban parcels with adequate infrastructure they can offer these to low income families to meet their housing needs. Another additional possibility for the municipalities created within this framework is the right of expropriation of up to 35% of the land to be transformed into an urban parcel without paying any compensation. However, just like in all other sectors pertaining to production, the public sector is envisaged to undertake a regulatory and supervisory role, whereas the private sector is expected to participate in a more active and organised manner.

Public-private sector partnership is a model which is presently applied in the field of land use, as well as being utilised in other fields.

Throughout this seminar, the representatives of the member countries of the Council of Europe will present papers displaying their knowledge and experience on land use and planning. Relevant information on various aspects of housing, industry and tourism sectors of our country will also be provided and these activities will be inspected at their localities.

Consequently, the seminar will provide the representatives of the member countries of the Council of Europe once more the necessary medium for the exchange of ideas and transfer of information on the subjects to be dealt with.

I would like to thank the speakers who have submitted their papers, all the organisations that have helped us in the organisation of this seminar, the Council Secretariat, all those who have taken part in the organisation and wish the best for the success of this seminar.

INTRODUCTORY SPEECH BY MR ULRICH BOHNER, COUNCIL OF EUROPE

The present Seminar should be seen within the framework of the activities of the European Conference of Ministers responsible for Regional Planning. This Conference started its activities in 1970 in Bonn. So far seven conferences have taken place : some of them still have effects on our 21 State-organisation in Strasbourg.

The Fourth Conference took place in Vienna in 1978. It was the starting point for the European Campaign for the Countryside that the Council of Europe has launched this year in June in Portugal and which will last well into 1988.

The Fifth Conference was held in London in 1980. It was the starting point for the European Campaign for Urban Renaissance. At that time, a European programme of demonstration projects was set up to illustrate the Campaign. Two of them were located in Turkey : one in Antalya and the other in Istanbul.

The Sixth Conference took place at Torremolinos in 1983. There, the Ministers adopted the European regional/spatial planning charter, which is the basis for all future work in the field of regional planning in the Council of Europe. Among the fundamental objectives of this charter we find two that are important in the context of this seminar : one concerns rational use of land, which is the basis for the next Ministerial Conference in Switzerland as well as that of our debates here, especially when we link the economic aspects to one of the other fundamental objectives of this charter : balanced socio-economic development of the regions.

The Seventh Conference was held at the Hague in 1985 under the general heading "Evolution of the decision-making process in spatial planning". That Conference dealt with two main subjects: transfrontier co-operation and decentralisation.

Discussion of the first subject resulted in the creation of a special sector of intergovernmental activities in the Council of Europe work programme as from 1988. The second led to the organisation by the Standing Conference of Local and Regional Authorities of Europe of a European Conference of regional officials responsible for regional planning and development, in April 1987, at Valencia (Spain).

In all these cases, it is interesting to note that work carried out in the CEMAT has had important repercussions and was followed-up by work within the Council of Europe. Close working relations have in particular been developed with the Standing Conference of Local and Regional Authorities of Europe.

The Committee of Senior Officials is now preparing the Eighth Conference, to be held in Lausanne on 20 and 21 Oct 1988 on the following subjects : "Rational use of land, basis and limiting factor of our development". This clearly refers to the European regional/spatial planning charter, paragraph 17, "Rational use of land", where it is stated "in pursuit of the above defined objectives, this

concerns in particular the location, the organisation and the development of large urban and industrial complexes, major infrastructures, and the protection of agricultural and forestry land. Every regional/spatial planning policy must be necessarily accompanied by a land-use policy in order to make it possible to achieve objectives which are in the public's interest".

Preparations for this conference are already well-advanced, especially on the Swiss side by active preparation through Mr Marius Baschung and Ms Anne-Marie Betticher, and by five background papers submitted by various countries which will be presented here in Antalya in draft form, except for the Austrian report on tourism and rational use of land.

As far as CEMAT Nine is concerned, the Council of Europe's gratitude goes to the Turkish authorities - and especially the Minister - for their kind invitation to hold the conference in Turkey in 1991. The present seminar in Antalya shows that good preparation can be made in Turkey for such a conference and particular thanks must go to Dr Feral Eke.

The themes for the Ninth CEMAT are not yet decided, but it must be recalled that the Antalya Seminar is about "economic aspects" of rational use of land. In this context it may be interesting to refer to Item 14 of the European regional/spatial planning charter about "balanced socio-economic development of the regions". The aspect of public-private sector corporations is also to be stressed. We have to recognise here that Turkey has different problems from any other of the countries with a very active public sector, but also a very interesting experience of co-operation between the public and the private sectors.

As other possible themes, one could think about the problem of new technologies in regional planning, on which an interesting Franco-Dutch seminar has already been organised and on which various reports have been presented to the Senior Officials, in particular from the Netherlands, France and Switzerland. Such a theme would link up very well with previous concerns of CEMAT-directed prospectives and research. It would also be interesting to show some kind of follow-up to the European Campaign for the Countryside, it being a theme on which particular emphasis has been laid, for instance in countries like Sweden.

A few words should also be said about the present situation of regional/spatial planning inside the Council of Europe. The previous steering committee (CDAT) has been abolished as well as some other activities in the field of regional planning and cartography. It has been difficult to give the necessary support for the elaboration of a European spatial planning strategy. But we must also take into account that other activities have equally been set aside in the Council of Europe, such as the Steering Committee on Urban Problems (CDUP). It must be recognised that full priority has been given inside the Council of Europe to human rights, which is of course a very important issue on which many discussions are taking place in our host country. However, it is clear that the Council of Europe will continue to give full support to the CEMAT ministerial conferences.

Indeed, regional and spatial planning is a very wide field. But it is more and more recognised that soil and land-use policy are very important activities. Amongst other bodies, the Standing Conference of Local and Regional Authorities of Europe, the Parliamentary Assembly, and the Fifth European Ministerial Conference on the Environment, held in Lisbon in June 1987, recognised this importance. The Ministerial Conference on the Environnement furthermore suggested to elaborate a European convention for soil protection. One of the basic elements to be considered in this context is the European soil charter, adopted by the Council of Europe in 1972. You may also recall that in a letter addressed to the Secretary General, the Dutch Minister Dr Nijpels, suggested, after the Valencia Conference, that the Council of Europe should be considered in future as the advocate of the soil. It is more and more recognised that land and soil are basic values, that land is rare and must be used with extreme care, especially when the use is irreversible and that soil pollution is one of the major dangers for mankind.

More and more countries therefore start setting up programmes to preserve land and soil. This is not only the case in countries with high population density like the Federal Republic of Germany and the Netherlands, but also in Southern European countries with low population density. In many regions of such countries the land that can actually be used is always very limited if we take into consideration that the existence of mountains, deserts and other natural handicaps limits these possibilities and that also in such countries major conurbations do exist where land is already extremely rare.

When we consider regional and spatial planning in Europe, we must take into account that these matters have to be dealt with at various levels. At the conferences of the Hague and Valencia, particular attention was paid to both regional and local levels, as well as to the participation of the population at large in the decision-making process.

In most of the countries the national level is limited now to general legislation framework, certain incentives and the definition of general goals, whereas actual responsibility for land use policies is very often to be found at a lower level (regional or local).

As far as European action is concerned, we must see where we go from the Antalya conference. First of all, there will be a further meeting of the Committee of Senior Officials towards the end of the year, in order to prepare the eighth ministerial Conference to be held in Lausanne in one year's time.

Many proposals may be discussed, such as a European centre or research and documentation institute on land use and soil quality, with or without a partial agreement or convention as a base. Such a centre could have as main tasks research, documentation, vocational training and information exchange, as Ms Betticher puts it, there is an information duty in order to create awareness of the problems linked to land use. The framework for such action is given by the European regional/spatial planning charter, by national land-use policies, by the instruments set up to improve transfrontier co-operation, by regional spatial development plans, by the on-going discussion on the future of rural areas, organised in the framework

of the European Campaign for the Countryside, and by work concerning the harmonisation of tools for land-use policy, as was the case of the Sixth European Seminar of CEMAT on computer-assisted cartography and land-use policy, held in Barcelona in November 1986, and the work on regional statistics carried out in the framework of the Standing Conference of Local and Regional Authorities of Europe.

When talking about land-use policies, it is obvious that such policies should not make the development of our countries impossible. This feeling is particularly strong in certain countries of Southern Europe where such development is still badly needed in order to improve general living conditions. But land-use policy must avoid the destruction and deterioration of the land which would make life impossible for future generations. The attempt that will be made here in Antalya to reconcile these two problems will certainly have to be considered as an important input, as a major step and a preparation of the Eighth CEMAT in Lausanne.

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II. LAND USE POLICIES AND ECONOMIC ISSUES

First, second and third working session

1. Statement by Mrs Anne-Marie BETTICHER,
Federal Regional Planning Office,
Switzerland

ON RATIONAL USE OF LAND - BASIS AND
LIMITING FACTOR OF OUR DEVELOPMENT

Having long been regarded as an object we are free to manipulate at will, and which has been wrongly thought of as indefinitely renewable, the land is now at last being seen as a subject, with its rights and its demands: it has become a topic of social concern. At long last the qualitative, quantitative and spatial effects of socio-economic development on the demand for land have become a focus of attention. Yet there is nothing heartening about the reasons for this new "consecration", if we may call it that. After the more or less timorous measures which we have applied in recent years, and with varying measures of success, in an attempt to regenerate air and water, and after the spectre of forest die-back, as the twentieth century approaches its end we are becoming painfully aware of this other element of our existence - soil - and the risks it is running. Our society is now confronted with a new - and urgent - task in safeguarding (in the broad sense) land as the basis for, and limit to, our own development.

What is at stake: the multifarious functions of the soil

Soil is the product of a process going back over thousands of years, and performs a great many vital functions which I can do no more than recapitulate briefly here.

First of all, the soil serves to regulate matter (by recycling waste, dead leaves and animals etc), water (through its filtration and retention capacity), and air.

It is also a living habitat for all kinds of animal and vegetable species.

Furthermore, it is an immediate source of production - for agriculture and forestry - as well as a storehouse of raw materials and an element in the harnessing of solar energy.

Lastly, the land also underpins the activities of human society and all the functions that entails (housing, work, leisure, communications etc), not to mention its capital investment function.

As well as being the foundation of our natural environment, therefore, the land is nothing short of being the very foundation of our culture, by dint of its own properties and as a result of human volition. It is upon it, through it and around it that our identity takes root and our civilisation flowers.

The facts: land - a limited and fragile resource - is under threat

The paramount feature of this highly coveted object is that it is limited, or at least relatively inextensible, as well as being vulnerable (as everyone knows, once soil is polluted it cannot be purified, nor can land that has been built on ever be returned to its natural state). Because of the various functions which it is required to satisfy simultaneously, we must therefore ask ourselves whether it is still able, or will long continue to be able, to meet the growing demands and burdens we place upon it. Thus the fundamental conditions for the health of the land - both in quality and in quantity - are laid down from the outset.

For this purpose, it is true, the Swiss Constitution (Article 22 quater) requires that the land be used judiciously, a concept which the European Regional/Spatial Planning Charter similarly enshrines in its objective of a rational use of land. But the question is whether we actually take this concept properly into account.

In the profound changes which our environment has undergone in recent decades, it is obvious to everyone - unless he is totally blind to reality - that something is happening, and that something is going wrong. The changes that take place little by little - surreptitiously - suddenly appear in their full dimension.

What do we see around us? Proliferating concrete, ill-planned urbanisation, urban sprawl eating into the countryside and nibbling away at farmland, transport, supply and tourist facilities too big for requirements, unsuited to their surroundings and designed to cope with peak demand, cascades of sheet iron, scars along our mountain-sides, holiday homes with the shutters closed, soil degradation, erosion, subsidence, pollution of various kinds, and so on and so on. It is a picture which tells its own story.

The statistics for our own country are equally eloquent: the built-up area has doubled in the space of a single generation, while the population is practically stagnant; an estimated 10 hectares of farmland are lost every day, two-thirds of all lake shores are inaccessible to the public, and ski-lifts and cableways up the mountains add up to a network of 1,950 kilometres. Those are only a few of the factors.

The land is now a resource under threat - often irretrievably. The threat is both qualitative and quantitative, and stems from various causes bound up with a growth-oriented society - our selfishness, our greed, our desire for greater mobility, our constant desire for things bigger and better - in a nutshell, for more and more. The balance between man and nature is upset. Neglect and waste ultimately characterise our attitude towards the land which sustains us, but which we change and denature - the land at the expense of which we treat ourselves to some of our freedoms and pleasures.

The situation is clear: to borrow an expression from our own minister, "We are living on capital instead of being content with the interest". Can we really go on doing this?

It is true that there are observable differences in the way things are developing as between one country and another, by reason of geographical, climatic and socio-economic circumstances. Yet the general diagnosis leaves us in no doubt at all. Whether we like it or not, we are all abusing the land.

Not to be concerned by this state of affairs would be total irresponsibility, for what we destroy is lost for centuries. We generate risks not only to nature and the environment but to mankind itself: we are placing ourselves in danger, and our descendants even more so. Thus our own limitations are irreversibly fixed.

The consequences: the need for a change in the way we exploit land

Admittedly, it is not a wholly new phenomenon. Land, which is in limited supply and is in demand for economic and social development, has certainly been a source of conflict, resulting from divergent interests, for centuries. Everyone knows about scorched earth policies, massive deforestation and so on. But what is new is the proportion of damage inflicted by the sum total of isolated actions, a proportion which only shows up gradually. It is a development that has gone on unawares and is now reaching a critical point. We must therefore arrest it urgently: indeed we must act straightaway. Observing limits in regional planning means using the land in a strict, rational, co-ordinated manner. We must delay no longer in taking radical steps to protect the land, guarantee a proper distribution among its various uses in our countries, ensure that it is used economically and flexibly, especially where building land is concerned, and take care to safeguard certain areas such as farmland, protected areas and green spaces.

Some markers have already been set

A number of projects and studies have already been commenced along these lines, both at international and at national level.

In 1980, for example, the 5th European Conference of Ministers Responsible for Regional Planning, in London, described the competitive use of land as one of the major regional planning problems of the 1980s. Likewise, various basic Council of Europe texts such as the European Soil Charter of 1972 and, more recently, the European Regional/Spatial Planning Charter of 1983, one of whose fundamental objectives is the "responsible management of natural resources" and "rational use of land", allude to these issues and at the same time confirm the acute nature of the problem.

Various individual European states have also been making particular efforts over several years to arrest, or even reverse, the damaging trend observed in the exploitation of the land, through more effective measures of instruments of regional planning and organisation (in the broad sense).

In Switzerland too, a consensus has emerged in favour of the firmer implementation of regional planning policies in order to preserve our small land area from excessive greed and enable it to continue performing its various functions. The federal regional planning legislation is being revised in this sense, a recent amendment to the regional planning regulations having made it possible to protect rotation cropping areas, which are the areas needed to supply the country in the event of emergency.

For the same purpose, the Swiss Government launched a huge national research programme in 1985 on "Utilisation of Land in Switzerland". The terms of reference set for it by the Federal Council were in fact to suggest arrangements whereby the land might be used in a calculated, moderate way, bearing in mind three conservation and improvement objectives, viz:

- long-term maintenance of soil fertility
- reduction of soil loss
- better apportionment of land among various uses.

The point of encouraging scientific research in this context is to help achieve a better understanding of the problems (particularly by defining the dangers to the soil and its uses), to decide what knowledge is still needed at the present time, and to put forward practical proposals. Further, the research programme is not intended simply to describe the present or future situation, but - by posing fundamental questions of an ethical kind - also to indicate what changes of behaviour are needed.

This is of course an ambitious aim for, if changes of direction are to be translated into reality in the long term, it is important that the relevant information should get across to the population at large so as to increase general awareness.

This brings us to a crucial point - the duty to inform, without which no change is possible.

I would go even further: this effort of consciousness-raising must be directed beyond national frontiers, to all people everywhere, for it is together that we have to recognise and combat the dangers which threaten the land.

The 8th CEMAT - a crucial step towards a new set of values?

It is against this backdrop too that we must consider the 8th Conference of Ministers responsible for Regional Planning, which will be dealing with this very problem next year: the land as the basis for, and limit on, our own development.

The aim will be to break away from the anthropocentrist view of the world which we usually adopt in this connection and think about what the situation is in our various countries, as well as what it might or ought to be, where housing, agriculture, industry and tourism are concerned.

If we start from the principle that land must be used carefully and that we must stop exploiting it to meet our every requirement, the challenge to each modern state is then to see how it can provide for its economic and social development having regard to the quantitative and qualitative limitations of the land. In other words, how to reconcile progress and respect for the environment.

Bearing this and the interests at stake in mind, it seems hardly questionable that our needs and our behaviour will have to take a new turn and be steered in a different direction. A more responsible utilisation of land, which ultimately makes both economic and ecological sense, must henceforth entail the active management of what exists.

More specifically, the role and the duty of each state here, in both the short and the long term, is to consider whether its policies on construction and urban development are justified at a time when occupation of the land is proceeding unchecked. How can it encourage land to be used sparingly while doing justice to people's needs and aspirations? It must consider whether its agricultural policy makes due allowance for the future when it asks farmers to bear the economic risks deriving from a mode of land exploitation which does not damage the environment; whether its policy

of siting industry in undeveloped areas makes sense when there are so many derelict old sites available; and lastly, whether its policy on environment protection in the broad sense is effective enough if the soil continues to be harmed by pollution of various kinds.

It would be an act of responsibility in this connection to determine in practical terms what can be done to promote the sound economic use of the land and, similarly, which types of use require large areas and should be avoided. The option of a dynamic, flexible utilisation of the built environment, for example, could be pursued by encouraging redevelopment, renovation, revitalisation, architectural imagination and the reintegration of a certain mix of functions. This would mean redefining the aims of agriculture and the functions of the countryside in the search for balanced solutions. It would also mean protecting and improving natural areas which, while preserving vital biotopes for plants and animals, would also function as the restorers of a biological equilibrium and offer varied landscapes and recreational potential.

Over and above legislation and measures of a technical kind, this ultimately entails establishing a new code of conduct governing the relationship between man and his environment, for progress cannot continue unless it works with nature instead of against it.

It must be recognised already that the work and the studies undertaken in this connection by the member states of the Council of Europe in order to investigate the problems of land use in its various dimensions, to compare notes and, as appropriate, to work towards common objectives and measures, are all hopeful signs for the future. They mark the first step - one we hope will be decisive - from awareness to a new attitude, new values and, consequently, new patterns of behaviour.

2. Contribution by Mr J H ENTER (Netherlands)

ON LAND USE POLICIES IN THE AGRICULTURAL SECTOR

1. Introduction

During the discussion in Strasbourg on July 6th, it was apparent that the theme "Land Policy in the Agricultural Sector" is regarded as current theme over the whole of Europe.

In this supplementary paper, as agreed on July 6th, attention is focussed on the following matters.

Firstly, the specific role of physical planning in the problem of the intensification, and at some locations extensification, of agricultural land use. This role will be explained with the help of the concept of "spatial quality". Secondly, the tasks of physical planning will be considered in terms of the following principles: restructuring, adaptation or consolidation of the spatial structure. Thirdly, several appropriate and current examples from the extensive list in the background paper of February 9th 1987 will be cited.

In addition, the following will be discussed: which objectives can be formulated in physical planning, which problems require tackling at a European level and which instruments (in the Dutch situation) have a role in this.

2. Spatial Quality

The concept of quality has apparently been a challenge for philosophers and others for centuries. A clear definition is not really possible. It is clear, however, that it is the task of physical planning to maintain and develop as high a spatial quality as possible. In recent years the concept of spatial quality has been approached as follows within the Dutch National Agency for Physical Planning.

The concept of spatial quality encompasses three elements: form, function and time. These can be translated into experience value, use value and future value. Although the detailed content of these concepts will vary from region to region, country to country and scale to scale, the types of choices involved can be indicated.

The experience value of area is in the main determined by the form, the spatial structure. An area can be large or small-scale, unified or varied, and the building form can be concentrated or dispersed. Town and country planning must formulate the objectives with respect to the spatial structure per area and per scale, and if necessary indicate how this can be adapted.

In the one case the maintenance of small scale landscapes could be important; in another the openness. In rural areas, almost always it will be a concentration of building, where this is not related to activities closely tied to the land, which is important.

The use value of an area is determined by many factors. In addition to spatial structure, also important is whether functions are optimally located. (for example in relation to the physical characteristics of the environment or production environment),

whether functions are a hindrance to each other, (for example the separation of residential and employment functions, the joint use of vulnerable areas such as nature and water acquisition areas) and whether functions complement each other. As far as this last point is concerned, in The Netherlands physical planning in the main aims at the integration of functions where possible. This is generally regarded as an efficient form of land use. Ideally nature, recreation, water acquisition and agriculture will be combined as much as possible. Where it is possible to let different functions co-exist in harmony very special qualities are often created.

The future value of an area is dependent on management as well as the land use itself. The management needs to be such that the use is guaranteed also for the long term. This means, for example, that agricultural land use must not be so intensive that the sustainability of the soil is endangered.

As far as the land use is concerned, the structure of an area must be of such a quality that it is durable and flexible at the same time.

3. Policy Strategies

Three outline policy strategies can be distinguished. These can refer to both rural and urban areas.

The consolidation strategy applies to areas where the existing functions and spatial structure ought to be retained or strengthened. The most important spatial measure in this respect is to provide favourable conditions. Additional policies which can be contemplated are in the area of environmental norms and for adapted management and/or maintenance of landscape elements.

Adapted management can mean, for example, focussing on the maintenance of nature value or taking into consideration water acquisition.

The adaptation strategy is appropriate if the spatial structure only requires marginal adaptation but the functions, within the structure change considerably. In this case the task of physical planning is to create favourable conditions.

Spatial plans must, in this strategy, be flexible enough to be able to accommodate changes in the functions. Furthermore, the instruments mentioned above can be useful in these areas.

The restructuring strategy is appropriate if the changes in functions are such that the spatial structure must be altered too. In this case the task of physical planning is condition-creating and initiating. Areas which come into consideration for restructuring are, for example, recreation projects in the urban fringes, woods on former agricultural areas, or agricultural areas where, under the influence of heavy intensification, the landscape has lost its original structure to such an extent that a recognizable, attractive structure no longer exists.

3. Themes

In the selection of problems caused by intensive land use (and in some locations also extensification) the following criteria are important in this context:

- a. The problem has some influence on spatial quality
- b. Physical planning can contribute to the solution of the problem
- c. The problem must exist (almost) everywhere in Europe
- d. The objectives and means of solution must be able to be indicated.

Finally, an additional criterion would be that especially problems where European cooperation is required must be dealt with.

On the basis of these criteria, the following themes can be selected:

- management of ground- and surface water
- nature development and ecological infrastructure
- the landscape.

3.1. Ground- and Surface water

In large parts of Europe drinking water is obtained from the ground. The increasing intensification in agriculture (but also acid rain etc.) forms a threat to the quality of this ground water in the longer term. In the Netherlands, many installations will have to be closed in the future. The task of physical planning in this context can be to prevent pollutive functions from developing in ground water areas and, possibly in the longer term, designating areas which come into consideration as strategic water supply areas.

Ground water alone cannot provide enough drinking water everywhere. The water supply is, therefore, also dependent upon surface water. It is of great importance that physical planning takes into consideration, for example, the protection of the lakes. It will be more difficult to improve the quality of the rivers so that they can continue to fulfill their function as a water supply.

If that is not successful, the spatial consequences will be very considerable. Reservoirs will have to be constructed on a large scale to provide unpolluted water and more space will have to be reserved for protecting ground water.

Intensive agriculture does not only have qualitative effects on ground water but also quantitative. In dry periods agriculture exerts extra demands on the ground water, with the result that nature areas and woods dry out. The construction of facilities for the retention of unpolluted water can mean that less ground water is used but also has spatial consequences.

The most important instruments for the protection of ground water in the Netherlands are the Soil Protection Act and the Fertilizer Act. The (unnecessary) drying out of areas can be counteracted by the Physical Planning Act, amongst others. The water authorities and, possibly, the Land Reconstruction Act also play a role in the retention of water. In terms of the quality of surface water, in addition to national legislation (the Pollution of Surface Water Act), international consultation about the major rivers is also important. The meaning of these instruments is explained in paragraph 5.

3.2. Nature Development and Ecological Infrastructure

With the intensification of land use, nature value and small natural elements in the landscape disappear. This increases the need for the designation and development of nature areas. The dynamics of land use (and the extensification of certain locations) can be used to extend or maintain existing nature areas. On the other hand, nature areas are becoming more and more isolated as "natural islands in a culture sea". If the ecological relationships are absent then many nature areas will disappear anyway.

Also, in intensively used agricultural areas, ecological zones must therefore be created. Such an "ecological infrastructure" can make a contribution to the durability of ecosystems. This is a theme which is typically not only of national importance but also requires attention at the international level. Ecological infrastructure does not stop at national frontiers. The most important instruments are the "Land Reconstruction Act", the "Nature Protection Act" and the "Relationship Memorandum".

3.3. Landscape

Under the influence of various developments in society, and in particular agricultural developments, various landscapes of historical, recreational and ecological value are threatened with disappearance.

The largest and smallest scale landscapes are disappearing so that only an "average" landscape remains. In addition many landscapes which came into being under the influence of very specific forms of agricultural management are also threatened.

In general the landscape is being affected by very intensive, non-land based forms of agriculture such as intensive cattle rearing and market gardening under glass.

In principle much can be achieved under the Physical Planning Act. Since the implementation of the act is very decentralized, in practice, much can go wrong. Additional instruments such as the "Land Reconstruction Act" and the "Relationship Memorandum" are certainly necessary. In the future the European "Hill Farmers Regulation" and agriculture politics in general could play important roles (see paragraphs 4 and 5).

4. Changes in Agricultural Policy

In the background paper of 9 February it was already indicated that for all the themes, the developments in agricultural politics can be of vital importance. Since it is still uncertain what form the various agricultural measures will take, it is difficult to indicate precisely what the spatial consequences will be. It is clear, however, that the various agricultural measures will have different effects and will require different spatial policies.

Lowering prices would, due to competition, lead to a situation where only the cheapest producers survive. According to different experts production will be cheapest under either very intensive or very extensive circumstances. In areas which are already intensively used further intensification and in relatively extensive area further extensification could occur.

A system of quota restrictions could mean a check on further intensification if the quotas are linked to the land, especially when farmers have no alternative. When quotas become marketable this will certainly not be the case. In regions with good production circumstances intensification will occur whilst in other regions quotas will disappear. There the production will diminish severely, with consequences for social life and the landscape.

Taking land out of production is also under discussion. It could cause further intensification in the remaining areas and is presumably rather expensive if no good/economic alternative production can be found for these areas.

A policy directed at a stabilization of production volume and of its spatial dispersal will cause fewer social and environmental problems, but may require greater efforts in organization.

For physical planning the emphasis in this case will be on the adaptation strategy and, in certain locations, also on consolidation. Far fewer sector instruments are necessary to mitigate negative effects.

More generally it is, therefore, necessary for physical planning to anticipate changes in agricultural politics. The spatial quality of the rural areas will be to a large extent thereby determined.

The Physical Planning Act

Physical planning takes place within the administrative organisation of the Netherlands. The three administration levels, state, provinces and municipalities, each have their own role. The main principles of spatial policy are formulated at central government level in the form of, amongst others, Crucial Physical Planning Decisions (Planologische Kernbeslissingen or PKB's), the procedure of which is laid down in law. These principles are applied in one or more regional plans (streekplannen) per province.

At the municipal level, land use plans (bestemmingsplannen) are drawn up. These land use plans are the only spatial plans which are binding for both citizens and the authorities. The plans at the national and provincial level are indicative. The Physical Planning Act has therefore a strongly decentralised character. It states precisely the procedures which must be followed in the drawing up of the spatial plans. The act does not contain any regulations concerning the actual nature of physical planning policy.

Land Reconstruction Act

This act provides instruments for the planning of the rural areas in harmony with the functions indicated in physical planning. Dependent on the objectives to be realised, there are four forms of rural planning: reconstruction, consolidation, adaptation and re-allotment by agreement. The Land Reconstruction Act has recently replaced the Land Consolidation Act; in contrast to that act, the Land Reconstruction Act provides the opportunity to achieve non-agricultural objectives.

Nature Protection Act

This act provides the opportunity to protect land and water areas which have a special value from the viewpoint of natural beauty or scientific value. On the basis of this act areas can be designated as protected nature "monuments". Strict regulations apply to these areas concerning land use and potentially harmful uses must be subject to permits. In addition to the designation of protected nature monuments, this act provides the opportunity of designating certain types of plants and animals as protected species.

Fertilizer Act

The use of fertilizer in agriculture, market gardening and forestry is of great importance. This use can, however, have harmful consequences, for instance when improper fertilizers or too much fertilizer is used.

This act provides a legal basis whereby:

- a) in setting demands for the composition of fertilizer, the effects on the soil can be taken into account
- b) certain fertilizers used as compost and other similar waste products with value as fertilizers, can be subject to a system of permits
- c) restrictions can be placed upon the use of certain fertilizers
- d) the removal of animal fertilizer can be regulated.

Protection of the Soil Act

The aim of this act is to protect the soil. It provides general regulations whereby a general level of protection for the whole country can be realised.

In addition, the provinces have the task of designating areas which require special protection where:

- a) the chemical, physical and biological characteristics of the soil are not at all or only to a small extent influenced by human activities (soil protection areas)
- b) in certain areas the quality of the ground water must be protected in the context of the needs of water acquisition (ground water protection areas).

For ground water protection areas, the provincial government can pass legislation which protects the quality of the ground water in the designated areas, taking into account the needs of water acquisition.

Pollution of Surface Water Act

This has the aim of counteracting the pollution of surface water. The act provides for this purpose a series of permits and levies, the possibility of the application of a ban on discharging, subsidies, and the drawing up of water quality plans.

The basic principle of the act is that without permits it is forbidden to dump waste, polluted or harmful substances in surface water.

Relationship Memorandum

This provides a regulation (an act is in preparation) on the basis of which:

- a) agricultural land can be integrated into land of nature and landscape value
- b) a reimbursement can be made to farmers if they take account of the existing nature and landscape values.

Hill Farmers Regulation

This is an EEC subsidy regulation for farmers who have to deal with "natural handicaps". This regulation was originally developed for farms in hilly areas but is also applicable in the Netherlands, mainly in combination with a management regulation on the basis of the Relationship Memorandum.

Discussion:

The participants discussed possible effects of measures on the farms. It was mentioned that not all measures were in favour of the farmers. Concrete guidelines would be necessary in order to make sure that governmental policy would be implemented.

Another question referred to the design factor mentioned in the speech. This factor would involve some subjective evaluation process. People who live and benefit from this environment should have a say in defining their environment within the framework of "democratic planning".

3. Contribution by Mr Leif SVENSSON,
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ON LAND USE POLICIES IN THE INDUSTRIAL SECTOR

PREFACE

This paper on land use policy in the industrial sector has been written as a background document in the preparation work for the 8th European Conference of Ministers responsible for Regional Planning in May 1988.

A basic issue in the whole land use policy - not only or especially in the industrial sector - is how planning and building rights and the land value arising from social development are to be distributed. In Sweden the view has been taken that planning rights should be vested in the municipality, that building rights should not be tied to land ownership and that some part of these increases in land values should accrue to the community.

The new planning and building legislation decided by the Swedish Parliament this year strengthens even more the land use planning powers of the municipalities. The philosophy of absolute ownership as a foundation for the apportionment of development rights has been definitely abandoned in the new legislation.

Through the planning process, municipalities will distribute building rights to landowners, just as they are already doing today. The innovation is that the duration of building rights has once more been restricted, just as it was before the 19th century. Plans will now have to include an implementation deadline for building rights. The implementation period allowed should be between five and fifteen years. During that period the landowner will be at liberty to sell building rights, but it will no longer be possible to invest in unutilised or anticipated building rights. This will serve to restrict speculation in building rights. Moreover, for the first three years following the expiry of the implementation period, the municipality will be entitled to acquire properties with unutilised building rights in order to implement the plan.

Sweden has for some years had a new general national property tax levied on all types of property except industrial property and agricultural and forest land at a rate equalling 1.4-2.5 per cent of the assessed value of the properties.

In detail the measures and instruments to achieve land use policy goals can vary from time to time and from country to country. The goals are strongly characterised by how fundamental social and economic values are distributed in a society and country. Two important goals for the land use policy in Sweden and the new Swedish planning and building legislation are to strengthen the public influence and to prevent land speculation.

Introduction

1. This background paper discusses land use in industry, excluding agriculture, forestry and the tourist sector, which are dealt with in separate background papers. In addition to industry, therefore, we have to consider such sectors as mining, transport, retail trade and private and public services.
2. All in all, these sectors account for something like 80 or 90% of total GNP and employment in the Western European states. And these sectors account for most of the growth of both output and employment.
3. We will be concerned here with developments and land requirements in the various sectors individually, but we will also be considering the interdependence of the different sectors and relations between them.
4. Conditions naturally vary from one country to another, as regards both demand for and the supply of land. One thing which the sectors we are concerned with here have in common is that they are mainly located in urban areas, where they have to compete for land with each other and with housing and recreational interests. Increased production and employment are vital policy objectives in all countries and it is therefore a universal endeavour to promote positive developments in industry and other parts of the economy by various means. The provision of land, together with generally satisfactory start-up conditions, is an essential factor in this connection. And so the question of "rational use of land - basis and limiting factor of our development" is an important one in all our various countries.
5. Our background paper begins with a section on "land use today", followed by a discussion of "future demand for land in various sectors". We then turn to consider "land policy and physical planning" as well as various "measures for further conservation of land".

Land use today

6. Land supply and land use vary considerably from one country to another, and so too, therefore, does competition for land. In terms of area Sweden is a relatively large country (0.45 mill. km² or 45 mill. hectares), but demographically it is small (8.3 mill. inhabitants) and sparsely populated (20 inhabitants per km² or 0.2 per hectare). Most of the population, however, live in the southern most third of the country, where population density exceeds the above stated national average but is still a good deal lower than in large parts of Western Europe.
7. More than 80% of the population live in urban communities with at least 200 residents and, consequently, less than 20% live in what we have defined as purely rural areas. Many urban communities are relatively small and there are no really large conglomerations of population. The Stockholm region, the largest of all, has a population of about 1.5 million.

8. The proportion of built-up land is not more than 3% in Sweden, as compared for example with 13% in West Germany and 8% in the United Kingdom. The following table shows the total distribution of land area in Sweden between different uses:

	Farmland	Forest Land	Development with appurt. sites	Wet-lands	Unforested mountain	Lakes and water-courses	Total
Hect-ares (1,000)	3,584	24,113	1,260	5,031	7,173	3,847	45,008
%	8	54	3	11	16	9	100

9. Looking more closely at the built-up percentage, one finds the following breakdown:

	Hous.	Indust. Mining and mineral	Tech-nical facil-ities	Com-merce	Public ser-vices	Trans-port	Second homes	Other devel-oped land	Undev-eloped build-ing land	TOTAL
Hect-ares (1,000)	317	104	10	17	54	225	185	275	72	1,260
%	25	8	1	2	4	18	14	22	6	100

10. Sectors dealt with in this paper - industry, technical facilities, private and public services and transport - occupy a total area of 410,000 hectares, i.e. one-third of the built-up area or about 1% of the total area of the country. Taking this specification one step further, industry in the conventional sense occupies an area of 76,000 hectares, which is less than 0.2% of the total area of the country, while 28,000 hectares are used for mining and mineral extraction.

"Technical facilities" includes power stations (1,700 hectares of land), waste water purification plants (4,000) and distribution buildings (4,500).

"Transport" includes land for roads (180,000), railways (37,000), airports (7,000), and ports and terminals (900).

11. As regards land use for retail and commercial activities, the figure of 17,000 hectares stated above is a rough estimate. Our calculations have been made on the uniform assumption of 3% of the urban area being occupied in this way. Our estimates of land use for public services are also rough ones and are derived from the 1981 real property tax assessment.

12. To the figures mentioned here we can add 60,000 hectares for private roads and 150,000 hectares for power lines. Altogether, in fact, overhead powerlines are estimated to encroach on more than 300,000 hectares of land. Thus depending on one's definition of terms, between 1 and 2 % of the total area of the country is applied to the purposes we discuss in this paper.

13. As has already been pointed out, these average figures concerning land use in the country as a whole do not convey an accurate picture of the pressure of demand and competition for land in the more densely populated regions. There, as elsewhere in Europe, land resources and attractive land areas are a subject of competition and conflicting interests.

14. It is also important to note the environmental impact, e.g. noise and pollution, of many activities in the sectors we are concerned with here. This makes special demands on land supply and localisation.

15. Generally speaking, land supply is not a major problem in Sweden today, even in the big cities. As a result of a thorough, nationwide system of physical planning since the late 1960s and a reduction of both housing and industrial building output during the late 1970s and early 1980s, there is, in general, ample capacity for meeting the land requirements of different sectors.

16. This is not to say that everybody is free to build exactly as they please. Although, as stated above, there is no real shortage of land, policy-makers insist on conservation of land resources and on the far-sighted localisation of different activities.

17. Great importance has been attached in the planning context to the renewal of ageing residential and industrial areas, whether peripherally or more centrally situated. In many cases this has involved a change in the use to which land is put. The position of different land areas changes with the passing of time in relation to communications and their general surroundings. Similarly, the land and localisation requirements of different activities are also subject to change.

18. Active land policy and physical planning are based on the extensive powers vested in the Swedish municipalities, and, on the comprehensive physical planning which has evolved in the country during the last decades. We will be returning to this point in a later section.

19. What comparisons and generalisations can other countries base on the information contained by this section about land use today ? For our part we feel it would be interesting, prior to the 1988 Conference of Ministers, to be given a general picture of land use in the Western European countries. In this preliminary draft background paper we have deliberately generalised. Perhaps there are certain aspects and conditions which ought to be dealt with more exhaustively. For example, would it be of interest to give closer consideration to land use in a number of differently sized localities in each country and/or types of localities in terms of economic structure ?

Future land demand in different sectors

20. In the section on land use today we have avoided touching on the tendencies and changes in land demand and land use which characterised development today. These tendencies and changes will to a great extent leave their mark on future developments as well, and this will to a great extent involve repeating what has been said already as we now turn to consider future demand for land.

21. All in all, industry and the other sectors we are concerned with here have expanded heavily in recent decades and are still doing so today, as regards both output and employment. The effects of this expansion on land requirements operate in slightly different directions. Productivity per machine unit, square metre of floor space and employee is rising, with the result that land demand is not growing at the same pace as production. At the same time, there are other tendencies which operate in the contrary direction. For example, there is the increasing tendency for industrial and ware-housing facilities, supermarkets, office blocks, schools, day nurseries and other public facilities, to be built only one storey high.

22. Extensive mechanisation by means of assembly belts, robotics etc, coupled with demands for rational internal and external transport, is making it an advantage in commodity production and distribution for activities to be located on one single floor. For various reasons, considerable sectors of private and public service occupations prefer also to build on one or a few stories.

23. Expansion in the service sectors is very much a question of transferring activities and functions from households to enterprises and public institutions, with all the demands for facilities and land which this implies. The process of transfer can have made different degrees of headway in different countries. In Sweden it has progressed a relatively long way.

24. Another important part of the growth of service occupations - above all private services - can be put down to a corresponding transfer of activities from industry but also from other parts of enterprise and from the public sector. Corporate services such as infotech and consulting activities are among the principal growth sectors at present.

25. The transport and communications sector is steadily growing in importance. In their efforts to minimise inventories, companies are dependent on rapid and reliable goods transport services. Similarly, increasing demands are being made on passenger transport. Telecommunications and data communication systems are being expanded and developed more and more.

26. Other infrastructure such as education, research, housing, recreation areas etc. is also playing an increasing part in the localisation decisions of enterprise, both between and within different regions. Demand for land is not exclusively a matter of space ; it is increasingly bound up with positions and environments.

27. In the physical planning of the past few decades, an effort has been made to segregate different activities. One important aim in doing so has been to position environmentally disruptive activities in such a way that they will not be too near housing areas, leisure and recreational areas etc. New methods of production and new techniques for reducing noise, air pollution etc. are reducing the environmental impact of industry and comparable activities. This in turn reduces the need for rigid geographical segregation of different types of land use, as well as the need for intermediate boundary zones.

28. The importance of questions relating to the occupational environment has increased and is still doing so, not least as regards the design of working premises in terms of lifting devices, safety questions, lighting, noise, ventilation, personnel facilities and hygiene facilities etc. To provide for these aspects, facilities are being made progressively larger.

29. Another factor influencing the way in which facilities are constructed, both in industry and elsewhere, is the advent of new, rational and less expensive building methods. Similarly, new insulation materials and new methods of heating and heat recovery are making it economically feasible to heat progressively larger volumes and areas.

30. New building methods etc are also making it technically and economically feasible to carry out major earth-moving and such like operations, e.g. for the construction of power stations, roads and other communications, terminals and recreational amenities. This augments land consumption in general, but at the same time it creates increasing opportunities for the re-use of land and for the use of land which, initially, is not ideal for a certain purpose.

31. Structural changes in industry and elsewhere in the economy also cause demand for facilities and land to change with the passing of time. This should be taken into account in physical planning and in the construction of facilities. One has to realise that the use of a land area may undergo a number of changes in the future, and the use of industrial and office facilities is no exception to this rule. Accordingly, there may be reason for trying to make facilities as general and flexible as possible and for building them in such a way as to facilitate demolition or conversion.

32. New techniques in telecommunications and data communication are providing new opportunities for the geographical dissemination of activities, both within and between different regions. Tendencies towards this kind of dissemination have been apparent in recent years, in the production of both goods and services.

33. At the same time there is a tendency for certain activities - e.g. research and development units, data enterprises and consulting activities - to become increasingly concentrated within regions and, at sub-regional level, within certain areas which are close to universities and colleges and have a good infrastructure in other respects.

34. As we have already shown, there are a number of development tendencies influencing land use in the sectors with which this paper is concerned. The tendencies are somewhat contradictory. It is also important to note that land use is not governed by any direct relations with changes of production and employment in the various sectors. Changes in land use hinge to a great extent on other factors, such as the way to construct facilities, organise transports and so on. This is a point to be borne in mind in physical planning and in land policy generally.

35. The development tendencies we have outlined here are probably true to a great extent of all the Western European countries. At the same time there may be certain differences between countries in a number of respects, due among other things to certain development processes having made different degrees of headway in different countries.

36. Weighting together the various factors and tendencies, we arrive at the following assessments of future demand for land in various sectors :

37. Manufacturing industry will not be increasing its land demand to any great extent. The same goes for mining and mineral extraction. Land previously applied to these purposes will be increasingly available for new industry or other activities.

38. In future there is likely to be a further increase in land demand for technical facilities such as power stations, district heating plants, waste water purification plants etc.

39. Similarly, land demand will continue increasing in the transport and communications sector for roads, railways, airports etc.

40. The expansion of the private service sector will continue, and its land demand will continue to increase.

41. Continuing growth, and consequently a continuing rise in land demand, can also be predicted in the public service sector. In this sector, however, some countries have progressed further than others. In countries with well developed public services, growth can be expected to decline, while elsewhere it will remain high. Declining birthrates and the resultant stagnation and eventual decline of population will also influence developments and land requirements in this sector.

42. All in all, land requirements will continue to increase in the sectors we are concerned with here, but probably less rapidly than in recent decades. There are sub-sectors where development is now going to enter a steadier phase, following a period of rapid expansion and development. Furthermore, as a result of the physical planning conducted in recent years, there are considerable, as yet unharnessed reserves of land in the municipalities, e.g. for industry, offices and warehousing. We will be returning to this point later on.

43. As we have already observed, there are many factors influencing land demand in the various sectors and there are no a priori connections between sectorial development in terms of production and employment and sectorial demand for land. This means that land demand in industry and elsewhere in the economy can be conditioned by various means and through active planning. We shall now turn to consider what can be done in the field of land policy and physical planning and in other ways, so as to influence land requirements and the localisation of different activities.

Land policy and physical planning

44. We have already mentioned the important role allotted to the municipalities in Swedish land policy and physical planning. The municipalities are primarily responsible for the compilation of physical plans. Within the framework of this planning and subject to building legislation, the municipalities decide the use to be made of the different land areas and the location and manner of development or any other change in land use. The legislation lays down that land intended for urban development must be planned by the municipalities. Land can only be built on if the municipality finds it suitable for this purpose from the viewpoint of the community.

45. As from 1987, municipal powers will be further expanded so that the municipalities will be able to finalise their own plans for land use. In other words, those plans will no longer be subject to national government approval. The State county administrations, however, will be able to invalidate municipal plans and decisions if :

- they do not make any provision for a "national interest" as defined by the Government and Riksdag, e.g. the preservation of an area of unspoiled countryside or of an unharnessed waterfall ;
- they imply poor co-ordination with other municipalities ;
- entail health or safety hazards ;
- have not evolved by due process.

46. The Parliament and Government define the general objectives of land use and procedures for the planning and decision-making process. Following extensive planning work undertaken conjointly at local, regional and central levels, the State has defined a number of "national interests" to be taken into account in the planning. Insofar as municipal intentions regarding land use come into conflict with these national interests, the dispute has to be referred to and determined by the State.

47. As we see it, a system, of the kind described here, for balancing different interests provides a useful foundation for active, far sighted land policy as regards both planning and implementation. The important thing is for the State to specify those land use questions which are a matter of national interest and to define the procedures for planning and decision-making. In this way local interests have to compete with regional and national interests in cases where there is a conflict involved. Otherwise it is the municipalities themselves that plan and decide matters of land use within their boundaries.

48. We have now described, in general terms, the apportionment of responsibilities between local, regional and central levels as regards planning and decision-making in Swedish land policy. We realise of course that there are administrative and other differences between countries and, accordingly, that it is hard to compare and generalise, especially in such complex fields as those of land policy and physical planning. At the same time, we believe in the possibility of jointly

identifying a number of elements which ought to be included in a system of planning and decision-making, so as to balance different interests against one another. It is important not to get bogged down in detailed descriptions and discussions of the detailed workings of these systems in each individual country. It would, however, be interesting to see a generalised account of the way in which the planning and decision-making system for land use is constructed in different countries and how it works.

Measures for further conservation of land

49. A far sighted, active management of land, natural resources and important environmental values must necessarily be based on land and building legislation investing public agencies with proper planning and decision-making powers. This in itself, however, is not enough ; efforts are needed in many different fields to achieve efficient management and appropriate land use from the viewpoint of the community. We will now enumerate a number of fields in which further efforts could be made to this end.

50. One essential precondition of support for additional measures of land and natural resource conservation is for the general public and political decision-makers to be made aware of the problems and opportunities to be expected in the future. One important and necessary element of physical planning is active, intelligible information both to general public and to politicians as to the direction in which developments are moving and opportunities of steering them. Further consideration must be given to ways of improving this information, a question which in fact was mooted at the last ministerial conference in The Hague, in the autumn of 1985.

51. As we have already pointed out, demand and competition for land resources are heaviest in certain expanding regions of each country. An active regional policy designed to strengthen and develop other regions is important for relieving the pressure on the most expansive regions. After a period of relatively good regional balance in many countries, we have a resurgent tendency towards growing concentration and immigration in certain regions, especially those with research, higher education and good infrastructure in other respects. This development must be counteracted by means of stronger regional input with greater emphasis on infrastructure improvements and competence build-up in the disadvantaged regions. Greater importance must also be attached to measures to divert the expansion of private and public services of a national character away from capitals and other expansive metropolitan areas to other regions.

52. Within the individual regions, there is also an ongoing concentration of industry and other activities within certain attractive areas located close to research and educational institutions and other sophisticated infrastructure. This causes

demand for land to be unevenly distributed intra-regionally as well. To counteract this, measures are needed to equalise developmental conditions within regions, e.g. by distributing advanced services and infrastructure, improving roads and communications and perhaps also imposing restrictions of some kind on the further expansion of certain areas. In this respect, local and regional authorities can accomplish a good deal by means of active physical planning and measures in the infrastructure and communication context.

53. The re-use of facilities and land which, on account of structural and other changes, are no longer used for the purposes to which they were formerly applied, is an important question not least in and around big cities. Active planning of such areas can be facilitated by legislation empowering municipalities to decide what the land is to be used for. It is also important for legislation to include provisions regulating the obligations of owners or users of land and facilities as regards the rehabilitation of land and the maintenance of buildings etc., for example when activities are wound up.

54. In regions with an acute shortage of land, special measures must be considered in order to reduce land consumption. For example, efforts should be made to reduce the production of single-storey buildings for industry, offices, commerce, public services etc. There may be cause to invest in research and development so as to evolve systems of production and transport which will make it easier for activities of this kind to be conducted in multi-storey facilities. Furthermore, consideration could be given to stipulating, in planning regulations for certain land areas, that new development has to take the form of buildings with more than one storey.

55. The transport sector also has a vital part to play in efforts to reduce land consumption in regions where land is in short supply. Various measures must be taken to reduce the need for transport and travel, and a larger proportion of passenger and other transport traffic must be diverted to public transport.

56. It is also important to increase the pooling of land for different purposes, e.g. parking facilities and communal parkland areas for people working and living in a particular area.

57. It is also important to try - at least to some extent - to reverse the segregated land use which has tended to characterise planning in recent decades. As a result of that segregation, relatively large areas of land are earmarked for certain types of activity for a long time to come, without being actually utilised. Rigid segregation also makes the areas concerned both lopsided and tedious, at the same time reducing opportunities for the pooling of land areas between different sectors of use. Provision should also be made here for the current desire for a closer admixture of housing and workplaces, so as to bring these areas to life and to some extent reduce the need for commuter travel.

58. When building facilities for industry etc., greater provision should be made for the need for flexibility, so that the facilities can easily be converted for new purposes and, ultimately, easily demolished to make way for a different kind of land use.

59. This also applies to public service facilities. Demographic changes - low birthrates, longer life expectancy and regional migration - will produce changes in the facility and land requirements of different social services. A general analysis is needed of the future impact of population changes in different respects, coupled with the will to meet those changes, with due allowance for the uncertainty involved in such assessments of the future. This latter point is one which must be taken into consideration in all physical planning.

60. We have here pointed out some fields for further efforts for conservation land and for a more rational use of land in the industrial sector and the other sectors we discuss in this paper. It would be interesting to get a discussion and an exchange of ideas and experiences between the countries around these matters.

4. Contribution from Mrs Anne-Marie ZIGMANT, DATAR (France)

ON LAND USE POLICIES IN TOURISM

I. MAIN TRENDS IN TOURISM IN FRANCE

a. Definition: TOURIST: any person leaving his usual residence for not less than 24 hours or one night and not more than four months for one of the following reasons:

- pleasure (holidays and weekend trips)
- health
- meetings of all kinds or official travel (conferences, seminars, pilgrimages etc)
- business trips
- school trips

This definition applies to international tourists.

Reason	24 hours	3 nights		4 months
Pleasure		short pleasure trip	holidays	
Health		health travel		
Business/meetings		business travel		
Educational		school travel		
	Excursion		Tourism	
	Visit			

b. Tourism in the national economy

Balance of exchanges with other countries 1982 + 12,100 million francs
(current value)

1983 + 22,400 " "
1984 + 29,100 " "
1985 + 30,400 " "
1986 + 22,800 " "
1987 + 20,000 " "

Percentage of the French population who go away 84 57.3% (31.2 million people)
85 57.5% (31.4 " ")
86 58.2% (31.7 " ")

winter

winter sport

84 26.2% 10%
85 24.9% 8.8%
86 27.1% 9.6%

summer

84 53.9% (29.3 million people)
85 53.8% (29.4 million people)
86 54.1% (29.5 million people)

Characteristics of tourism in France

1. About 50% of holidays are always spent at the seaside

Cf distribution of summer holidays by type of holiday
(percentage of total number of days spent)

	seaside	mountains	countryside
1984	49.2	17.5	24.6
1985	48.1	16.3	27.3
1986	46	16.8	26.7

Policy on the development of coastal areas:

- Aquitaine
- Languedoc-Roussillon

2. Tendency to split up holidays:

ie shorter holidays in summer.

Increase in short stays or leisure activities, mainly benefiting winter holidays, particularly winter sports.

State action to develop tourism in mountain areas.

LAND-USE POLICIES IN THE TOURIST SECTOR

MOUNTAIN AREAS

1. Historical and geographical context
 - Importance of mountain areas in France:

About 116,000 km², or 21% of the national territory.

About 3.5 million inhabitants, or about 30 inhabitants per km².
 - To varying degrees, all the mountain masses show signs of weakness:
 - . Economic: related to permanent natural handicaps (nature of the terrain, isolation, climate).
 - related to a shortage of non-agricultural jobs, whose preservation is often problematical.
 - related to the inferior quality of the social, administrative and economic environment in which the permanent population live and in which firms operate;
 - . Geographical: related to a deterioration in the quality of some sites;
 - related to dangers to the survival of rare species;
 - related to the increase in fallow land;
 - related to poor upkeep of woodlands etc → natural hazards.
 - . This results in a high rate of depopulation, which is worrying because:
 - mountain areas account for some 1.4 million labour-force participants, whose jobs and future must be guaranteed;
 - over 40% of the working population are involved in industrial production and crafts;
 - about 18% of the working population work on 170,000 farms; the average income of these mountain farms is three-quarters of the average national farm income;
 - the mountains represent a national and international tourist potential; this potential is confined to small areas where winter sports are concerned, but one should not forget the well-established and more important summer trade in some mountain masses;
 - the mountains represent a reserve of natural and energy resources for the entire national territory.

Summary of policy on mountain areas

Mountain areas have been a subject of concern to the public authorities since the 1960s, when the problems associated with the development of tourism began to appear.

Policy on mountain areas is related to a gradually increasing awareness of their specific problems. It came into being in 1967 with the start of the "rural renewal" process.

The climate was difficult in the 1970s. Overall mountain development policy clashed with sectoral plans: the choices made for agriculture and tourism conflicted.

* 1970 - the "Snow Plan"

- basic assumptions: existence of 13,500 beds in ski resorts at the beginning of 1970 and an annual increase of 18,000 beds;
- the plan announced a doubling of the annual rate of increase so as to reach the figure of 365,000 new beds by 1980.

* Difficulties appeared simultaneously:

- Slump in property sales in 1970/71. Demand fell off owing to the burdens placed on property owners, which discouraged would-be purchases.
- Realisation that France no longer had a monopoly of large skiing areas (ie demand had been over-estimated and supply under-estimated).

The 1973 meeting of the Interministerial Committee on Regional Planning (CIAT) led to the drawing up of development plans for five mountain areas (Vosges, Jura, Northern Alps, Southern Alps and Pyrenees). These were the spatial elements of the policy on mountain areas, each being tailored to the needs of the particular mountain mass.

22.11.77 - Directive on mountain development comprising four themes:

- best land to be reserved on a priority basis for agricultural activity;
- buildings to be concentrated in towns;
- encouragement to be given to new facilities;
- strict protection to be given to high-altitude sites.

New Tourist Unit (UTN) procedure

The development and future of mountain areas are directly related to the growth of large urban areas at the foot of the mountains or large industrial centres in the valley bottoms, with which they form manpower catchment areas.

The end of the "white gold" myth.

Main criticisms levelled against the "Snow Plan"

- Outside operations without the participation of the local population who no longer have control over their municipality's land and derive no benefit from it.
 - . In addition, bitter reflections on the impact which tourism would have on mountain agriculture.
 - . Ski resorts have few economic repercussions: they benefit nearby urban areas more than the local environment.
 - . Ski resorts lead to reliance on a single activity : areas become more fragile.

- Very narrow, wealthy target group

Property market completely privatised.

- Architecturally

Care should be taken not to transport "cities to the mountains".

Changes needed:

- Widening of desired clientele.
 - Emphasis on the development of medium-altitude zones with heavy reliance on local economic operators.
 - Development of tourism in association with agriculture.
- * 1973-74 - overall reorientation of planning (CIAT, 1973)
- Nature conservation.
 - Development of agricultural and forestry activities.
 - Development of medium-altitude zones.
 - Control of land use.

2. Legislation of 9 January 1985 on the development and protection of mountain areas

* It has three main thrusts:

. DEVELOPMENT

of the mountain economy. This means encouraging the organisation and diversification of economic activities that enhance the local potential in order to preserve and create jobs and increase incomes;

- action to give mountain-dwellers greater access to public and private services in order to make life easier for them in what is often a harsh environment;
- action to enable mountain-dwellers to have their specific problems taken more fully into account in the various relevant bodies.

. FACILITIES

for greater numbers of holidaymakers. Faced with expanding leisure time, one must be able to respond to the increase in demand by diversifying leisure forms and increasing the stock of standardised accommodation; French mountains must also be made more competitive vis-à-vis their foreign competitors.

To translate these intentions into action it is necessary to:

- increase the borrowing facilities available to local authorities for the development of skiing areas;
- modernise the family hotel trade and rehabilitate buildings in order to increase accommodation capacities;
- incorporate resort and valley agreements into planning agreements between central government and local authorities.

. PROTECTION of the mountain heritage.

* It introduces 2 key elements in the development of mountain areas:

- . The National Council for Mountain Areas (Conseil National de la Montagne).
- . The Mountain Mass Committees (Comités de massifs).

The National Council for Mountain Areas

Composition:

Chaired by the Prime Minister, who is replaced by the Minister for Regional Planning.

It has 60 members representing:

- . Parliament
- . Chambers of Commerce
- . National organisations representing mountain areas
- . The mountain mass committees
- . The overseas départements (in which the Regional Council performs the functions normally assigned to the mountain mass committees in mainland France).

Its role:

It proposes:

- objectives in connection with the planning, development and protection of mountain areas, and the means of attaining them;
- procedural arrangements for co-ordinating government measures in mountain areas.

It is consulted:

- on special provisions relating to mountain areas for inclusion in the national plan;
- on the priorities and general conditions governing the allocation of interministerial funds (FIDAR and FIAM).

It is informed each year about government investment programmes in the various mountain masses.

This body enables mountain-dwellers to participate in a very practical and direct way in the formulation and application of mountain policy as decided on by the government.

It is the first time that a body of this kind has been set up in France, enabling elected representatives, professional bodies and voluntary associations to express their varying points of view on a spatial policy tailored to their specific problems.

The mountain mass committees

The mountain legislation introduces a new definition of mountain masses ("massifs" in French): they now consist of mountain areas in the strict sense, ie based on criteria relating to climate (snowfall), altitude and slopes, plus the areas immediately adjacent to them, with which they form a single geographical, economic and social unit.

- Mountain masses are defined as zones of "economic coherence". They are large manpower catchment areas.
- They are seven in number:
 - . Southern Alps
 - . Northern Alps
 - . Corsica
 - . Jura
 - . Massif Central
 - . Pyrenees
 - . Vosges

Composition

- Representatives of the regions, départements, local authorities or groups of local authorities concerned, which form the majority.
- Representatives of the Chambers of Agriculture, Commerce and Industry.
- Representatives of the National Parks and Regional Nature Parks.
- Representatives of relevant professional bodies and voluntary associations.

The members are appointed by the Prefect acting as co-ordinator for the mountain mass.

Their role

To define objectives and specify desirable measures for the development and protection of the mountain mass.

To assist the co-ordination of government measures, and especially the organisation of services.

To contribute to the formulation of special provisions relating to mountain areas for inclusion in regional plans.

They are consulted:

- on the allocation of interministerial funds: priorities, annual programme etc;
- on the formulation of town planning provisions relating specifically to the mountain mass;
- on the designation of New Tourist Units.

(These are tourist development operations:

- . on undeveloped land,
- . at a distance from existing built-up areas and facilities,
- . in existing resorts,

where projects exceed 8,000 m² in area or 15 million francs or where a ski-lift is replaced by one whose hourly capacity is three times greater.

Proposals for the designation of New Tourist Units are submitted by the mayor.

The Prefect acting as co-ordinator for the mountain mass gives permission for their designation after consulting the mountain mass committee's specialist sub-committee.)

- on the annual programmes for investment in the mountain mass by central government, the regions, the département and public institutions.
- on agricultural development programmes.

These bodies make it possible to:

1. adapt government measures to varying situations
by enabling the forces active in the mountain economy to initiate, improve and review specific development programmes (mountain masses).
 2. establish a dialogue between all the parties involved
in order to identify the issues of mountain planning and specify the areas in which action should be taken on a priority basis and how that action should be taken, eg:
 - adaptation of agriculture,
 - tourist development,
 - adaptation, redeployment or development of craft and industrial sectors.
 3. co-ordinate the action programmes carried out in the mountain masses by central government, the regions, the département and the municipalities, each within the limits of the powers vested in it as a result of the decentralisation process.
- The National Council for Mountain Areas and the mountain mass committees are therefore responsible for the implementation of specific legislative, regulatory, administrative and financial instruments.

THE COAST

Its characteristic features are:

- heavy tourist pressure,
- no control of land.

Its share of the tourist trade remains more or less identical during the summer holidays: about 50% of tourists go to the coast.

- Need to reflect on a pattern for the organisation of tourist development

Interministerial Missions were therefore set up by the Delegation for Regional Planning and Regional Action (Délégation à l'Aménagement du Territoire et à l'Action Régionale - DATAR).

The Interministerial Missions

- They are not new government departments, but a new form of administration.
- They are bodies which combine different government departments' resources and make full use of them.
- They are fairly lightweight structures (20 to 25 people) where their mode of operation is concerned.

- They co-ordinate all the parties involved in planning (big government departments, local and regional authorities and private enterprise).
- They guarantee a uniform approach, co-ordinate implementation, synchronise efforts and monitor the results.

Two examples:

- Languedoc-Roussillon,
- Aquitaine.

LANGUEDOC-ROUSSILLON

1. Historical and geographical context

France's Mediterranean coast represents one of the main areas of traditional summer tourism:

- Visitors mainly concentrated in particular locations (Palavas, Narbonne, Carnon etc).
- Chaotic tourist development without any urban development plan or land policy, make it necessary to control the use of the natural environment for tourist development purposes.
- In addition to this, there are the particular characteristics of the Languedoc coast:
 - . a hostile, inhospitable, insalubrious and marshy coast,
 - . no attractive hinterland.
- The national and European context of the time
 - . As in the case of the Côte d'Azur, the climate is this coast's appeal: people come there for the sea and the sun.
 - . its development enabled the capacity of the Côte d'Azur to be increased;
 - . the proximity of Spain justified an attempt to keep on this side of the Pyrenees tourists who would be inclined to spend their holiday on the other side.

2. The Interministerial Mission for the Tourist Development of the Languedoc-Roussillon Coast, established by Decree of 18.6.83

The main principles of the mode of development chosen are:

- * A sense of purpose: there was a real political will behind it. It was the first new life into a region which had grown old in an economy based on a declining agricultural sector (wine), a region without modern industry.

- * Planning: it was thoroughly planned from the start.

Overall development plan (taking account of all the region's characteristics and designed to ensure that not only tourists but also the permanent population derived benefit from the operation).

Overall urban development plan covering a coastal strip 180 km long and 20 km wide. It defined: areas designated for urban development (six tourist units in which the whole range of amenities and entertainments necessary for tourism and holidays would be provided, either from scratch or by way of improvements to existing facilities:

- interstitial areas not designated for urban development,
- fragile areas requiring protection.

This was the beginning of nature conservation policy in France.

- * Integration: close co-operation between central government, the local authorities and private enterprise.

Central government

(represented by the Interministerial Mission)

- . The development strategy.
- . Provision of basic infrastructure.
- . Permanent monitoring of the project's implementation.
- Control of the project's progress
 - . With regard to land: the State bought underdeveloped land in order to be able to resell it, after fitting it out, at a price covering only the cost of the works, the aim being to prevent all land speculation.

These prices serve as a guide for future purchases of essential land.

To protect these prices, the Mission had areas designated as "Deferred Development Zones" (ZAD), ie areas in which the State may exercise a right of pre-emption on all property transactions.
 - . With regard to nature conservation: the State was responsible for all reforestation (the region had been completely deforested), the elimination of mosquitos and the setting up of a system for locating underground water resources.
- The local authorities (ie the 4 départements (Gard, Hérault, Aude and Pyrénées Orientales) and the municipalities concerned).
 - . The municipalities and central government entrusted the administrative work to a joint public and private association (Société d'économie mixte - SEM) representing the département (ie the local assemblies and the General Council, which is the elected council of the département). The municipalities and the départements hold a majority in these associations, which are awarded the concession for the development of new resorts (fitting out of land granted by the State, sale to the developer, attention to overall harmony etc).

Under the terms of this concession, the Mission exercises supervision at various stages (preliminary plan, signing of contracts, sale to developers).

Thus, from the very start, each new resort formed the subject of an urban development plan approved by the Mission and entrusted to a chief architect whose relations with the Mission were very close and who was under contract to the State.

This chief architect:

- represented the Mission,
- sought its approval of the urban development plan for the resort, ie the allocation of space to hotel accommodation, second homes, holiday centres, green areas, public facilities etc,
- saw to the application of the rules laid down for the municipality as a whole.

The private sector

- . Contracts for and carries out all building work (except in the case of administrative buildings).
 - . Before building, it must obtain the chief architect's prior approval with regard to overall harmony.
- Each resort has a distinctive appearance.

*

* *

Seven new resorts were built in this way (another is planned at the mouth of the River Aude).

Northern section

- Port Camargue (Gard)
- La Grande Motte
- Cap d'Agde (Hérault)
- Carnon

Southern section

- Gruissan
- Port Leucate (Aude)
- Port Barcarès (Pyrénées Orientales)

3. The main results of the Languedoc Mission

Cf macro-economic study carried out by the University of Paris X - Nanterre (Raymond COURBIS) on the economic impact of the development of Languedoc-Roussillon not only on the region but also on the national economy.

a. Total investment of some 12,000 million francs (current value): (1/4 central government + local authorities, about 3/4 by the private sector, the building industry, the tourist industry etc).

b. Turnover in the three summer months: about 5,000 million francs (not even 400 million francs about 20 years earlier), ie more than the region's agricultural income.

c. Number of visitors:

1965 - 525,000 tourists

1985 - 5 million tourists (4 million along the coast, one million in the hinterland)

About 20% of these were foreign tourists (50% of these being Germans; the remainder from the Netherlands, Switzerland, the United Kingdom etc).

- The Languedoc coast has become increasingly European.

d. Infrastructure

- An extensive road network has been built to link the new resorts with the national road and motorway network.

- 14 yachting harbours have been built.

- Several thousand hectares have been reafforested.

- Most natural sites have been designated as protected areas.

e. Economy

- Increase of about 15% in the region's gross domestic production.

- Increase in non-agricultural employment, offering openings in the region to those leaving agriculture.

- Creation of new economic activities in the region.

5. Further developments

- The Mission ceased to function on 31.12.82.

- It was succeeded in 1983 by a Joint Tourist Development Board, a decentralised body on which the region and General Councils are represented.

AQUITAINE

1. Historical and geographical context

This is another traditional regional tourist area with two main focal points:

- BIARRITZ in the Basque Country, which was made popular by the Empress Eugénie during the Second Empire;
- ARCACHON, a traditional holiday resort for people from Bordeaux.

Since the end of the second world war, annual spontaneous growth in tourist demand was about 5%, giving rise to disorderly land use in a fragile environment.

Unlike Languedoc-Roussillon, Aquitaine does not present an inhospitable or even hostile environment: there are towns all along the coast, backing on to a hinterland consisting of the vast pine forest of the Landes (the largest pine forest in Europe; it is completely man-made, having been planted at the end of the 18th century on the King's orders for the purpose of fixing the soil).

The natural environment is, however, extremely fragile: a coastline consisting of sand dunes, which is constantly at the mercy of the tides, forest and a chain of lakes parallel to the coast.

No land protection measures had been taken: property developers looked upon Aquitaine in terms of the sea and lakes, disregarding the most elementary environmental precautions.

Consequently, the important thing here is to protect this rare high-quality environment and control its tourist development to prevent the uncontrolled sprawl of new buildings, which would represent a real danger to it.

Lastly in this connection, the impetus for the development of the Aquitaine coast came from the then Prime Minister, Jacques CHABAN-DELMAS, Mayor of Bordeaux.

2. The Interministerial Mission for the Development of the Aquitaine Coast (MIACA)

- Established by Decree of 20.10.1967 on the model of the Languedoc Mission.
- Having no particular resources in the first few years, it confined itself mainly to research. Its only lasting action was the establishment of the "Landes de Gascogne" Regional Nature Park.
- It did not really start work until 1970, in accordance with the wishes of Prime Minister Jacques CHABAN-DELMAS, when funds were specifically allocated to it in the budget.

- General principles underlying the development of the Aquitaine coast

1. Vigorous nature conservation policy

- * Concentration of tourist accommodation in the nine main development units (UPA).

Each unit comes under the authority of a chief architect appointed and paid by the MIACA, who is responsible for monitoring public and private projects from the point of view of town planning and architectural quality.

They are separated by seven large "natural equilibrium zones" (SEN), where no major facilities are planned.

- * Implementation of a systematic sanitary engineering programme to enable Aquitaine to cope with a large influx of tourists.

Cf in 1970:

- Only two or three municipalities had a sewage plant.
- Supplies of drinking water to the coastal zones were in danger of being cut off in peak periods.
- The road network was inadequate and the beaches were not cleaned.

- * Establishment of nature reserves.

- * Establishment of a "Committee for the Environment of the Aquitaine Coast" (CECA), composed of national and regional experts, to consider all projects, contribute to their preparation and provide the Mission with guidance in its nature conservation policy.

2. Policy of development in depth linking the three components of the Aquitaine landscape: sea, forest and lakes, and having only narrow windows on to the shore (development perpendicular to the coast and only in coastal resorts).

3. Grafting of all new development projects on to existing areas of urban development, whose structure and quality should be improved to bring them into line with the better quality of the added elements and make it easier for the mayors and local authorities to exercise their responsibilities.

4. Active urban planning (drawing up of master plans and municipal land-use plans) in keeping with approved development plans.

5. An active land policy.

In order to exercise real land control, the Mission had 190,000 hectares designated as provisional Deferred Development Zones in 1970.

As soon as the development plans were approved (1972 and 1974), these areas were reduced in size so that only the land necessary for the implementation of the plans was kept:

- implementation of development projects,
- building up of a stock of land to exchange with the State (Ministry of Agriculture) for land needed for the implementation of projects in State-owned forests,
- protection of vulnerable natural environments,
- normal extension of built-up areas provided for in municipal land-use plans.

The Deferred Development Zones (December 1974) had a total area of 40,000 ha, consisting mostly of conservation areas.

The départements were the main beneficiaries of the right of pre-emption in these zones.

→ This policy enabled about 1,300 ha to be acquired for 58 million francs. Having been purchased either by the State (provisional Deferred Development Zones) or by the départements or municipalities (Deferred Development Zones), this land was then transferred to the final owner according to the purpose for which it had been designated:

- development projects: municipalities, associations of municipalities or joint public/private associations;
- protected zones: public property belonging to the State (coastal zones) or the départements (vulnerable areas);
- stocks of land for exchange purposes: public property belonging to the départements.

In the départements of Gironde and the Landes, the Deferred Development Zones lapsed in December 1984. In order to continue the land policy that had been introduced, the State and the départements set about defining objectives and the means of attaining them:

- pre-emption zones for the départements in the form of new Deferred Development Zones in the perimeters of development projects,
- pre-emption for the départements to build up stocks for exchange purposes.

Since January 1985, the départements and municipalities have been carrying on this policy on the basis of their new powers.

Aims:

→ To project a specific image of tourism in Aquitaine based on the following ideas: nature, wide open spaces, freedom, variety, a unique combination of sea, forest and lakes, and a hinterland outstanding in

terms of its history and way of life.

→ The people of Aquitaine control their tourist development.

Everywhere, elected representatives are project sponsors (municipalities, associations of municipalities, joint public/private associations) and are fully and directly responsible for them.

The Mission plays a stimulating and co-ordinating role and channels central government funds.

- Regional professional bodies are involved in projects (local "sociétés d'économie mixte", regional federations of the building industry, regional council housing authorities).

→ To make tourist development a key asset of the regional economy.

- Projects are carried out in the form of "Concerted Development Zones" (ZAC) complying with a development plan and regulations within the framework of a budget and a timetable for the construction of public facilities.

Investments outside the Concerted Development Zones and the initial investments in them were partly financed by the ground rent which the developers were asked to pay and by contributions from central government and the local and regional authorities.

3. Main results of the Aquitaine Mission

Financial results: investment totalling 615.5 million francs from 1970 to 1986.

New accommodation: since 1970, about 200,000 new beds have been provided for tourists, a quarter of which are accounted for by the main development projects.

Camp-site capacity has doubled and over 10,000 beds have been provided in holiday villages.

Land

The mission has participated in the drawing up of 93 municipal land-use plans and seven master development and town planning schemes.

The economy

Special surveys carried out in the Concerted Development Zones show a ratio of 1:10 between government grants and private investment. We may add to this the subsequent expenditure on maintenance of the housing and other structures built.

Indirect benefits from the increase in the number of tourists.

4. Further developments

Despite the introduction of decentralisation legislation, the Regional Council has been anxious to continue the coast's development in accordance with the plans.

The transfer of powers to the départements and municipalities does not present a problem in Aquitaine because, as early as 1970, the Mission laid down as one of its principles the need for the local authorities to play a part in initiating the development schemes in which they now act systematically as building sponsors.

The Mission continues to operate. Five regional representatives have been added to its administrative board.

Discussion:

Mr Al (Netherlands) doubted if there was really a shortage of land. He presented as an example his country, the Netherlands. He explained how politicians tried to transfer industry to a part of the country that was losing its economic function and population. This turned out to be a failure because people didn't want to go to live there. He concluded by saying that politicians should not try to force industry to other parts of the country.

Mr Al carried on by mentioning the example of Mexico city where 85% of all industry is concentrated on 2,000 square kilometres for that reason. Leaving it up to the market might have disastrous consequences.

The Netherlands had enough amount of land for industrial sites but half of it was badly located. Amsterdam, for instance, has a shortage of land whereas other towns dispose of too much which would be linked with difficulties paying rents for territories not being used.

According to these examples he was wondering whether national planning should intervene or not. Mr Al further stressed the importance of a decentralised system. He spoke finally of the possibility of setting down industry in former industrial areas exploited by public-private partnership.

Mr Karayalçin (Turkey) disagreed with Mr Svensson; the real problem was not scarcity of land to be settled but the costs of the settlement for the community.

In Turkey due to a predicted population growth, urban housing demand will increase. Despite legal attempts of the Turkish Government to solve the housing problem, Turkey is still facing a serious financial problem in the housing sector.

He stated that the need for urban land in large cities would not be reduced by taking measures directed to decreasing demand as alleged by Mr Svensson. Reallocation of public institutions from urban centres to peripheries would only be reasonable in centralised countries with developed telecommunication systems, whereas countries in the process of industrialisation are still facing difficulties to get centralised.

He pointed out that the proposals made by Mr Svensson about increasing vertical settled densities could not be an effective solution for the problem.

The Turkish participant urged the necessity of an urban land reform which might solve the increasing land demand and which would contribute to the elimination of problems related to urbanisation.

Mr Baschung (Chairman, Switzerland) underlined the importance of a spatial planning policy working as an overall policy that should co-ordinate various kinds of measures.

Mr Svensson (Sweden) commented on the Turkish intervention. He alleged that there would be an increase of land needs despite smaller economic growth. The states should learn from each other when predicting the future by referring to Sweden where a population forecast went wrong 20 years ago. The population grew more rapidly than at present.

Moving out industry without infrastructure would result in a failure. Moreover he stressed that decentralisation would be possible but difficult to achieve because of secondary effects.

Mr Atalik (Turkey) agreed with Mr Svensson as far as his suggestion of an urban land reform is concerned. Western countries had achieved the highest level of economic growth and only recently problems related to ecology and environment had provoked great concern. He pointed out that on the one hand Turkey as a developing country should aim at eliminating regional disparities, on the other hand it should aim at increasing the national income and for that reason it would be important to formulate a strategy to realise these competing aims. At this point the importance of regional planning would be obvious and interdisciplinary methods should be used. He also stressed the importance of defining the way in which the public should participate since changes in behaviours often do take a long time.

According to a theory, strategies for various stages of economic growth could be defined to form the basis for land use decisions in Turkey.

He summarised by saying that urban land use reform had specific features in each country. Therefore it would be impossible to formulate a uniform European definition of land reform.

Mr Fiorelli (Italy) spoke about a necessary integration of the quantitative and qualitative aspects of space.

Mr Svensson (Sweden) considered it important that the national level should help backward regions to develop by locating people with a higher education background, offering loans and favourable grants in order to increase their production. Additionally the international level should provide adequate places for people to live there. In the framework of a Swedish planning policy, companies were attracted by highly qualified people from the countryside to establish industries in their rural areas.

5. Contribution from Mr David BALL
(Department of Environment, United Kingdom)

LAND USE POLICIES IN THE HOUSING SECTOR

Introduction

1. This paper is loosely based on the United Kingdom's background report which considered basic principles illustrated by the UK case. We propose, here, first to outline, with additional data, the UK's situation, trends and policies in the conflict between the need to provide land for housing and the need to protect land from building and other development; and, secondly, to attempt to draw out principles and key points which are likely to be of common concern.

The United Kingdom Case

Land Use

2. About half of the total land area of the UK -240,000km² - is farmland and permanent grass, another third is used for rough grazing and a tenth is woodland. These proportions hardly changed between 1971 and 1981.

3. "Urban land" increased in area by 7%, from 8.0% to 8.5% of the UK land area. Over the same period the average annual transfer of farmland to urban uses declined from 15 million hectares in the first half of the 1970s to 9mn in 1975-80. It continued to decline, to an annual average of under 5mn ha in 1981-1985.

4. "Urban land" here includes not only cities and towns but also villages, isolated dwellings and farmsteads and all transport land. About half of this total area, or just over a million hectares, is thought to be occupied by housing.

Population

5. The total population of the UK increased from roughly 53mn in 1961 to 56.6mn in 1985; the average annual growth rate declining from 0.5% in 1961/71 to 0.1% in 1971/81 and in 1981/85. The total is projected to grow by about 4% to 59mn by 2001. The urban population, for which precise data are not available, is thought to have declined from a peak of about 80% in the 1960s to about 75% in the early 1980s.

Households

6. In Great Britain, containing about 97% of the UK population, households have declined significantly in average size and therefore increased in number nearly five times faster than UK population between 1961 and 1985, and 20 times as fast as population between 1981 and 1985. In England and Wales (88% UK population), with stabilising household size at around 2.5 persons, average household formation rate is projected to 2001 at about 2.3 times the rate of population increase, giving an increase of 1.7mn in the number of households compared with 1.1mn increase in population.

National Housing Land Requirement

7. If we assume an average of one household per dwelling, an average density of 25 dwellings per hectare and no increase in existing densities, England and Wales will require a net increase of 1.7mn dwellings on about 68,000 ha - an average of about 4,800 ha per annum. (The total area of 68,000 compares with some 40,000 ha of unused or under-used publicly owned land in England so far placed on the register introduced by the Government in 1981).

8. These figures provide some sort of broad indication of national housing land requirements for the rest of the century. But dwellings are required locally and local requirements have little to do with the national situation.

Regional Variations in Demand

9. By way of illustration, the 2.7% increase in the UK dwelling stock between 1982 and 1985 (to 22.42mm) concealed regional increases ranging from 1.0% in the West Midlands to 5.3% in East Anglia.

10. Variations in local and regional demand for housing land depend partly on variations in natural population increase (which varies according to age structure and other factors) an in-household size and rates of formation. But migration is normally a stronger element. Net natural population increase in the UK in 1984/85 (0.15%) ranged regionally from minus 0.05% to 0.79%. Net migration (UK 0.13%) ranging considerably more widely, from minus 0.31% to 1.19%.

Socio-Economic Causes of Migration

11. Although North Sea Oil and developments in electronics industry in the 1970s brought relative prosperity to North East and Central Scotland, nevertheless the long established "drift to the South" of capital, jobs and people, due to economic restructuring and shifts in world trade, has continued: the population tends to migrate from the less to the more prosperous parts of the country, particularly families of working age. Retired people tend to move to warmer places in attractive rural and coastal areas and this partly accounts for the data for South West England - negative natural increase and high immigration.

12. Modern, particularly high technology, industry is also increasingly attracted by high quality environments, partly following residential preferences of the generally highly-paid workforce. Within sub-regions, or even regions, there is considerable flexibility in the spatial relationship between home and work. There is also a growing tendency, loosely called "de-urbanisation", for jobs and families to move out of the conurbations to small towns in their rural hinterlands.

13. All these trends complicate the issue but, generally, housing demand varies spatially and through time with economic prosperity.

Housing Land Supply

14. On the supply side of the housing land market, topographical and climatic constraints are of little general significance since they are found generally within the areas of low housing demand. The more common constraints are of a statutory and political nature: they have been and are being imposed by Acts of Parliament and government and local authority policies in recognition of the importance of the "conservation" side of the development/conservation equation which we are discussing. They take the form, partly, of defined areas of land in which building and other development is permitted only in very special circumstances and partly by day-to-day "development control". These constraints and others built into or related to the town and country planning system are discussed below.

Housing Land Price

15. Dwelling prices throughout the country - the resultant of these forces of demand and supply - illustrate the concentration of housing pressure on South East England, particularly to the West and South West of London. Prices are also relatively high, reflecting the economic trends already mentioned, in East Anglia and South West England.

16. Consequent prices in housing land in the English regions (excluding London) and Wales, and trends between 1984 and 1987 emphasise the point. The South East England average price of bulk land, ie., excluding small sites and sites for flats, was just under twice the England and Wales average in 1984 and just over twice the average in April 1987, having increased by 12% in three years, cf., 100% in England and Wales.

17. South West England's average price remained just above the England and Wales average throughout the period, but the highest rise was recorded in East Anglia - from 84% to 150% of the England and Wales average: an increase over three years of 283%. By contrast, West Midlands, which has suffered from recession in the motor car and related industries in recent years, saw its average relative price of housing land fall from just under 90% to 60% of the England and Wales average (with an actual increase of only 26%). All other regions also experienced relative decline.

18. Within London (not included in the above data), housing land supply is severely restricted by physical rather than by policy constraints. In outer London, average prices of housing land rose from 3.7 times to 4.2 times the England and Wales average (excluding London) between 1984 and 1987. In inner London over the same period average prices rose from over 5 to over 10 times the average for England and Wales, reaching £4.1mn per hectare.

Housing Land: Shortage

19. The demand for housing land, however it is measured and fuelled, clearly exceeds effective supply most significantly in the London area. Without effective public control over private development of the land there is little doubt that prices would not have reached these high comparative levels, because housing land would be readily available and London would have spread all over what is now the Green Belt.

Town and Country Planning

20. Pre-war proposals for a Green Belt to prevent the spread of London were frustrated by the inability of the planning system to control development, this proving too expensive in terms of compensation payable by local authorities for the removal of private development rights. The key to the success of the post-war planning system was the acquisition by the state of most of such rights.

21. From 1 July 1948 when the Town and Country Planning Act 1947 came into force it was - and is - necessary in most cases to obtain planning permission, normally from the local authority, to "develop" the land, that is to say to build on it or to carry out engineering or other works or make "material change" in the use of the land. Certain operations including most agricultural activities do not constitute development and some specified development has "deemed consent". The local planning authority in considering an application for planning permission was required by the Act, and is so required under its latest successor, the Town and Country Planning Act 1971 (as amended), to "have regard to" the development plan for the area and to "any other material considerations" - including, for example, relevant published government policies.

22. The Green Belts around London and 14 other English cities and towns have been established since the early 1950s by successive county development plans approved by central government. Areas of Outstanding Natural Beauty (AONBs) and other areas of land defined for special protection, for environmental or ecological reasons, have been similarly established. Some of these, for example national nature reserves and national parks, were established under other statutes. But the instrument for protecting all of them from development is "development control" exercised by local authorities under the Town and Country Planning Act.

23. In South East England over 60% of all land outside urban areas is covered by Green Belt, AONBs and other specially-protected areas in which development is not normally permitted. But development outside such areas is also carefully controlled by the relevant local planning authority according to development and conservation policies indicated in the structure plan and sometimes defined in (optional) local plans for particular areas.

24. The post-war policy for the physical containment by the Green Belt was complemented by the planned decentralisation or diversion of people and jobs to a ring of New Towns beyond the Green Belt and this strategy proved to be highly successful. It was increasingly aided by market forces of dispersal, and the "de-urbanisation" phenomenon already mentioned has become well established - with mixed effects. While many people and firms are enabled to settle in pleasant semi-rural locations and avoid the economic and social costs of congestion at the centre, such dispersal has two adverse consequences. First, it tends to leave behind in the poorest parts of the city those lacking the resources, particularly skills, required in the new industries. Thus parts of the city become characterised by a declining socio-economic and physical environment. Secondly, the "reception areas" outside the city are subjected to increasing development pressures which, as we have noted, are reflected in housing land prices for example, particularly to the west and south-west of London. These are areas with easy access to the national motorway system, to central London, to Heathrow and the other London airports, to seaports, universities and all other facilities. These are also areas of very high environmental quality whose protection is of great importance. National well-being depends not only on economic development and technological advance, but also on the conservation of the land and the soil, the natural and man-made heritage.

Policies to Overcome the Conflict

25. Housing and other development pressures around London may, in theory, be reduced in two ways: by transferring it to other parts of the country under so-called regional policies and by more intensive development of available sites within London.

26. "Regional policies" supplemented by various urban initiatives designed to attract industry to the less prosperous areas have been pursued for several decades. Significant successes have been recorded in the areas in question but with no obvious impact on development pressures in the South East.

27. Various initiatives and programmes have been introduced to encourage housing and other development within the built-up area of London and other cities and towns. Notable among these are the derelict land grants and the register of publicly owned under-used land, to assist developers in identifying sites and encouraging their development. Intensification of the use of housing land has been generally confined to the development of "infill" sites. Housing densities within London are, in fact, tending to decline, partly as a reaction to social tensions and declining environmental conditions associated with high-rise and other mass housing for local authority tenants in the 1950s and '60s, and partly because of a general demand for greater living space.

28. Nevertheless, local planning authorities in the South East, as in the rest of the country, are advised by central government to confine new housing development, as far as possible, to infilling and carefully planned extensions to existing urban areas; and to select such areas in consultation with the house-building industry to ensure that housing land allocation accords, as far as possible, with demand. They have been asked, also, to ensure that a 2-years' supply of land suitable for housing development is always available. In view of Europe's increasing food surpluses, recent government guidance to local planning authorities pointed out that, while they must continue to consider the special importance of preserving the best and most versatile agricultural land they must also take into account the importance of healthy rural economy and the protection of the countryside. The Government has re-emphasised, at the same time, its determination that the green belt shall be preserved.

29. A recent study of housing sites being developed in South East England showed that 18 % of "housing starts" were on land formerly in residential/garden use, 21 % were previously vacant or derelict urban sites and 8 % had been in industrial use. Less than a third of the land being developed for housing was formerly in agricultural use. On the other hand, a small proportion of all "starts" in the study period was on sites protected by various measures of special restraint and local plans were found, typically, to identify less than half of the housing starts within a local authority area. This could be said to reflect the flexible nature of the British planning system in which local plans, as already noted, are optional and structure plans are not "site specific". The emphasis is on individual development control which requires that each planning application be carefully examined in connection with general and particular policies for the area and that all "material considerations" as well as the provisions of the development plan must be taken into account by the local planning authority before making its decision.

30. Nevertheless, some weaknesses in the present development planning system, including unnecessarily lengthy procedures of preparation and approval, have been identified and, following public consultation, the Government is considering a major revision of the form and content of the development plan and procedures for its preparation and adoption. Under the proposed system, structure plans would be abolished and replaced with a simplified system of guidance to the district councils which would be required to prepare and adopt local plans covering the whole of their districts.

Principles, instruments and policies

31. The UK's experience of the conflict between the needs of housing development and land conservation suggests a number of common principles :

31.1 People choose where to live according to their own personal and family circumstances.

31.2 Three of the main criteria are :

- a) cost of travel to work, school, shops, recreational and other facilities ;
- b) a congenial environment ;
- c) price of dwelling (to buy or rent) ;

31.3 These factors are weighted differently by different individuals/households/families and in different places, and the cumulative effect is the demand for houses in various price bands in various locations.

31.4 Housing demand in any area is often determined more by migration than by the natural increase of population and rate of household formation and generally varies with regional and sub-regional economic prosperity.

31.5 Calculations of housing need in any area - in the public as well as in the private housing sector - should be based not only on demographic and economic projections but also on a knowledge of the local market.

31.6 The need for and allocation of housing land cannot be considered in isolation from the distribution of all land uses.

31.7 Government intervention in the land development market should take the form primarily of a land-use planning system which requires local authorities to regulate the development/conservation of the land in accordance with long-term spatial and sectoral policies.

31.8 Such a system should be uniformly applied within a statutory framework, which should :

- a) require adequate investigation and consultation during the formulation of policies in order to ensure that objectives are generally accepted and capable of achievement, having regard to local (and other) requirements, opportunities, resources and other constraints, and national and regional spatial and sectoral policies ; and
- b) provide the statutory means of guiding and controlling development of the land in order to reconcile, inter alia, the needs of development and land conservation.

31.9 A planning system must contain practical and just means of curtailing private development rights in the public interest, either by :

- a) public acquisition, once and for all, of some or all of individual property development rights ; or
- b) payment of compensation for loss of property value as a result of curtailment of those rights when such curtailment occurs.

31.10 The system should include provision for transferring to the "public domain" a proportion of private property benefits arising directly from public development or concession, either by :

- a) taxation of such "betterment" ; or
- b) voluntary agreement between a private developer and a public authority, eg, that the developer will provide public facilities as part of his development scheme.

31.11 Means should be provided to discourage speculative land withholding either by public individuals/companies or by public bodies, eg, taxation of under-developed, privately-owned land ; publication of information on undeveloped publicly-owned land - to reduce development pressure on other land.

31.12 The essential nature of a land use planning system would seem to be determined by :

- a) territorial coverage of :
 - (i) the system - the whole country/region or defined areas ;
 - (ii) the plan - region, county, district, municipality, urban areas, etc ;
- b) the statutory authority of the plan itself control development which ranges, in theory, from :
 - (i) totally prescriptive (stating within close limits the form, nature and intensity of development permitted on each parcel of land ; to
 - (ii) purely advisory (guiding the planning authority's statutory decision on each development project) ;
- c) whether control of the development of the land is distinct, in concept, in law and practice , from control of building construction.

31.13 Housing land demand in areas of high "land conservation value" might be reduced by :

- a) "regional policies (which might be allied to, rather than part of, the land use planning system), which aim to attract capital investment, jobs and people to poorer regions (through, for example, financial and/or fiscal incentives) ;

- b) "urbanisation policies" which encourage housing and other development in existing urban areas, by means of (for example) :
- (i) publicising available urban sites ;
 - (ii) financial/fiscal incentives ;
 - (iii) administrative incentives (eg, simplified planning procedures) ;
 - (iv) intensification of use (ie, increased urban housing densities).

Conclusions

32. These would seem to be some of the more important principles underlying the rationalisation of the use of land through the reconciliation of the need to provide space for housing and the need to protect land from development. They are derived largely from British experience of the development and operation of the town and country planning system in England and Wales. Some delegations, from their own experience, may disagree with some or all of them and prefer an entirely different approach. Such an outcome should stimulate discussion and enable us to learn from each other.

6. Contribution from Mr J M NUNES LIBERATO
State Secretary for Regional Planning (Portugal),
Chairman of the 5th European Ministerial Conference on the Environment
(Lisbon, 11-13 June 1987)

ON LAND POLICIES AND ENVIRONMENTAL CONSIDERATIONS

1. Regional planning, as the spatial expression of economic, social and cultural policies and the protection of society's environmental components, is at one and the same time a policy, a scientific discipline and an administrative technique conceived as an overall interdisciplinary approach to the balanced development and physical organisation of space.

Regional planning necessarily involves an exhaustive and up-to-date knowledge of all activities relevant to space and the ability of each piece of space to accommodate those activities.

This knowledge, which is not possible unless new information technology is used, will enable spatial organisation to be achieved through the process of optimised distribution of activities and population, major transport routes and public facilities.

What can be expressed in a few short sentences becomes extremely complex in practice. This complexity is becoming even greater because the establishment of correspondences between activities and space is situated on several levels, and there are numerous operators at each level.

Thus, what is perhaps more important than the introduction of new instruments of action is the working out of a philosophy and the definition of a legal framework which is clear, straightforward, objective and easy to implement and which land-use policies must reflect.

Stating regional planning's fundamental objectives is not as important as increasing the awareness of the public and private bodies which contribute to the development or re-organisation of space or mobilising them so that, in their routine work, at their particular level of decision-making, they will contribute to more appropriate regional planning: to what extent does a decision to accept a particular public or private project endanger the preservation of natural and environmental resources or contribute to the balance or imbalance of the transport network, and to what extent does a public or private project create jobs or, on the other hand, jeopardise the potentialities which should be taken into consideration?

From what we have just said, however, regional planning is necessarily very closely related to urban planning and regional development. It is no longer possible today to control the expansion of a city within that same city and, to plan the region by defining it in terms of the urban system on which it will be based.

Urban and regional planning share a common objective - the organisation of space; but the change of scale involves a total change in the problems involved and the methods used.

The framework for urban planning (objectives relating to employment, complementarity and links between centres) is normally provided by the policies adopted at the regional planning level.

The drawing power of the major centres is not the only driving force to produce population movements; one must also take into consideration the repellent effects of declining regions without a capital. Hence, only a concerted policy to stimulate the creation of small and medium-sized centres can slow down the inordinate expansion of the major centres.

The balance between rural and urban areas has always been the basis for their progress. When cities develop without the prosperity of the countryside which supports them matching their growth, that is undoubtedly something harmful and sooner or later a high price will have to be paid for the errors committed.

The progress achieved recently in agricultural productivity will make it possible to concentrate farms on the best land; this will raise further questions since the way in which the land is worked may prove to be ruinous, leading in the medium or long term to the depletion of a resource. It must not be forgotten that all natural systems are above all "systems" in which each element exerts an influence on all the others and that the internal balance is more precarious than it seems.

But regional planning must comply with clearly defined rules. It is not enough to organise space: its balance must be guaranteed. And this balance which we want to see established presupposes balance in the ecosystems making up the biosphere.

The escalation of man's impact on the environment as a result of population growth, economic growth and an uncontrolled increase in the consumption of non-renewable resources has triggered a crisis which first of all affected the centres with a high concentration of industrial and urban activities, but is already spreading to wide rural and natural areas.

Limited resources, the vulnerability of many of our agricultural and aquatic ecosystems, excessively mountainous terrain and infertile soils, as well as calling for a great research effort in this field, justify close links with regional planning in order to be able to influence it in the taking of all decisions.

2. My country possesses a set of provisions whose purpose is to preserve essential environmental resources. Portugal has more of its coast classified as public state property than any other country in Europe.

Generally speaking, Portuguese legislation classifies as public state property the entire area between the outer limit of territorial waters and at least a line 50 metres from the maximum high water mark (equinoctial spring tides). In the case of beaches, public state property ends where the beach ends.

In theory, the Portuguese situation permits greater control of the use of coastal land, meaning in practice a much greater effort to manage and supervise the large expanse of public state property.

With regard to the biological balance and the preservation of economic, social and cultural resources, the National Ecological Reserve was set up in 1983 to protect the areas essential to the ecological stability of the environment; these areas comprise coastal and riverside zones in which there are situations of interface between adjoining but distinct ecosystems. The sources of rivers, areas where the seepage of groundwater is greatest and areas subject to erosion, particularly cliffs, are also part of the National Ecological Reserve.

The soil, on the other hand, is a resource of fundamental importance for the life and well-being of the population and for the country's economic independence, principally because it is the basis for agricultural and, in particular, food production. In Portugal, these areas account for no more than 12% of the total.

Rapid population growth in the areas in which the soil is very fertile was the reason for the adoption of measures for the protection of agricultural land in 1979. These measures resulted in the setting up of the National Agricultural Reserve: all activities likely to reduce or destroy the potential of agricultural land are prohibited unless the national interest is at stake.

A major boost was given to tree planting in Portugal at the beginning of the 20th century. One aim was to create timber resources, but there was also a fundamental concern to regularise the flow of watercourses, protect plains bordering on streams, enhance the value of dry, infertile plains and improve the climate. Further aims of re-forestation schemes are to secure the soil on mountain-sides and the sand along the coast.

A new re-forestation scheme has been launched, and areas have been marked out and planted with trees. These areas now cover a total of about 400,000 hectares, about 250,000 of which have already been planted with trees. The difference between the two figures is accounted for by areas which cannot be planted with trees owing to unfavourable soil conditions and areas that have burnt down.

In addition to this re-forestation policy introduced for the above-mentioned purposes, some varieties of tree, such as the cork-oak, are protected for economic or environmental reasons. Portugal is extremely important on the cork market, having over 50% of world production.

Environmental considerations are also behind the 1977 designation of holm-oak groves, or "montados", as protected areas. These "montados" are confined to areas where the soil has already been damaged, where Mediterranean climatic influences predominate and where the felling of holm-oaks would lead to undesirable changes in the climate near the ground, contributing to the semi-aridity of an already difficult environment.

In Portugal, as in other countries, regional planning is an instrument to be used with care, one that contributes to the implementation of policies. One must be careful not only because all the instruments which affect the social fabric require particular care, since they interfere in the life of that complex element, man, but also because it is believed that planning cannot be imposed, by way of a strict plan, against the inalienable rights and freedoms which form the basis of our society. And also because we know that social complexity creates gaps and discrepancies between the theoretical lines worked out and the effects of their application.

In our opinion, planning must be gradual, relying on the active participation of those concerned (the population) and their representatives and on the involvement of various operators; it must proceed from the grassroots since man must always be the master of his destiny. The state must be the driving force, the co-ordinator, that which lays down the rules and proposes policies.

We believe in planning as a useful instrument for resolving the contradiction we have just mentioned. We know, however, that contradiction is in itself the key to social development. When some contradictions are resolved, others appear.

3. These topics were discussed at the 5th European Ministerial Conference on the Environment, to which we were privileged to play host in Lisbon, which acknowledged the need to provide rural areas with economic and technical assistance so as to enable studies to be made of the impact of projects liable to affect the natural or cultural heritage.

It was recommended that governments and, within the limits of their powers, local and regional authorities preserve, improve and even restore the natural heritage in areas of intensive farming so as to ensure that ecological processes function properly and that biological diversity is thus maintained.

Environmental and economic factors should be taken into account in the development of agriculture and the regional distribution of woodland should be preserved.

Permanent monitoring should be established with a view to the prompt detection of any sort of impact on agriculture or forestry, and special attention should be given to air and water pollution, soil contamination, forest fires, the installation of heavy industry and infrastructures and the spread of housing.

The Conference recommended that governments develop rural tourism, taking advantage of the built heritage and involving local residents in this development.

Encouragement should be given to the appropriate use of local renewable energy sources in the interests both of the economy and of local communities.

The environmental aspect should be taken into account in decision-making on transport and communication routes in agreement with the various authorities concerned.

In land-use plans, areas designated for housing should be occupied first of all before any further encroachment on natural, agricultural or forest land is envisaged.

Lastly, the Conference drew the attention of the Ministers responsible for Regional Planning to the principles set out in the Lisbon resolutions, especially at their next conference, the subject of which will be "rational use of land - basis and limiting factor of our development".

The Ministers expressed their profound concern at the deterioration in the quality of soil and asked the Council of Europe to study the possibility of drawing up a Convention on this subject.

In conclusion, the Lisbon Conference emphasised two fundamental vehicles where the environmental aspects of land-use policies are concerned: the absolute need for protection of agricultural land and the intensification of international co-operation.

Agricultural land is an essential and endangered basis of mankind's future. It must be protected from growing urbanisation and kept productive and ecologically balanced.

Environmental policies depend to a large extent on the effectiveness of international co-operation. Consultation must be the golden rule, and this applies in particular to assessments of the impact of projects located near frontiers.

Optimised land-use is a European objective and a worldwide issue. We are all concerned and we must act together.

7. Contribution by Prof. Franco FIORELLI (Italy)

ON LAND USE POLICIES AND ECONOMIC PROBLEMS IN ITALY

1. Economic and urban development and land use

The expanding and unregulated use of land is a common and highly typical component in the development of modes of production and living in the urban-industrial world of our time, which is not only related to the rate of demographic growth (1). It has consequences and very marked effects on the old fabric of housing and relationships in Europe and is particularly noticeable in Italy.

In this context, although consolidated methodological and statistical programmes and international and national organisational procedures recommend making a distinction between the quantitative use of land and its qualitative deterioration, there are quite clearly many interdependencies and influences between these two phenomena, particularly in a country like Italy with special contours and features.

As is well known, at the beginning of the industrial revolution and according to classical economic doctrine, land resources were looked upon as a primary factor in production in the same way as capital, and labour: the quantitative and qualitative limitations of land were regarded - in strictly economic terms - as situations of imperfect competition, or earning profit which was absolute or based on its position (2). Technical progress was related primarily to growth in size and to the specialised production of the industrial enterprise.

In fact for a long time agricultural land was a favourite sector in which to advocate natural values and human activities. In modern times and nowadays countries which have given greater protection or expression to the socio-economic interests of the agricultural world - for a number of reasons (eg pressure from rural circles in France, activities of local government in Great Britain) - have achieved a better defence and protection of the land as well as of the agricultural environment and the countryside at various territorial levels.

However, in more recent times first and second homes, power stations, industrial plants, roads and other kinds of infrastructure, quarries and areas designated as dumps and rubbish heaps have invaded agricultural land, although in varying ways and extent according to geo-economic and housing structures and legislative and administrative regulations.

Nowadays the process of land use can no longer be governed by purely economic requirements and constraints but needs as well principles and rules concerning the ecological balance and the necessary requirements for living (3).

Italy is a country distinguished by a very torturous and uneven geophysical and orographical structure, with a level area amounting to hardly more than 20% of its total surface constituted by the Po plain, narrow coastal strips and a number of interior ends of valleys, but nevertheless enjoying ancient and harmonious relationships between town and country, with a training in citizenship regarded until the second half of the nineteenth century as the "ideal model in Italian history". As a country with a heavy concentration of human beings and of cultural, natural and historical resources, having been relatively recently established as a State, and with limited and weak town-planning mechanisms, Italy was bound to experience, in a number of distinctly accentuated forms, urban and industrial development (belated but swift compared with other European countries), pressure for the application of technical advances and powerful pleas for the organisation of leisure both in terms of quantity as well as the quality of available space.

2. Trends in the location of industry and changes

From the end of the war up to the present the use of land resources and the deterioration of the natural and historical environment in Italy have been typical of the most industrialised societies (eg urban concentrations engendering pollution) or of economically less developed countries (eg uncultivated and dried-up land, deforestation and soil deterioration).

It is true that environmental problems have also been associated with special geophysical conditions (such as, in the main, the predominance of areas with mountains and high hills, the scarcity and irregularity of rivers and mountain streams, and the difficulty in achieving hydro-geological balance). However they have been worsened by economic interests and extra-economic behaviour inadequately regulated and guided by public authority, and particularly by inappropriate mechanisms for controlling modifications of the territory.

As Emilio Sereni says in his basic work on Italian agricultural land (4), Italian geography and history was characterised in past centuries by an extraordinary coherence between the "environmental framework" and the "forms of production", based also on the social organisation of production. However at the present time - and especially during the last 30 years - an increasing separation has occurred so that nowadays the terms "productive agriculture" and "protective agriculture" are used (5).

The most striking aspect of this development is the demographic and housing situation where there is a deep-rooted trend towards urbanisation with a corresponding depopulation of the land.

During the post-war period and more precisely between the 1951 and 1981 censuses the population of Italy increased by nearly 20% with a more rapid rate (6-7%) during the 1951-1961 and 1961-1971 decades, although at the beginning of the 50s and of the 70s there was a tremendous emigration limited but not prevented by the scale and character of contemporary economic growth. This global increase concerned for the most part, the flat lands to which the population flowed after moving from the mountains to the hill, from the hill to the plain, from the interior to the coast.

In the space of a century at least 5,000 out of more than 8,000 Italian municipalities recorded considerable losses of population despite the big expansion which occurred at the national level. This trend increased considerably during the last 30 years between the 1951 and the 1981 censuses; the rate of depopulation of the rural municipalities in this period varied between 50% and 25%, depending on whether they are mountain, hill or plain municipalities, with particularly high rates in the Mezzogiorno.

In particular, an exodus occurred from the hill areas of around 5 million people. Nevertheless, the hill areas, extending over more than 40% of the national territory and covered for the most part with olive groves, still represent about half of the total national agricultural product (6).

Table 1

DENSITY OF ITALIAN POPULATION WITH REGARD TO ALTIMETRICAL AREAS

Altimetrical areas	Surface (%)	Inhabitants / Km ²		
		1961	1971	1981
Mountains	35.2	76.7	73.1	72.3
Hills	41.7	160.1	166.4	174.7
Plains	23.1	321.1	365.6	386.6
	100.0	168.0	179.7	187.7

NB : Before 1961 there was no demographic data classified as regards to altimetrical areas.

The decrease in depopulation during the decade between the 1971 and 1981 censuses and in more recent years, and also the reversal of the demographic movements in the areas surrounding the provincial capitals in central and northern Italy, do not modify the structural components of the long-term evaluation previously mentioned.

An effect of the above-mentioned process has been that the proportion of the national population of municipalities with less than 20,000 inhabitants fell from around 60% in 1951 to less than 50% in 1981. Nevertheless, only 25 towns exceeded the level of 100,000 inhabitants in 1981 and very few reached metropolitan size, while 20% of the population was still living in extremely small municipalities scattered across the country with less than 5,000 inhabitants (representing nearly 75% of the municipalities in Italy and indicating the pressing need for a total reform of local government).

Table 2

BREAKDOWN OF THE POPULATION WITH REGARD TO THE POPULATION OF COMMUNES

COMMUNES	POPULATION (%)				
		1951	1961	1971	1981
Population (inhabitants)	Number (%)				
To 5,000	73.93	26.4	24.3	21.4	19.6
5,000 to 20,000	20.83	32.4	28.7	26.2	27.1
20,000 to 100,000	4.64	20.8	22.3	23.2	25.1
100,000 to 500,000	0.53	8.1	10.2	13.7	13.6
Beyond 500,000	100.00	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Corresponding to the basic trend indicated above, namely progressive urbanisation, are a whole series of thorough-going changes in the geo-economic situation and in agricultural land due to human factors, often combined with others of a physical nature, as is shown with special clarity by the links between the impoverishment of forests and woods, hydrogeological deterioration and purely natural events such as seismic phenomena.

As is well known, the action of transforming Italian agricultural land in the contemporary period has been effected mainly through:

- major drainage operations which have regulated mountain basins, completely encircled hilly areas and plains, or introduced radical changes in humid and salty environments along coasts:
- the abandonment of human dwellings and the extension of uncultivated lands in the high hilly regions of the Appenines; the strengthening of intensive agriculture in the Po Plain, the decline in central and northern Italy of métayage agriculture of the type found in the Appenines (based on the co-participation of workers in the income from the activities of the farm); the breaking up of landed estates and the declining role of the "peasant towns", and also the limited forms of agricultural valorisation in the flat regions of the Mezzogiorno;
- the progressive reduction in peri-urban and coastal agriculture resulting from the encroaching effect of ground rent (urban, industrial and tourist) and various types of abuse associated with the construction of blocks of flats.

The transfer of vine growing from the hills to the plains and the reduction in the growing of other Mediterranean crops (such as maize) together with the gradual disappearance of the "Mediterranean garden" are particularly striking aspects of this development.

3. Specific factors associated with land use

A series of recent official documents give a more exact picture - still incomplete but fairly significant - both of the geo-economic conditions and constraints and of the action of using land resources and jeopardising the environment particularly through the indiscriminate exploitation of the land (7).

The surface area of forests and woods is rather extensive in Italy, covering approximately 8,650,000 hectares (of which 2,250,000 consist of small forest plantations); 15% is covered with conifer forests. The proportion of the national surface area is nearly 30%, a little under therefore, the average European surface area; in northern Italy, with its distinctive Alpine Chain, it exceeds 40%. This extensive heritage, moreover, displays significant processes of expansion; it is on the other hand old, fragile and exposed to fires whose extent have in a few years exceeded the reforested surface area. Italy therefore appears as a country not poor in woods, but "rich in poor woods" (according to an assessment in a recent and important official survey).

Surveys carried out in this field indicate that about 40% of the surface area of mountains and hills - corresponding to about 20% of the national surface area - is subject to high or average hydrogeological deterioration, while approximately half of the flat sides, extending

over about 3,000 km, are suffering from erosion. Former clearings of vegetation areas and accompanying neglect contribute to this disorder, aggravated in recent decades by the accelerated human process of abandonment of housing and crops on mountain and hill territories and expansion of urbanised areas in flat regions. The great extension and lack of control of mountain and hill quarries, deep excavation of rivers and extensive building along coasts are the clearest factors and indicators of the phenomena mentioned above.

The use of land appears on the other hand to be hindered, conditioned or altered by the seismic configuration and events to an extent and in ways no less perturbing than those of a hydrogeological character. According to the reclassification carried out following the serious earthquakes in 1980 (in the southern regions of Campania and Basilicata) jointly with a new organisation of civil protection, some 3,000 municipalities corresponding to almost half of the national surface area, are exposed to seismic risks of a more or less high intensity.

The total surface area of the "protected areas" (with varying level of protection), including five national parks administered by the state and the regions as well as other natural units, amounts to about 1,000,000 ha of which 270,000 covers the national parks. The total proportion of the protected land compared with the national surface area is 3.3% which is relatively low compared with the other European countries despite positive action undertaken and efforts made during the most recent years both by the state and the regions.

Table 3

COMPOSITION OF ITALIAN TERRITORY

Census	Agricultural surface	Forests (a)	Other lands (b)	Improductive and urban surfaces (c)	
1970	58.1	17.5	7.6	16.8	100.0
1982	53.1	18.6	6.5	21.8	100.0

(a) Land covered by full-grown plants, except small forests

(b) Agricultural and uncultivated or deserted lands

(c) Infertile lands and internal water, buildings and roads.

With regard to the siting of housing development it is estimated that within two agricultural census (from 1970 to 1982), the reduction in agricultural surface and in marginal areas (uncultivated and deserted) is in excess of 1.7 million hectares, replaced by urbanised areas and various infrastructures and to a certain extent by forests. During the same period the "voluntary ecological groups", as they are called, consisting of family farms and small farming enterprises, have decreased by more than 300,000 units.

House building represents the most significant component of this use of agricultural land but also involves activities which have been described as the "wasteful operations of the building industry".

Although appreciable gaps exist between the supply and demand for houses (both geographically and socially) and the proportion of the stock of old or abandoned buildings following changes of residence as that of cohabitation specially in the southern areas is high, there has been a disproportionate increase in new houses in relation to demographic growth, partly required by the formation of new family nuclei and due to a large extent to the establishment of "second homes" in distinctive areas in well-known environments and also in semi-urbanised areas.

More specifically, it is calculated that between the 1971 and 1981 censuses 4.4 million new houses were built in order to cope with an increase in the national population of the order of 2.4 million; it is estimated that the construction of new housing units during the present decade (without taking account of "second homes", the non-residential buildings and the roads and highways networks) has required the occupation of 50,000 hectares of land. The total increase in the number of rooms was more than 35% and provided 1.3 rooms (occupied or not) per inhabitant (8); in recent years any clear reduction of this increasing movement was established.

The occupation of land, both peri-urban and agricultural, has been due largely, if not predominantly to abuse in building particularly in the areas around the great metropolitan centres (particularly Rome), and in some southern areas. This is a social phenomenon due not only to the need of the lowest classes for housing, but also to speculative activities and the weakness of local mechanisms and controls where town-planning is concerned. The policies most recently adopted by state and regional politico-administrative bodies to promote the protective rehabilitation of the city housing heritage rather than the expansion of new building have given rise to important experiments and produced some positive results but they have not yet brought about a drastic reduction in the activities mentioned above.

In addition, the use of land associated with infrastructure works of various kinds should not be under-estimated, particularly the impact of the motorway network, (covering about 6,000 km) and of extra-urban surfaced roads in dimensions designed to service the process of housebuilding but also facilitating access to open country and exerting social pressure on areas of natural beauty.

Considerable qualitative changes have occurred in addition to the positive quantitative restrictions on agricultural land and the creation of mixed environments (including residential, industrial and tourist centres) particularly in more restricted flat areas. Although at a lower level than found in other European countries, agriculture has become a sector experiencing exogenous polluting incidents and emissions - in particular so-called "acid rain" (which, it is estimated, reaches a relatively small proportion of the national agricultural surface, slightly more than 5%) and river effluents containing urban and industrial waste, as well as a sector generating pollution (from ground water, rivers and surface soil) due to the speculative technical conditions and commercial methods associated with its own production, which is no less significant than that created by the urban world and industry.

The increasing amount of waste in contemporary society - especially solid urban waste (calculated in Italy at 60 million cubic metres per year) - is a phenomenon occurring simultaneously with those indicated earlier and highlights the connection between the quantitative use and the qualitative deterioration of natural and humanised land which has been considered up to this point; while the volume of urban and industrial waste is progressively growing, increasing difficulties are encountered, and also resistance from local bodies, in locating areas appropriate for dumping and processing it, particularly its harmful constituents; the proportion of properly regulated dumps and rubbish tips remains low with a high proportion of irregular rubbish tips. This confirms, in conclusion, the desirability, both at the civil and the production levels, of finding methods of instituting either biological auto-decontamination, or the recycling of waste, thereby achieving a decrease in the amount and a qualitative protection of the available land.

As a final aspect it should be noted however that the processes of industrial conversion and restructuring on both an international and national scale are going to make available - and will be able to offer in the near future - extensive areas for use in a different way from hitherto. These developments, together with the trend to decentralise housing units away from urban and metropolitan centres, are generally connected with harbour and industrial areas on the outskirts and on the perimeters of large cities (such as Milan and Turin, Genoa, Venice and Trieste, Naples and Bari); in particular, they are associated with harbour stations and very old dock installations or with obsolete metallurgical and petro-chemical complexes suitable for new and better environmental and civil planning.

As for the possibilities offered by technical progress in the field of telecommunications, relevant experiences and surveys do not yet enable a precise assessment to be made of their real effects in terms of land use or the substitution of journeys by information. Nevertheless, some interesting experiments are being carried out and there are a number of projects for industrial activities conducted mainly at home in medium-sized towns, notable in central Italy, or "cable information networks" in urban and metropolitan areas variously distributed throughout the country.

4. Requirements and objectives for land administration

Unilateral or partial legislative provisions, administrative adjustments, occasionally of a fortuitous or fragmentary nature, have not been able to counteract effectively the indiscriminate use of available land with the consequent deterioration of the environment mentioned earlier; on the contrary, these measures have helped to accentuate in some ways the gap between the values associated with production and those with the environment. In this context, the initial thought behind plans relating to the countryside - from an aesthetic viewpoint and outside any overall structure and regulation with regard to land - is very significant, as is the recent extension to agricultural areas, exposed to the spreading of inappropriate housing, of the exoneration from penalty for improper practices in the construction of blocks of flats. These developments have not been corrected at the right moment, even at the level of the European Community, and show the weakness of its policy regarding the environment compared with the Community's purely agricultural policy.

Despite limitations and legislative, political and administrative delays during the decades which have elapsed since the post-war period to the present, the institutional framework concerned with land planning and the protection of the environment has experienced many thoroughgoing changes in Italy as well as elsewhere.

The implementation of the State's regional legislation and the granting to regional organisations of autonomous and substantial land planning powers, the assignment of important tasks to those bodies in regard to the protection of the environment, the establishment of a Ministry of the Environment, with the task not only of coordinating and guiding but also of actively intervening (directly and by intermediary) in this field are an important basis for the administration of the land and of the environment. This new institutional system has already resulted in a number of legislative, political and administrative instruments of fundamental importance; however, there can only be a progressive effect in the coming years after the difficulties and procedural and operational frictions associated with the establishment of institutions have been overcome.

No less important is the development of the social conscience and cultural considerations.

At the beginning of the 1940s natural resources were looked at from two major viewpoints: one was simply concerned with the encouragement of production, and regarded resources as controlled by market laws, and since they were "res nullius", subject to the consent of the relevant individuals and bodies, while the other was purely aesthetic and concerned with "natural beauty" (and also archaeological treasures and historic buildings) giving rise to a formal interpretation of the values of the countryside.

It was in fact in the period mentioned above that the first legislation emerged concerning the countryside which imposed appropriate constraints but in an optional and general form and not inserted into a valid context of land planning instruments at various levels and involving active intervention. The experiences of implementation and the results obtained were most certainly unsatisfactory; meanwhile, and despite the delay in legislative enactments and administrative action, social and cultural conscience made great progress and recognised the essential link between the environment and man, between the visible world of the countryside and the real world of human work.

This link demands economic analysis and assessment revealing in fact the tension and distress provoked by the irrational and exponential use of land and natural resources - fragile and irreplaceable treasures - in the present stage of advanced urban and industrial growth.

The splendid pattern of cypresses and olive trees, undulating olive trees and flat fields, which forms the typical countryside of central Italy has been not so much nature's design as the historical outcome of man's toil, and of constant relationships in production (such as the "métayage contract" mentioned earlier between landowners and agricultural workers). Deterioration - which has reached as far as the valley of Chiana and other parts of Tuscany rich in very admirable landscapes - results from the fact that to counterbalance the cases of fortuitous and disorderly working of the land - insufficiently regulated by public authority - there have been no methods of agricultural management which could replace those of the past, and were profitable economically and also environmentally acceptable.

In other regions, such as southern Metaponto, a new landscape has appeared due to the physical situation, but also as a result of agrarian reform and the elimination of landed estates and, more generally, specific community activity. In addition, in the Mezzogiorno itself in places where geographical conditions were unsuitable (as in the case of many internal valley areas) or where various types of social organisation and production were likely to predominate (as in areas of demographic and urban concentration) agrarian reform has led to other forms of environmental deterioration or to shifts from agricultural to urban investment.

Compared with earlier procedures recent legislative and administrative provisions regarding the environment (usually identified with the name of the government representative, Giuseppe Galasso, who proposed them) - despite limitations and gaps in the experience of interpreting and implementation by the state and by the regions - represent a real advance, where the countryside is regarded as a natural living thing and as the historical expression of human activities (9).

Moreover, a decisive function must be attributed in Italy, a country with very distinctive orographic and geo-economic features, to policies dealing in a wider sense with ecosystems, housing settlements and the rural world. We are referring mainly:

- to the re-arrangement of hydrographic basins and soil protection (the need for which was confirmed only very recently by the disastrous Valtellina alluvium in Lombardy);
- to the spreading and rehabilitation of vegetation in forest, wood and wooded pasture areas (exposed to activities aimed strictly at production or to forms of neglect following the deforestations during past centuries);
- to the joint use of available water in the various basins for civil and production purposes (where the qualitative scarcity to meet demographic and economic requirements increases the qualitative deterioration), in particular for the completion of irrigation systems and operations aimed at the development of agriculture in the Mezzogiorno;
- to the redesigning of metropolitan areas and to the rehabilitation and conservation of cities and also to the creation of the urban network in the Mezzogiorno.

From the geographical viewpoint the heritage represented by the mountains and hills - concerned by their use for housing and tourism - stresses the need to introduce measures for socio-economic revitalisation as well as for the improvement of the environment in keeping with the legislation on mountain communities. In the case of the restructuring of the plains and the ongoing reorganisation of coastal strips where the most severe production and urban tensions have been and still are felt, provision should be made not only for regional protection - and for adequate preparation of local town-planning - often burdened with extravagant housing forecasts - but also a revision of both general and specific policies. Reference can be made, for example, to oil ports and refineries, to power

stations and to major industrial establishments which need plants to be concentrated and those which are obsolete or sited near the countryside or coastal population centres to be eliminated and for locations to be found inland in addition to the refining of polluting products.

In any case historical experience shows that, whatever legislative and administrative methods are used, the regulation of land and the environment, including the countryside, can be really effective only if it is supported by a mature social conscience and by serious administrative responsibility resulting in active and continuous management.

Confirmation of this was given in the historical application of the preceding regulations concerning the countryside (which go back to the end of the 1930s): the cases of concrete formulation and adoption of plans relating to the local countryside - arising from the earlier legislative regulations prior to the establishment of the regional system by the state - were not only very small in number (such as the "intercommunal plans" instituted by the town planning legislation at the beginning of the 1940s and formulated in only a few metropolitan areas), but also very different as far as the results obtained were concerned. Some experiments are particularly significant: the plan for the island of Ischia - the only one adopted in the Mezzogiorno - has not prevented a dispersed modification of the environment largely by financial groups interested in developing the land; the plan for the Porto Fine promontory in Liguria has demonstrated, on the other hand, a considerable ability for resistance to pressures from the building industry, due as much to the compensation of local private interests as to the advocacy of cultural bodies and the corresponding public authorities.

NOTES

1. About "spatial impoverishment" on a world wide scale, in modern and contemporary state, see especially H ISNARD, geographic space, Paris, PUF, 1978 (Italian ed., Milan, Angeli 1980), third part is about geographic space as a consumer product. For a comparison about the different use of land in the EEC, see J Lee, Land resources and their use in the European Communities, by H BARTH and P L'HERMITE, Scientific basis for soil protection in the European Community, London, Elsevier Applied Sciences, 1987, pp 29-63
2. As explained by G Ruffolo in a monograph essay concerning the effects of economic growth on the environment, published in "Micromega" (No. 3, 1987) and focused on the comparison between the "relationships" and the "modes" of production, in the classical doctrine of Adam Smith and in that of his followers, the "wealth of nations" was linked with material production; even Marxist critical thought did not impose natural and historical limitations, being restricted to the study and evaluation of social participation in production.
3. The substantial import of the directive adopted in 1985 by the European Economic Community on "assessment of the environmental impact" is particularly interesting in this context and constitutes a significant example. In that respect it would seem appropriate to extend this estimative and corrective approach to the use - not only qualitative but also quantitative - of natural and humanised land on the basis of typologies and properly categorised and at all events important cases, as well as to the specific legislative and administrative methods appropriate to the states concerned. This approach seems to have inspired the action undertaken in France over a wide geographical area to apply "assessment of the territorial impact" to projects for land redevelopment (based on investigations conducted under the aegis of the Ministry for the Environment and the Quality of Life).
4. E Sereni, Storia del paesaggio agricolo italiano Laterza, Bari, 1981,
5. See, in this connection, among various sources, the acts of the congress organised by the Italian Confederation of Farmers on the theme of management of land and environmental resources (Spoleto, 1987).
6. Historically, the development of housing settlements and interrelations along the coastal strips in Italy is relatively recent. During the first decades of the 19th century the extensive Apennine high plateau of the "cinque miglia" - nowadays devoted to recreational activities - was still the nerve centre of movements and traffic between central and southern Italy. The tendency for traffic and settlements to hug the coast has mainly followed the new railway and road networks, the rehabilitation of humid and salty areas and the intensive residential, industrial and tourist constructions which have followed each other during the last two decades in the form of urban spread and haphazard development.

7. The statistical information and related official assessments referred to in the present report are taken mainly from the preliminary note to the report on the state of the environment published by the Ministry of the Environment in 1987, and from other documents (such as the "mountain map", the "national forest inventory" and the "atlas of seismic areas" published by the Ministry of Agriculture and Forests and by the Ministry of Public Works), as well as from the survey of coastal strips carried out by the National Research Council. The publication by U Leone "Geografia per l'ambiente", La Nuova Italia Scientifica, Rome, 1987, should also be consulted in this context.
8. An indirect indication of the building invasion - related in summary form in this text - is given by the size of the cement industry. Italy is in fact among the first in the list of countries producing and consuming this material for the equipment and construction of buildings, with very high rates per inhabitant. Even the size of quarries, and their distribution over the country, is very great and amounts to an average rate per inhabitant of material extracted of about six tonnes per year (based on an estimate made in 1981).
9. Within the limitations of the present account it is interesting to note that the provisions mentioned in the text have included among resources protected the following: besides natural units (such as sea coasts and river banks) or those of historical value (such as archaeological sites), important geophysical elements (such as volcanic areas) and in addition to resources of traditional natural value, resources of collective agricultural interest (sometimes called "civic use").

Discussion:

Mr Fiorelli (Italy) stated that the quantitative question equals the qualitative question. History should teach underdeveloped countries not to make the same mistakes as developed countries.

He underlines in this sense, the role of the Council of Europe.

8. Contribution by Mr I B F KORMOSS,
Professor emeritus at the College of Europe,
Secretary General of the Conference of Regions
of North-West Europe

ON LAND USE POLICIES IN THE TOURIST SECTOR IN
NORTH-WEST EUROPE

I. Definitions

1.1. For the purposes of this study, North-West Europe (cf map 1) comprises the three BENELUX countries (24.4 million inhabitants); three "Länder" of the Federal Republic of Germany (North Rhine-Westphalia, Rhineland-Palatinate and Saarland) (21.9 million inhabitants); five regions of France (Ile-de-France, Picardy, Nord-Pas-de-Calais, Champagne-Ardennes and Lorraine) (19.4 million); and two regions of the United Kingdom (the South East and East Anglia) (18.9 million), for a total in 1985 of 84.6 million inhabitants in an area of 263,520 km² (that is to say, barely larger than that of the Federal Republic of Germany), and with a population density of 321 inhabitants per km² (ie equivalent to that of Belgium).

This is the most highly urbanised region in Europe (the Megalopolis) whose "conurbations" (cf map 2): Rhine-Ruhr (11.9 million), Paris and its suburbs (8.5 million), Greater London (6.9 million) and Randstat Holland (5.9 million) link up around a central area, that of Escaut-Sambre-Meuse, an urban cluster of 13 million inhabitants.

While this region accounts for only 12% of the surface area of the European Community, it contains within it 26.3% of the Community's population, six of the twelve national capitals and most of the European institutions. It has the greatest density of basic industries in Europe, and the same applies to its transport infrastructure: motorways, railways, airports, waterway and seaports, which are responsible for the transportation and handling of large quantities of goods and which serve the processing industries. The major urban areas referred to above are conspicuous for the worldwide ramifications of their commercial, financial and cultural activities. The farming sector, for its part, produces a varied, high-quality and export-oriented range of goods, despite the decline in the agricultural labour force in recent years. Lastly, situated as they are between the main economic centres, the North Sea coast and certain highly diverse frontier regions of great economic importance are particularly deserving of increased protection against pollution and other nuisance factors.

1.2. This north-western region of Europe fits into the framework of the twelve countries of the European Communities (EUR 12), for which retrospective demographic data covering the period 1950 to 1985 are reproduced in Appendix 3 (source: EUROSTAT, Demographic Statistics 3/C 1987), while map 4 gives a breakdown of the population and urban

concentrations in part of the 21 countries of the Council of Europe (EUR 21). There is a manifest tendency towards zero population growth or, indeed, population decline in the countries of the North (for example, the Federal Republic of Germany had reached its highest population level in 1974, Denmark in 1980). Elsewhere, there is a more or less pronounced slowdown or stagnation of population growth, except in the extreme North-West (Ireland) and the extreme South-East (Turkey).

Despite these "demographic" trends, the constant rise in living standards, especially in countries with a negative tourist balance, on the one hand, and the decrease in working hours, on the other, together with the growing demands made on the living space of the inhabitants, mean that the level of "land use" is no longer proportional to the population level but is influenced by spin-off factors combined with the advantages and drawbacks associated with different locations.

II. The particular features of North-West Europe

2.1. Advantages and drawbacks of climatic factors.

North-West Europe, like the entire Atlantic coastline of the continent, enjoys undeniable climatic advantages in the winter, as a result of the direction of the main maritime currents (eg, the Gulf Stream), producing warmer temperatures in the winter and an iso-amplitude (the difference between the average temperatures in January and July) of only 10 to 15°C compared with 25-35°C in Central Europe and as much as 45-55°C on other continents.

This favourable pattern of temperatures - which makes for considerable energy savings - is offset by a general instability of climate; hence the attraction of the various "sun belts" both within Europe (around the Mediterranean or in the Alps) and outside Europe. In addition, pollution and other environmental nuisances have a more powerful impact on population black spots and built-up areas.

2.2. Thus, a specific set of geographical characteristics underlies the demographic and socio-economic structure of North-West Europe, and this visibly affects tourist flows in terms of both the number of entries and departures of tourists and tourist receipts and expenditure. It is most regrettable that there is a considerable time lag in the publication of international tourist statistics: the latest available United Nations figures (1983 Statistical Yearbook!) date from 1982 (cf Appendix 5); certain more recent data - eg those taken from the Stat. Jahrbuch der BRD 1987 (cf Appendix 5) - represent a selection of only seven countries, but do not cover the country which occupies first place in terms of tourist arrivals (cf UN statistics), namely France.

2.3. With regard to the reliability and "comparability" of data, we took as our starting point United Nations figures concerning "tourist density", ie the number of tourists per thousand inhabitants of the receiving country, on the one hand (column 3), and the average amount of per capita tourist expenditure in the same country (column 5), on the other.

TABLE I

Tourist arrivals and tourist receipts, 1982

Source: UN Statistical Year Book 1983

Country	ARRIVALS		RECEIPTS (US \$)	
	1,000	per 1,000 inhabitants	1,000,000	per tourist
1	2	3	4	5
D	11,075	181	5,614	506.9
F	33,156	601	6,991	210.9
I	22,223	389	8,234	370.5
NL	3,080	213	1,540	500.0
B	6,785	688	1,578	232.6
GB	11,646	206	5,144	441.7
IRL	2,228	629	477	214.1
DK	3,690	722	1,305	353.7
GR	5,033	507	1,527	303.4
E	25,291	655	7,126	281.8
P	3,164	312	878	277.5
A	14,253	531	5,649	396.3
CH	9,186	705	3,035	330.4
YU	5,955	266	844	141.7
TR	1,026	22	370	360.6
CND	12,183	495	2,447	200.9
USA	21,916	94	11,293	515.3
Jap	1,386	12	763	550.5

L: Luxembourg: data not available, op cit.

The summary comparative table set out below classifies the above-mentioned "tourist density" of countries in declining order of importance:

DK .. 722	A ... 531	NL ... 213
CH .. 705	CND . 530	GB ... 206
B ... 688	GR .. 507	D 181
E ... 655	I ... 389	USA .. 84
IRL . 629	P ... 312	TR ... 20
F ... 601	YU .. 238	JAP .. 11

These data would appear to inspire second thoughts, eg with regard to the high positions occupied by Denmark, Ireland and Canada, which at first sight are not the most popular tourist destinations; at the same time, it is surprising to find Italy, Portugal and Yugoslavia, countries with a reputation as "tourist attractions", occupying relatively modest positions. The discrepancy between the tourist densities of Belgium and the Netherlands (688 per thousand compared with 213 per thousand) appears to be just as surprising as the discrepancy between Ireland and the United Kingdom (629 per thousand compared with 206 per thousand). How is the number of excursionists evaluated? Are some frontiers more "permeable" (and unsupervised) than others?

By way of rebuttal, so to speak, the average per capita tourist expenditure for the same countries (in US \$) is set out below, once again in declining order of magnitude.

JAP . 550.5	I ... 370.5	P ... 277.5
USA . 515.3	TR .. 360.6	B ... 232.6
D ... 506.9	DK .. 353.7	IRL . 214.1
NL .. 500.0	CH .. 330.4	F ... 210.9
GB .. 441.7	GR .. 303.4	CND . 200.9
A ... 396.3	E ... 281.8	YU .. 141.7

The lessons to be drawn from these figures are revealing, but in some cases contradictory.

Indeed, average tourist expenditure depends essentially on two factors: the length of the stay and the level of prices. In normal circumstances, these factors would appear to be necessarily "exclusive": in other words, the duration of stay in a country where the prices are low will usually be longer, except in the case of so-called "business tourists" whose expenses are paid by their companies. It is therefore normal that in the "business first" countries - the first five in the list - tourist expenditure should be higher than in the "leisure first" countries, which seems to be the case, with longer stays in Austria, Italy, Turkey, Greece, Spain and Portugal. The "middling" position occupied by two countries with a high level of facilities - and prices - namely, Denmark and Switzerland, which follow each other in the same order in the second list as in the first list, albeit in the middle of the former but at the top of the latter, would appear to point to a shorter duration of stays, and the same applies to Belgium, a country of transit, but one which is relatively expensive. The difference between the very average expenditure in the USA (515.3 US \$ per capita) and the average expenditure in Canada (200.9 US \$), where the level of prices is similar, is no doubt explained by a high incidence of "transit tourism" (eg excursionists to the two Niagara Falls etc). The two countries with the highest levels of individual expenditure, namely IRL and YU, are long-stay countries, whereas the case of France, which stands at the bottom of the list on the basis of this criterion, seems to be a more complex one, inasmuch as the visitors to that country come under several categories: excursionists including "gastronomic" visitors from the neighbouring countries (Belgium, Luxembourg, Germany and Switzerland in particular), tourists in transit to the Mediterranean countries (Portugal, Spain, Italy), regular holiday-makers (coastal or mountain resorts, spas, towns of artistic interest etc) and tourists visiting the country on business (exclusively or combined with holiday-making).

As is clear from the above analysis, the tourist flows to the five countries of North-West Europe (no comparable data for Luxembourg are available) are of different types: "business first" in Germany, Netherlands and United Kingdom ; composite tourism in Belgium and, above all in France.

2.4 It is in the two last-mentioned countries that the TGV will have its greatest impact: it already links the Mediterranean to the North, reducing journey times by as much as two to four hours between Paris (-Lille) and the South-East, and by 1993 journey times to the West and South-West will be reduced by one to two hours. The line Brussels (-Liège) - Cologne will reach the Rhineland via Belgium, and the branch line to the Channel Tunnel will open up the gateway to the South-East of England (pending construction of a special track as far as London). The northern section of the TGV network (Brussels - Amsterdam) will be less spectacular in terms of performance, given the short distances between the towns of the Randstad and the difficulty of building new lines in a country short of space.

Thus, of the two main North-South routes, of which we gave a detailed outline in 1974 (cf. map 6), subsequently confirmed by the Round Table of European Industrialists (Missing Links - Les maillons manquants, 1984) (cf map 7), it is the Marseilles - Channel - Marseilles route which has established a considerable lead, and this technological advantage could even result in some of the traffic from the "natural" Rhine route (Randstad - Rhine/Ruhr - Basle - Milan) being drawn off to the Benelux and the Channel Tunnel.

III. The impact on land use

3.1 The typology of tourist flows is well known (coastal resorts, spas, as far as (mountain resorts at medium and high altitude, towns of artistic interest, holiday-making, business trips, conference tourism). An attempted breakdown of reception capacity in Europe (number of beds in hotels) was submitted by the author in 1971 (cf extract from the Oxford Regional Atlas, Western Europe, page 87, map 8).

3.2 Since then, there has been a considerable expansion of "conference tourism", as is clear from our case study of Belgium (cf Table II, number of conference centres and reception capacity). In the case of Belgium, such capacity is concentrated, in spatial terms, in localities which traditionally cater for tourists and this poses land-use problems inter alia on the coast, in the Ardennes and in urban areas, especially towns of artistic interest and those with a strong commercial or conference-oriented vocation.

3.3 Major development schemes, for tourism or other purposes, accentuate the shortage of space and may lead to land-use conflicts, as for example on the Belgian coast as a result of the extension of the port of Zeebrugge, which is surrounded by seaside resorts and spas.

3.4 The main transport infrastructure and the set of three factors (habitat - agriculture - industry) have and will continue to have a decisive impact on the use of land for tourism or mixed purposes (agriculture/tourism, conservation of mountain areas/tourism) (cf. map 9 - outline of the overall structure of the Benelux).

3.5 Pollution and other environmental nuisances are mentioned only pro memoria.

IV. Strategies for the future

SUUM CUIQUE.

CONFERENCE OF REGIONS OF NORTH-WEST EUROPE

KONFERENZ FÜR REGIONALENTWICKLUNG IN NORDWESTEUROPA

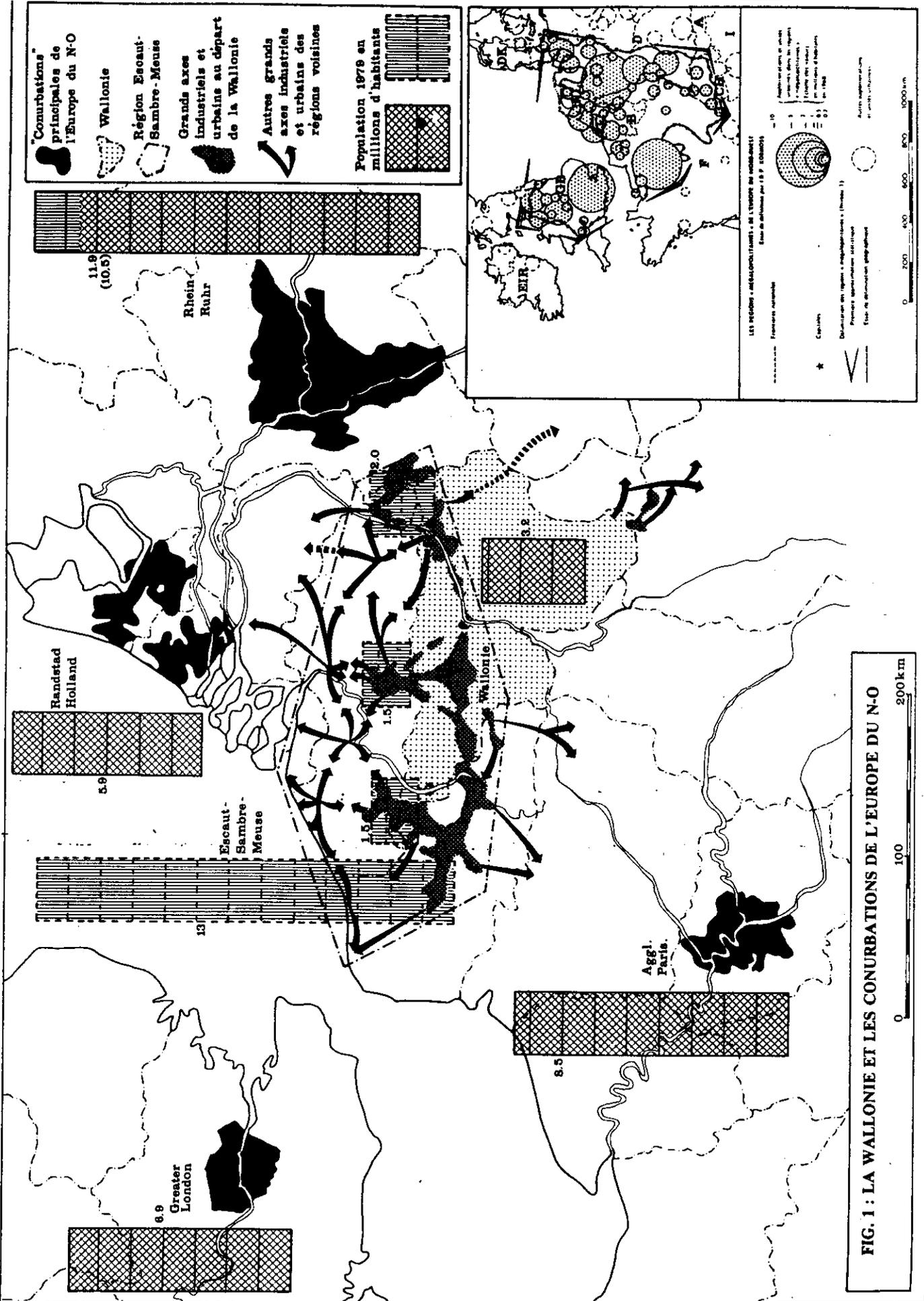


CONFERENCE DES REGIONS DE L'EUROPE DU NORD-OUEST

CONFERENTIE VOOR REGIONALE ONTWIKKELING IN NOORD-WEST EUROPA



1983





Population of member countries
Annual average

Population des pays membres
Moyenne annuelle

1 000

Year	BR Deutschland	France	Italy	Nederland	Belgique/Belge	Luxembourg (1)	United Kingdom (2)
Males and females							
1950	49 989	41 978	47 516 (2)	10 114	8 639	297	50 550 (2)
1955	52 382	43 428	48 789	10 751	8 868	306	51 221
1958	54 292	44 789	49 640	11 187	9 053	311	51 870
1960	55 433,1	45 684,2	50 199,7	11 486,6	9 118,7	314,9	52 372,5
1961	56 174,8	46 162,8	50 536,4	11 638,7	9 165,8	318,8	52 807,4
1962	56 836,6	46 997,7	50 879,5	11 805,7	9 218,4	322,7	53 291,8
1963	57 389,1	47 816,2	51 252,1	11 966,0	9 283,1	325,5	53 624,9
1964	57 971,0	48 310,4	51 675,3	12 127,1	9 367,0	330,0	53 990,8
1965	58 619,2	48 757,8	52 112,4	12 294,7	9 448,1	333,0	54 349,5
1966	59 148,0	49 163,7	52 519,0	12 456,3	9 507,8	334,8	54 642,7
1967	59 286,2	49 548,3	52 900,5	12 598,2	9 556,5	335,2	54 959,0
1968	59 500,3	49 915,4	53 235,8	12 729,7	9 589,8	336,5	55 213,5
1969	60 067,4	50 318,0	53 538,0	12 878,0	9 612,7	338,5	55 460,6
1970	60 650,6	50 772,2	53 821,9	13 038,5	9 637,8	339,8	55 632,2
1971	61 302,2	51 251,1	54 073,5	13 194,5	9 672,5	345,0	55 907,2
1972	61 671,8	51 700,9	54 381,4	13 328,6	9 709,1	348,2	56 079,2
1973	61 975,9	52 118,2	54 751,4	13 439,3	9 738,4	352,7	56 209,8
1974	62 054,1	52 460,4	55 110,9	13 545,1	9 767,8	357,4	56 224,1
1975	61 829,4	52 699,2	55 441,1	13 666,3	9 794,8	360,5	56 214,8
1976	61 531,0	52 908,6	55 718,3	13 774,0	9 811,0	360,9	56 205,7
1977	61 400,5	53 145,3	55 955,4	13 856,2	9 821,8	361,7	56 179,2
1978	61 326,5	53 376,3	56 155,2	13 941,7	9 829,7	362,3	56 167,4
1979	61 358,8	53 606,2	56 317,8	14 038,3	9 837,2	363,5	56 227,2
1980	61 566,3	53 880,0	56 433,9	14 149,8	9 846,8	364,9	56 314,2
1981	61 682,0	54 181,8	56 507,9	14 247,2	9 852,4	365,6	56 378,9
1982	61 637,6	54 480,4	56 639,5	14 312,7	9 856,3	365,5	56 335,4
1983	61 423,1	54 728,3	56 835,8	14 367,1	9 855,5	365,6	56 376,8
1984	61 175,1	54 946,7	57 004,9	14 424,2	9 855,3	366,2	56 487,8
1985	61 024,1	55 170,4	57 141,4	14 491,6	9 858,3	367,2	56 617,8

1 000

Ireland (1)	Denmark	Ελλάδα (1)	España	Portugal	EUR 12	Année
Hommes et femmes						
2 969	4 271	7 566	27 977	8 441	260 307	1950
2 921	4 439	7 966	29 056	8 632	268 759	1955
2 853	4 515	8 173	29 798	8 926	275 407	1958
2 832,0	4 581,0	8 327,4	30 454,7	8 943,1	279 747,9	1960
2 818,3	4 609,8	8 398,0	30 743,7	8 937,6	282 312,1	1961
2 830,0	4 646,9	8 448,2	31 066,6	9 019,8	285 363,9	1962
2 850,0	4 683,6	8 479,6	31 393,0	9 081,6	288 144,7	1963
2 864,0	4 720,2	8 510,4	31 723,0	9 122,5	290 711,7	1964
2 876,0	4 758,1	8 550,3	32 056,5	9 128,9	293 284,5	1965
2 884,0	4 797,5	8 613,6	32 393,7	9 108,8	295 569,9	1966
2 900,1	4 838,8	8 716,4	32 734,5	9 103,0	297 476,7	1967
2 912,5	4 867,3	8 740,8	33 078,9	9 115,1	299 235,6	1968
2 925,6	4 890,7	8 772,8	33 427,1	9 097,2	301 326,6	1969
2 950,1	4 928,8	8 792,8	33 779,0	9 044,2	303 387,9	1970
2 978,3	4 963,1	8 831,0	34 189,9	8 643,8	305 352,1	1971
3 024,4	4 991,6	8 888,6	34 447,5	8 630,5	307 201,8	1972
3 073,2	5 021,9	8 929,1	34 810,4	8 633,1	309 053,4	1973
3 124,2	5 045,3	8 962,0	35 147,1	8 754,3	310 552,7	1974
3 177,3	5 059,9	9 046,5	35 515,2	9 093,4	311 898,4	1975
3 227,8	5 072,6	9 167,3	35 937,0	9 355,3	313 069,5	1976
3 271,9	5 088,4	9 308,5	36 367,4	9 455,1	314 211,4	1977
3 314,0	5 104,2	9 430,0	36 777,7	9 558,2	315 343,2	1978
3 368,2	5 116,8	9 548,2	37 107,7	9 661,3	316 550,6	1979
3 401,0	5 123,0	9 642,5	37 386,1	9 766,3	317 874,8	1980
3 443,4	5 121,6	9 729,4	37 750,8	9 855,4	319 116,4	1981
3 480,0	5 117,8	9 789,5	37 961,3	9 930,2	319 906,2	1982
3 504,0	5 114,3	9 846,6	38 173,3	10 009,2	320 599,6	1983
3 529,0	5 111,6	9 895,8	38 386,8	10 089,3	321 272,7	1984
3 540,0	5 113,7	9 934,8	38 601,8	10 157,0	322 018,1	1985

**REPARTITION DE LA POPULATION AGGLOMERE
ET NON AGGLOMERE
BEVÖLKERUNGSVERTEILUNG UND
STÄDTERBALLUNGEN
POPULATION DISTRIBUTION IN AND
OUTSIDE OF CONURBATIONS**

Dessiné par
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College of Europe, Bruges
Institut Géographique National - National Geographisch
Institut, Bruxelles - Brussel

Légende - Zeichenerklärung - Key
Frontière nationale - Staatsgrenze - National boundary
Limite régionale - Regionalgrenze - Limit of region
Population des villes et agglomérations de plus de 50 000 habitants
Bevölkerung der Städte und Städteballungen mit mehr als 50 000 Einwohnern
Population of towns and conurbations with more than 50,000 inhabitants

10 000 000
5 000 000
2 500 000
1 000 000 Habitants - Einwohner - Inhabitants
500 000
250 000
100 000

50 000 Habitants - Einwohner - Inhabitants
25 000 Habitants - Einwohner - Inhabitants

Date de référence - Stichtag - Date of reference: 1.1.1986



0 100 200 300 400 500 Kilomètres
0 100 200 300 400 500 Miles
170 000 000

173. Tourist arrivals and tourist receipts - Arrivée de touristes et recettes touristiques

151

Country or area of destination Pays ou zone de destination	Number : thousands Recettes : millions of US dollars		Nombre : milliers Recettes : millions de dollars EU			
	Number of tourist arrivals Nb d'arrivées de touristes	Tourist receipts Recettes touristiques	Tourist receipts Recettes touristiques			
			1979	1980	1981	1982
Algeria - Algérie 2	37	7	9	7	1	1
Antigua and Barbuda - Antigua et Barbuda	916	951	970	704	175	157
Argentina - Argentine	86	87	85	39	43	46
Australia - Australie	1019	1120	1145	1040	345	510
Austria - Autriche 3	793	905	937	1132	712	967
Bahamas - Bahamas	12875	13879	14241	14253	5610	6442
Bangladesh - Bangladesh	1129	1181	1031	1121	552	650
Barbados - Barbade	57	57	49	55	9	15
Belgium - Belgique	371	370	353	304	187	252
Benin - Bénin	6180	6700	6550	6785	1629	1810
Bermuda - Bermudes	34	39	46	48	7	9
Bolivia - Bolivie 4	459	492	430	420	240	258
Botswana - Botswana	159	155	155	150	37	40
Brazil - Brésil	162	206	227	250	15	22
Brunel - Brunei 3	1082	1271	1358	1147	1194	1794
Bulgaria - Bulgarie 3	258	270	287	204	250	260
Burundi - Burundi 3	5120	5486	6046	5647	289	265
Canada - Canada	32	34	37	38	15	22
Ceylon Islands - Iles Ceylanes	12615	12876	12811	12183	2008	2284
Central African Republic - République centrafricaine	101	120	125	121	36	45
Chad - Tchad	7	7	7	7	3	3
Chile - Chili	327	420	405	283	127	166
Colombia - Colombie	4204	5703	7767	7924	401	555
Congo - Congo	1151	1228	1060	1128	501	673
Costa Rica - Costa Rica	32	70	62	-	9	10
Cyprus - Chypre	318	345	333	372	73	87
Czechoslovakia - Tchécoslovaquie	297	353	421	539	141	203
Democratic Yemen - Yémen démocratique	3984	5055	4787	3370	385	338
Denmark - Danemark 3	3320	3500	3570	3690	1312	1337
Dominican Republic - République dominicaine	343	383	451	341	131	168
Ecuador - Equateur	240	243	245	245	86	91
Egypt - Egypte 6	1064	1253	1376	1423	511	582
El Salvador - El Salvador	231	118	82	99	14	7
Ethiopia - Ethiopie	36	42	46	60	6	11
Finland - Finlande 6	189	197	206	275	124	134
France - France	328	350	380	418	534	677
French Polynesia - Polynésie française	28763	30100	31340	33556	6823	8235
Gabon - Gabon	101	89	97	114	66	62
Gambia - Gambie	13	13	15	16	12	17
German Dem. Rep. - Rép. dém. allemande 3	25	22	22	37	17	18
Germany, Fed. Rep. - Allemagne, Rép. féd.	10356	11122	11120	11075	5811	6566
Ghana - Ghana 3	37	40	42	44	1	1
Gibraltar - Gibraltar	73	75	66	66	20	22
Greece - Grèce	5233	4796	5094	5033	1682	1734
Greenland - Groenland	32	30	25	23	14	14
Guadeloupe - Guadeloupe 4	114	157	133	152	72	66

Number : thousands
Recettes : millions of US dollars
Country or area of destination
Pays ou zone de destination

Recettes : millions de dollars EU

Country or area of destination Pays ou zone de destination	Number : thousands Recettes : millions of US dollars		Nombre : milliers Recettes : millions de dollars EU			
	Number of tourist arrivals Nb d'arrivées de touristes	Tourist receipts Recettes touristiques	Tourist receipts Recettes touristiques			
			1979	1980	1981	1982
Guatemala - Guatemala	504	466	329	234	201	183
Guyana - Guyane	-	-	-	-	3	4
Haiti - Haïti	134	128	158	158	63	65
Honduras - Honduras	125	122	126	126	29	27
Hong Kong - Hong Kong	1619	1748	1999	2005	1276	1317
Hungary - Hongrie	9847	9413	10450	6473	450	504
Iceland - Islande	77	66	72	75	22	23
India - Inde	1142	1194	1279	1288	422	603
Indonesia - Indonésie	501	561	600	592	209	246
Iran (Islamic Rep of) - Iran (Rép. islamique d')	136	156	186	62	51	54
Iraq - Iraq 6	1168	1222	1564	2020	165	170
Ireland - Irlande	2360	2258	2210	2228	445	472
Ireland - Irlande	1054	1116	1090	949	797	903
Israel - Israël	21918	22087	20036	22223	8218	8213
Italy - Italie	199	194	195	200	50	79
Ivory Coast - Côte d'Ivoire	427	395	406	408	242	284
Jamaica - Jamaïque	685	844	1069	1386	554	644
Japan - Japon	3344	1636	1581	2075	427	431
Jordan - Jordanie 6	383	372	373	362	176	220
Kenya - Kenya	1133	976	1093	1145	326	369
Korea, Republic of - Corée, République de 6	114	108	128	129	351	377
Kuwait - Koweït	-	-	-	-	-	-
Los Angeles - Los Angeles	-	-	-	-	-	-
Laos - Laos	118	-	-	-	-	-
Lebanon - Liban	117	73	55	35	9	12
Lesotho - Lesotho	151	126	126	126	9	10
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya - Jamahiriya arabe libyenne	644	641	712	645	-	-
Macao - Macao	11	13	12	12	5	5
Madagascar - Madagascar	41	46	49	49	5	6
Malawi - Malawi	732	800	656	944	52	41
Malaysia - Malaisie	618	729	706	511	206	329
Mali - Mali	159	158	157	178	71	91
Martinique - Martinique	-	-	-	-	-	-
Mauritania - Mauritanie	128	123	131	128	5	4
Mauritius - Maurice	4141	4145	4031	3768	1443	1671
Mexico - Mexique	1436	1425	1567	1815	388	397
Morocco - Maroc	162	163	162	175	35	45
Nepal - Népal	2750	2784	2846	3080	1358	1668
Netherlands Antilles - Antilles néerlandaises 6	607	621	654	682	377	384
New Zealand - Nouvelle-Zélande	55	66	69	80	-	-
New Zealand - Nouvelle-Zélande	432	301	346	315	186	211
Nicaragua - Nicaragua	-	-	-	-	-	-
Niger - Niger	19	20	21	21	18	18
Nigeria - Nigéria	-	-	-	-	-	-
Norway - Norvège 4	1252	1252	1280	1212	635	751
Norway - Norvège 4	319	299	290	314	100	154
Pakistan - Pakistan	344	335	331	299	166	167
Panama - Panama	33	40	35	40	17	23
Papua New Guinea - Papouasie-Nouv.-Guin.	302	302	287	178	69	91
Paraguay - Paraguay 6	338	373	403	403	207	334
Peru - Pérou	548	989	923	878	238	320
Philippines - Philippines	948	989	923	878	238	320

Number : thousands
Receipts : millions of US dollars

Nombre : milliers
Recettes : millions de dollars EU

Country or area of destination Pays ou zone de destination	Number of tourist arrivals ¹ Nb d'arrivées de touristes ¹							Tourist receipts Recettes touristiques						
	1979	1980	1981	1982	1979	1980	1981	1982	1979	1980	1981	1982		
Poland - Pologne	7200	5664	1737	1123	261	282	116	65						
Portugal - Portugal	2255	2750	3021	3164	942	1147	1023	828						
Puerto Rico - Porto Rico	1662	1679	1577	1564	570	596	616	640						
Romania - Roumanie	6055	6742	7002	5940	303	324	303	280						
Santa Lucia - Sainte-Lucie	88	80	69	70	34	-	29	30						
Samoa - Samoa	23	23	23	23	4	6	6	6						
Saudi Arabia - Arabie saoudite	-	-	-	1196	1314	1573	1809							
Senegal - Sénégal	198	186	194	216	58	68	73	53						
Seychelles - Seychelles	79	72	60	47	39	43	41	31						
Sierra Leone - Sierra Leone	40	46	53	53	8	10	7	7						
Singapore - Singapour	2247	2562	2829	2957	1122	1435	1850	1916						
Somalia - Somalie	-	-	-	-	4	11	9	9						
Spain - Espagne	24000	22500	23860	25291	6484	6868	6716	7266						
Sri Lanka - Sri Lanka	250	322	371	400	78	111	132	147						
Sudan - Soudan	26	28	25	25	5	6	6	6						
Switzerland - Suisse	48	48	48	48	21	19	17	12						
Sweden - Suède	110	109	85	88	9	11	11	11						
Syria - Syrie	2300	2145	2758	3060	890	962	958	1012						
Taiwan - Taïwan	7608	8873	9383	9186	2568	3149	3095	3015						
Thailand - Thaïlande	974	1204	1043	831	136	156	175	150						
Togo - Togo	1585	1847	1979	2379	549	867	983	972						
Tonga - Tonga	75	92	117	131	11	13	15	17						
Tunisia - Tunisie	12	13	13	200	5	5	5	5						
Turkey - Turquie	190	199	187	200	124	151	152	163						
Uganda - Ouganda	1356	1682	2151	1355	521	605	581	555						
USSR - URSS	1063	865	997	1026	281	327	381	370						
United Kingdom - Royaume-Uni	5177	5590	5870	6340	4878	6093	5938	5144						
United Rep. of Cameroon - Rép. unite du Cameroun	12805	12420	11453	11646	10	10	10	18						
United Rep. of Tanzania - Rép. unite de Tanzanie	726	86	103	110	17	20	20	20						
United States - États-Unis	156	84	92	100	17	20	20	20						
Upper Volta - Haute Volta	20310	22500	23080	21916	8335	10058	12163	11293						
Uruguay - Uruguay	44	38	31	44	6	6	6	7						
Venezuela - Venezuela	1104	1067	928	622	287	298	283	149						
Yemen - Yémen	31	22	22	32	-	-	-	-						
Yugoslavia - Yougoslavie	235	200	210	260	265	246	251	264						
Zaire - Zaïre	18	20	29	23	32	24	34	34						
Zambia - Zambie	5966	6410	6616	5755	825	1115	1350	844						
Zimbabwe - Zimbabwe	20	27	24	24	19	22	23	23						
	54	87	147	117	15	20	45	59						
	79	268	269	256	8	24	48	46						

Source : World Tourism Organization (Madrid) and the International Monetary Fund (Washington, D.C.)
Source : Organisation mondiale du tourisme (Madrid) et Fonds monétaire international (Washington, D.C.)

1. Unless otherwise stated data are based on frontier check and refer to arrivals of tourists
1. Sauf indication contraire, les données reposent sur un contrôle aux frontières et se rapportent aux arrivées de touristes à l'étranger

2. Including nationals resident abroad
2. Y compris les nationaux résidents à l'étranger

3. See footnotes for this country or area in table T72
3. Voir les notes relatives à ce pays ou zone ou tableau T72

4. Arrivals of tourists at hotels
4. Arrivées de touristes dans les hôtels

5. Tourist arrivals at all accommodation establishments
5. Arrivées de touristes dans les hôtels et établissements d'hébergement

6. Visitors' arrivals at frontiers
6. Arrivées de visiteurs aux frontières

10.1.1. Einreisen über die Grenze
10.1.1. Arrivals over the border

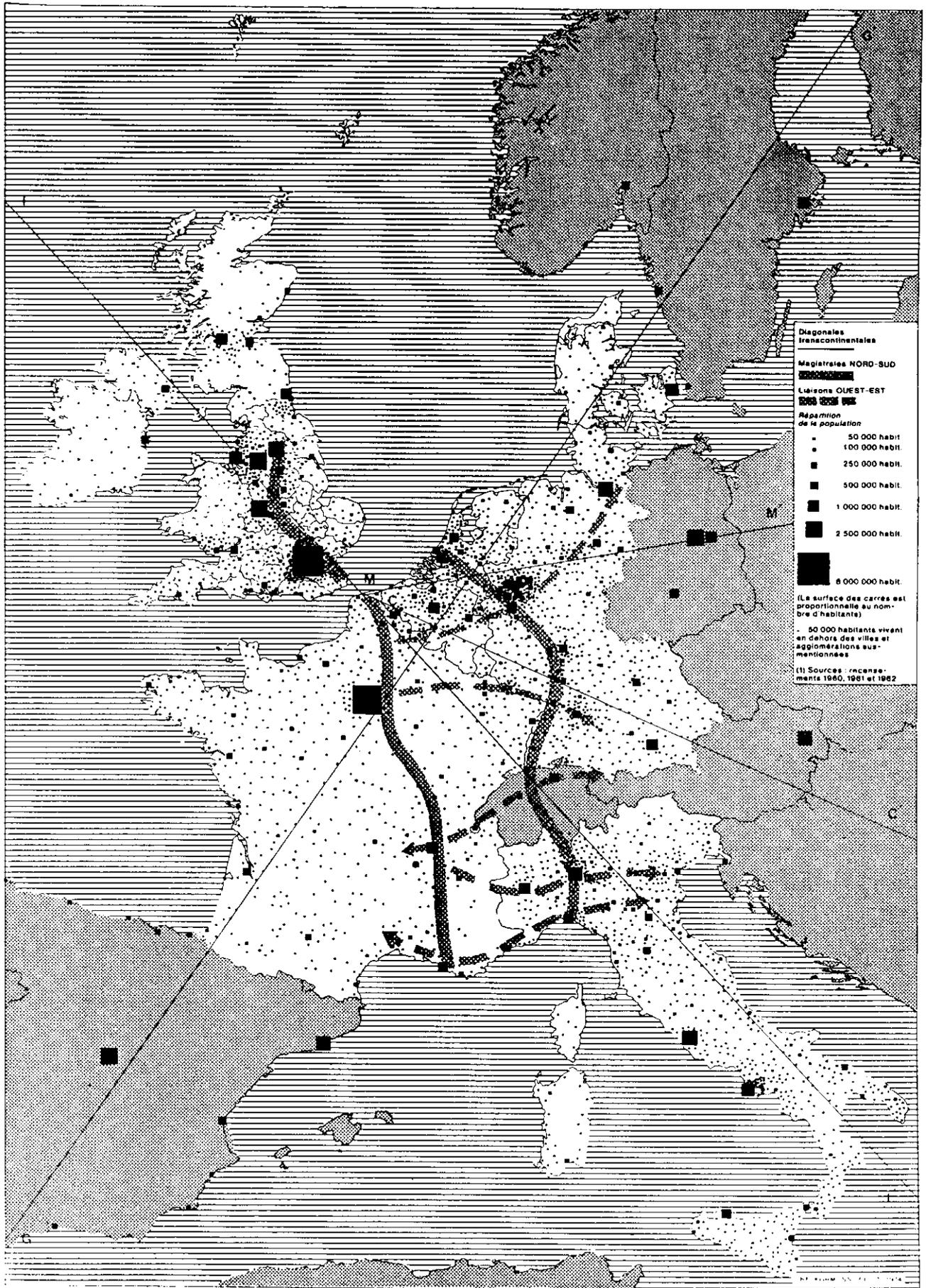
Herkunftsland	Grenzübertritte einreisender Ausländer ¹ Frontier crossings of foreign visitors ¹						
	Griechenland	Portugal	Spanien	Türkei	Kanada	Vereinigte Staaten	Japan
Bundesrepublik Deutschland	1 050	369	5 644	3 002	161	509	49
Belgien und Luxemburg	89	69	1 113	20	16	6	6
Dänemark	161	44	445	9	15	8	8
Frankreich	441	320	11 001	150	108	336	40
Griechenland	x	-	52	213	14	44	3
Großbritannien und Nordirland	1 329	756	5 035	1 253	320	861	183
Irland	39	27	202	-	11	-	2
Italien	364	83	1 022	75	56	220	22
Jugoslawien	351	29	356	351	9	-	2
Niederlande	280	151	1 417	31	60	131	15
Norwegen	144	25	366	6	9	-	8
Österreich	282	23	269	77	15	45	8
Portugal	9	x	7 742	-	14	-	5
Schweden	224	49	541	11	19	-	15
Schweiz	206	57	870	36	45	149	14
Spanien	41	2 481	1 991	19	12	90	7
Türkei	49	-	18	x	3	-	3
Übrige europäische Länder	289	50	651	195	62	519	31
Kanada	103	69	191	22	x	10 880	61
Vereinigte Staaten	466	165	998	196	10 600	x	558
Mittel- und Südamerika	33	5	573	15	99	2 600	44
Übrige Länder	624	252	3 060	749	596	4 633	1 246
Insgesamt	6 574	4 989	43 235	2 615	13 245	21 018	2 327

10.1.2. Übernachtungen in Beherbergungsstätten
1000
Overnight stays in accommodation establishments

Bundesrepublik Deutschland	Übernachtungen von Ausländern ¹ Overnight stays of foreigners ¹						
	Belgien	Dänemark	Italien	Jugoslawien	Österreich	Schweiz	
1 096	1 517	3 478	41 806	19 410	55 432	14 486	
1 229	170	-	2 614	845	2 245	1 928	
1 294	66	x	1 026	903	859	179	
945	144	-	7 253	1 544	2 479	2 508	
210	66	-	5 936	174	138	158	
2 479	1 235	-	4 075	4 963	4 233	2 734	
63	33	-	193	62	26	61	
1 058	250	-	x	4 966	1 264	1 228	
312	3	-	462	x	86	86	
5 054	3 167	-	671	3 378	2 898	9 177	
438	92	-	5 02	331	176	99	
907	61	-	6 844	5 280	x	498	
922	52	-	1 58	26	19	95	
1 776	87	-	1 378	571	1 245	319	
379	94	-	6 295	622	1 876	x	
182	168	-	1 278	92	400	x	
1 603	142	-	1 980	6 587	978	375	
380	106	-	802	112	246	376	
5 092	893	-	5 965	7 384	595	3 552	
471	99	-	1 413	-	185	464	
3 607	578	-	5 356	626	1 571	2 715	
Insgesamt	28 079	9 835	0 972	96 589	50 876	85 076	35 182

1) Einschließlich Ausländer
2) Nur Gäste aus Belgien
3) In "Übrige europäische Länder" enthalten
4) Im Ausland lebende Spanier
5) In "Übrige Länder" enthalten
6) Nur Gäste aus Mexiko
7) Nur Gäste aus Luxemburg

SCHEMA DES GRANDS AXES EUROPEENS



Missing Links

Upgrading Europe's Transborder Ground Transport Infrastructure:
A Report for the Roundtable of European Industrialists

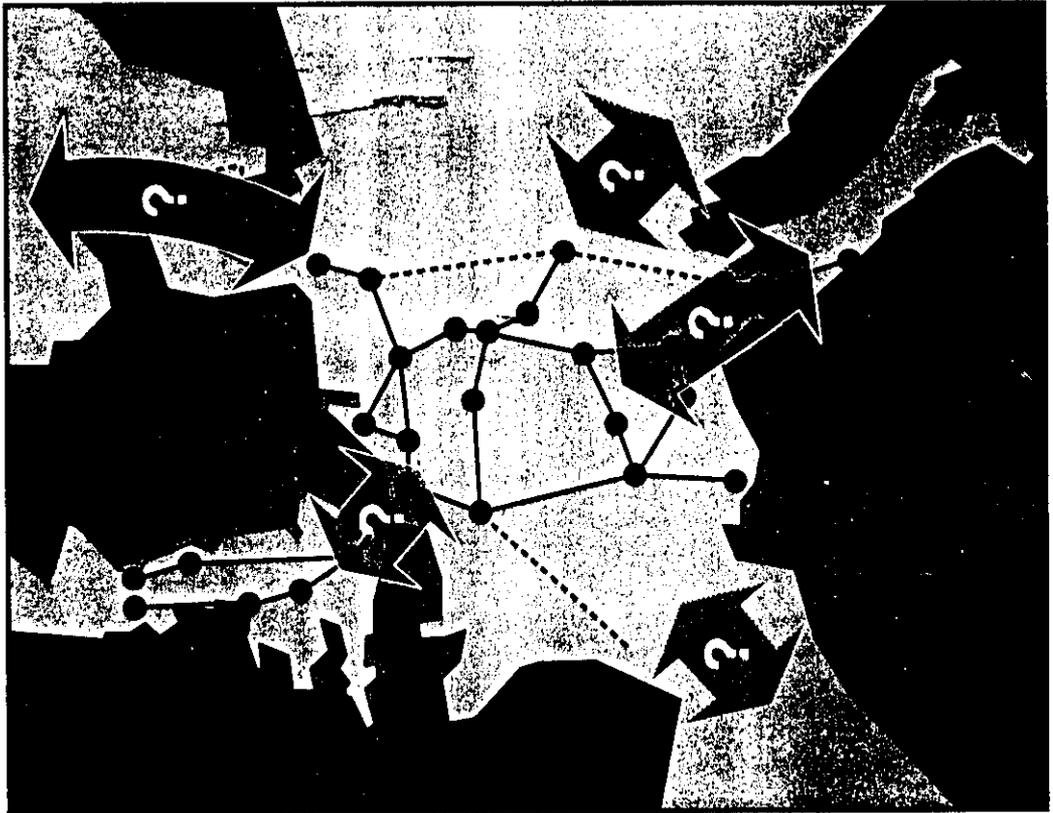
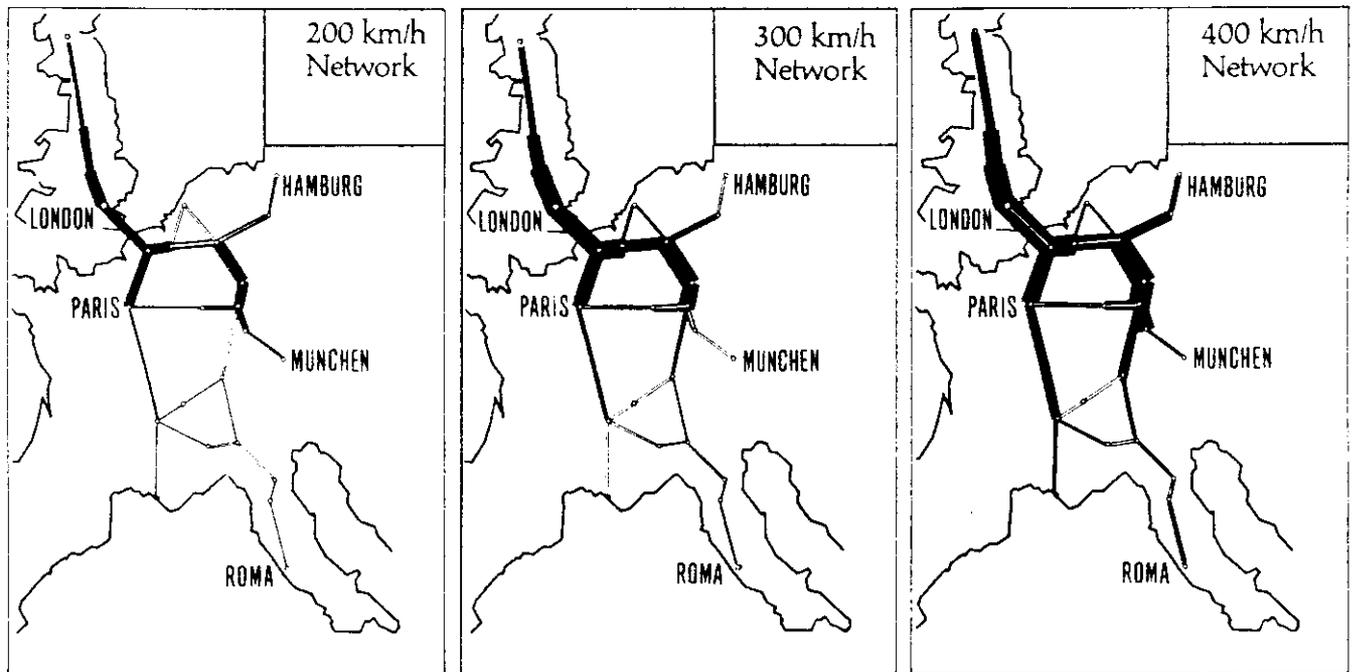
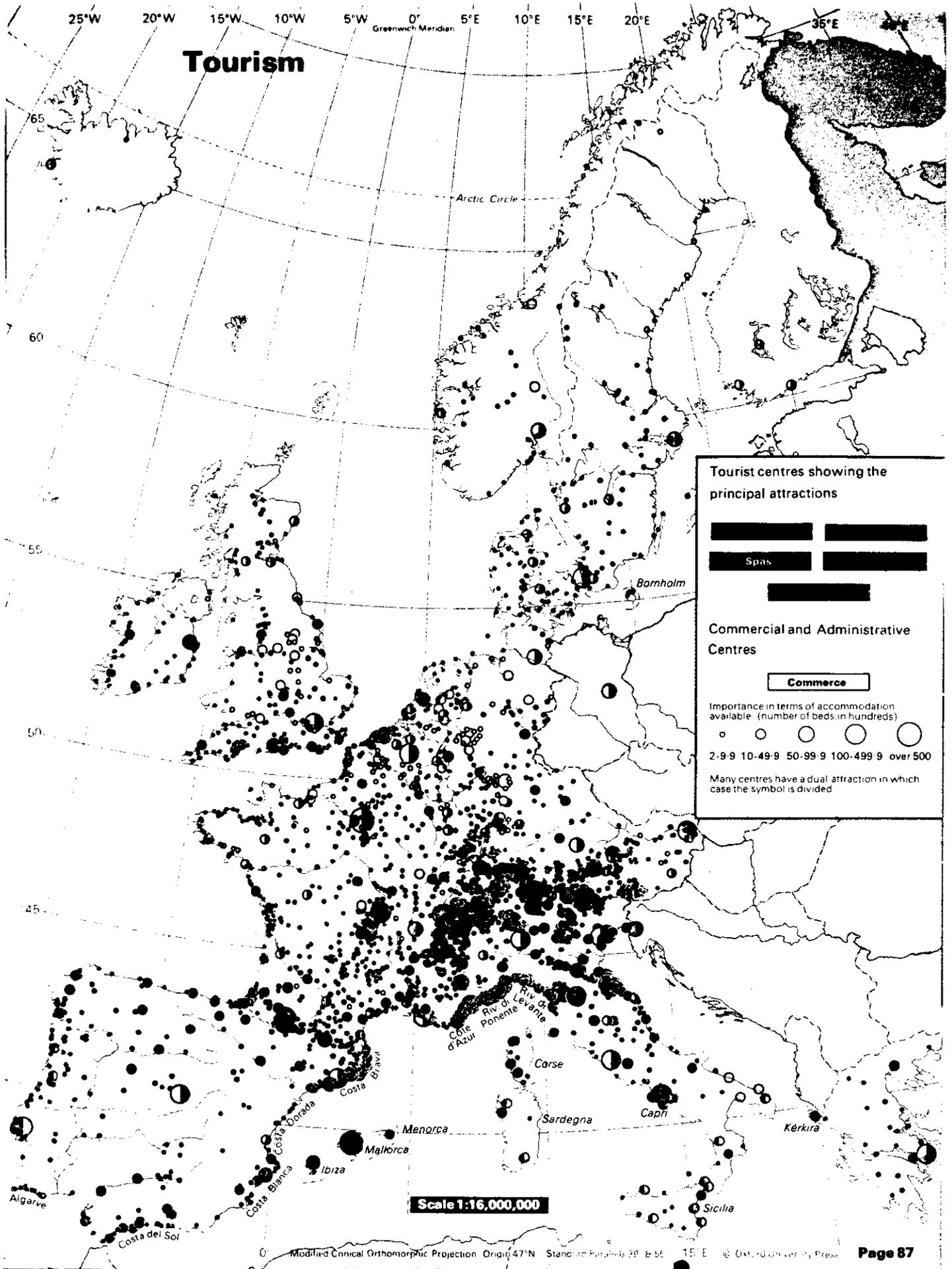


Chart 13

Thicker lines indicate bigger traffic volumes





Tourist centres showing the principal attractions

Spas

Commercial and Administrative Centres

Commerce

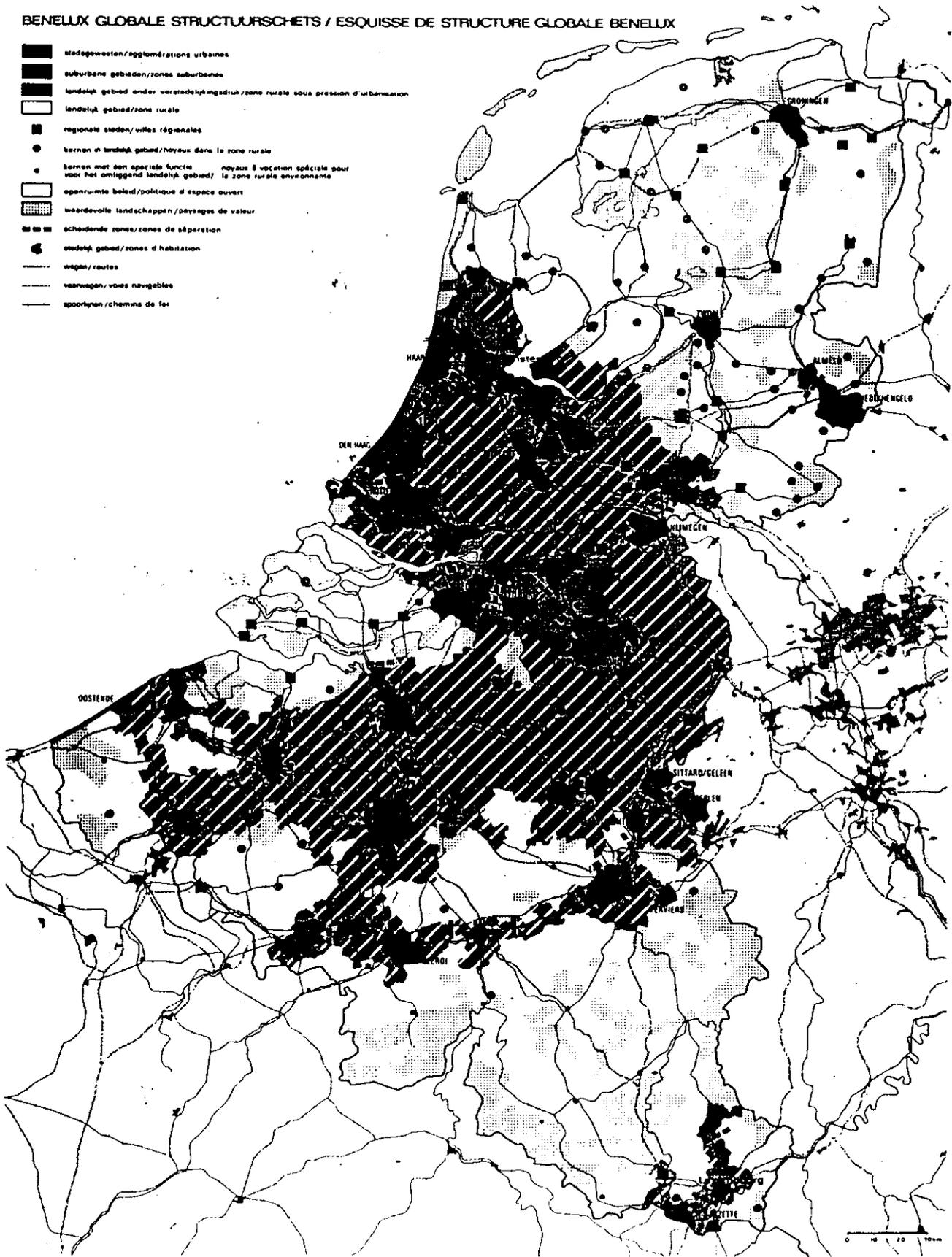
Importance in terms of accommodation available (number of beds in hundreds)

2-9-9 10-49-9 50-99-9 100-499-9 over 500

Many centres have a dual attraction in which case the symbol is divided

BENELUX GLOBALE STRUCTUURSCHETS / ESQUISSE DE STRUCTURE GLOBALE BENELUX

-  stedegerusten/ agglomérations urbaines
-  suburbane gebieden/ zones suburbaines
-  landelijk gebied onder verstedelijkingsdruk/ zone rurale sous pression d'urbanisation
-  landelijk gebied/ zone rurale
-  regionale steden/ villes régionales
-  kernpunten in landelijk gebied/ noyaux dans la zone rurale
-  kernpunten met een speciale functie voor het omliggend landelijk gebied/ noyaux à vocation spéciale pour la zone rurale environnante
-  openruimte beleid/ politique d'espace ouvert
-  waardevolle landschappen/ paysages de valeur
-  scheidende zones/ zones de séparation
-  stedelijk gebied/ zones d'habitation
-  wegen/ routes
-  vaarwegen/ voies navigables
-  spoorlijnen/ chemins de fer



III. LAND DEVELOPMENT - INSTITUTIONAL, LEGAL AND FISCAL ASPECTS

Fourth working session

1. General introduction into the subject
by Mr Rainer PIEST (Federal Republic of Germany)

General introduction to the subject

1. In the introductory paper to this fourth working session it is intended to list the topics and ask the questions which must be answered from the point of view and based on the experience of the various countries represented here. We will no doubt find that there are considerable differences which may be attributed to the various organisational and decision-making structures concerned. One must know these structures in order to be able to correctly understand and appraise accounts of experience and contributions to discussions. In doing this we must, it is true, distinguish between institutional, legal and fiscal aspects - in practice, however, it is not possible to separate these areas clearly, as they are closely interrelated.

Institutional aspects:

- Who decides how all the various types of land use are distributed in an area; in particular, who decides where and to what extent land is opened up and used for urban development purposes?
- What powers do the various planning authorities and participants have, how do they co-operate? A distinction should be made here between
 - . the role of the state and the distribution of tasks among the various public institutions (eg centralised/decentralised execution of tasks)
 - . the role of private persons (property owners, tenants, etc), enterprises and associations (with non-material concerns).

Legal aspects:

- What laws and other regulations, including possibly those in the technical field, govern the utilisation, servicing and development of land?
 - . What regulations exist?
 - . What experience is there of the application of these instruments, have problems and deficiencies been found?

Fiscal aspects:

- Who intervenes in land use and to what extent by granting financial assistance with a view to steering developments?
- 2. By way of illustration an overview is given of the situation in the Federal Republic of Germany.

2.1 Situation and related trends in regional structure

The Federal Republic of Germany has a fairly favourable settlement structure which has evolved historically. On a distinctly decentralised system of lower-, middle- and higher-order centres agglomerations have formed, in the course of some 150 years of industrialisation, which are relatively well distributed over the whole area. In the broader hinterland of agglomerations a ribbon and satellite structure may often be observed, but as a rule the process of suburbanisation has increasingly extended itself in a ring-shaped pattern into rural areas. The result is a range of average population densities extending from roughly 110 persons per sq km in rural areas to about 765 persons per sq km in agglomerations (and well over 2,000 in the central cities of agglomerations). This highlights the problems of trying nevertheless to achieve as far as possible a balanced regional development.

Development is characterised by three trends:

- a continuing, albeit during the last few years somewhat slower, growth of the settlement area (1);
- growing conflicts among the various types of land-use; and
- conflicting demands made of state regional planning and subregional planning

The chief reasons for the expansion of the settlement area are the increased - and in spite of stagnation or declining population figures - increasing demands for floor space in the field of housing and the increasing space requirements of commercial and industrial enterprises.

The construction of new roads for interregional communications, but especially the provision of roads in built-up areas, has also contributed significantly to the expansion of the settlement area. The share of areas for traffic and transport facilities overall (road, rail and air transport) accounts today for roughly 40 per cent of settlement areas.

(1) Collective term for land used for residential buildings with gardens, for commercial and industrial buildings with ancillary land, for traffic and transport facilities, and for inner urban recreational areas

The shortage of and pressures on open spaces and the growing appreciation of these areas, the intensity of use of agricultural land frequently discussed at present - including more extensive use or setting aside of some of this land - and the necessary provision of land for priority uses exacerbate the conflicts among the various land uses. For this reason, regional planning at state level and subregional planning are increasingly faced with the task of mediating between the conflicting interests. In addition to this, it must influence the development in the region concerned by laying down planning conditions at an early stage such that when projects are implemented conflicts can be largely avoided. Thus, all the possibilities of a space-saving and careful use of land must be exhausted.

2.2 Administrative structure and allocation of tasks

Under the Constitution which came into force in 1949 the Federal Republic of Germany is a country with a federal structure. The country is a federal state consisting of the Federation and eleven Länder. The Länder themselves, as constituent states of the Federal Republic, have their own sovereign power which is not derived from the Federation.

The allocation of powers between the Federation and the Länder gives the Federation a clear predominance in the field of legislation and assigns to the Länder, on the other hand, a major role in the fields of implementation and administration - hence also in the field of regional planning. Under the Constitution the Länder execute, as a matter of principle, not only Land laws but also federal laws as matters of their own concern, ie free from technical instructions issued by the Federation. The Federation merely exercises a control over whether the execution of the federal laws concerned is in accordance with existing law.

As a third administrative level, in addition to the Federation and the Länder, there are communes and local authority associations. They are only subject to the Länder's right to issue instructions in so far as they carry out state functions. They carry out local tasks, within the framework of the relevant laws, autonomously on their own responsibility. These local tasks include - in relation to our topic - for example the planning of the general outlines of land use for the entire area of the commune, in particular with regard to urban development. In this, their own sphere of activity, the local authorities are only subject to state legal control; each Commune determines the appropriateness of its actions itself.

Local self-government is one of the principal elements of the political system of the Federal Republic of Germany. Under this system responsibilities are distributed, as appropriate, among the three administrative levels: the Federation determines the general broad lines of policy, the Länder establish the main features for their particular territory and the communes make the decisions on local development. These three independent administrative levels are, of course, in a variety of ways interdependent; regulations exist governing mutual participation and for resolving conflicts should they arise.

Our experience in the Federal Republic of Germany with this principle of delegating responsibilities as far down as possible - while at the same time paying attention to overriding interests - has been positive.

2.3 Financial system

The economic system of the Federal Republic of Germany is based on the principle of social market economy. This system combines the free initiative of the individual in a competitive economy with the principles of social progress. The Constitution guarantees the freedom of private initiative and private property - this includes in particular the ownership of land - but at the same time attaches social obligations to these basic rights.

The function of the state in a market economy is primarily a regulatory one. It provides the general framework within which the market processes take place. The emphasis is on free and unimpeded competition, in whose workings the state intervenes - as a rule only for social reasons - in order to regulate or provide assistance.

In the Federal Republic of Germany there are no direct fiscal influences on land use (except for property owned by the public authorities). However, there are a number of state assistance measures with other objectives, which also have an indirect impact on land use. These include, for example, regional economic development, the promotion of the improvement of agricultural structure, the promotion of local transport, and urban development assistance.

Such state assistance is in general granted for - mostly unprofitable - preparatory measures carried out by the public authorities, in particular by the communes. They are necessary to generate private investment by builders (individuals, enterprises), who finance the actual building projects. This financing assistance - similarly also tax regulations (1) under federal law - can also indirectly influence land use and soil conservation by being linked to technical and co-ordinating plans and through conditions laid down in guidelines on assistance.

2.4 Legal framework for land-use planning

In accordance with the federal structure of the country, the legislative and administrative responsibilities for the formulation and implementation of land-use planning are also divided among all three administrative levels.

(1) Example: The extension of relief given under the Income Tax Act for new buildings to include the purchase of older residential buildings or the tax concessions granted to facilitate modernisation measures and measures aimed at preserving historic buildings promote the maintenance of the existing building stock; they thus have an impact, in line with the interests of soil conservation, on the development of settlements (inner urban development instead of encroachment on new land).

2.4.1 Regional planning

The Federal Regional Planning Act, which came into force in 1965, only contains general guidelines, aims and principles for regional planning and must therefore be given more concrete expression in laws passed at Land level. On this basis the "Programmatic Priorities of Regional Planning", drawn up in 1985 by the Federal Government, describe the guiding principles of the Federation's future regional planning policy which must be translated into action by the Federal Minister responsible for regional planning - in co-operation with the other Federal Ministers and the Länder.

The main tasks of regional planning are and remain:

- to safeguard the spatial preconditions which must be satisfied in order to provide similar living conditions for the population in all parts of the Federal Republic of Germany;
- to preserve, secure and, where necessary, improve natural resources; and
- to achieve, as far as is possible, a balanced and in the long term viable arrangement of the various types of land use.

In the "Programmatic Priorities" particular attention is attached to environmental requirements. Soil conservation and the sparing use of land together with the protection of ground water and the countryside are singled out as matters of particular concern for regional planning. They should be taken increasingly into account in analysing and assessing the impact of plans and measures and their co-ordination.

In the Federal Regional Planning Act attempts are also being made to bring about a greater co-ordination of environmental requirements and regional planning. Since 1 January 1987 an amendment has been in force which expressly establishes soil conservation as a principle of regional planning. In addition, the Federal Government proposes to make a further amendment of the Federal Regional Planning Act with the aim of reinforcing future-oriented environmental policies. This purpose is served by, among other things, the countrywide introduction of a "regional planning procedure" (for the assessment of the spatial impact of projects) with an integrated environmental impact assessment in accordance with the 1985 EEC Outline Directive.

The implementation of regional planning is left entirely to the Länder, since the distribution of powers laid down in the Constitution grants them responsibility for the concrete development of regional and settlement policies. Under the terms of the Federal Regional Planning Act the Länder have enacted supplementary planning laws. Land development plans present the state-wide programmes and aims of regional planning, which are qualified as a rule in subregional plans.

Subregional planning has its place between regional planning at Land level and master planning at Commune level. It generally falls within the scope of the administration of the Länder and is intended to give concrete expression to the supralocal aims of regional planning, which the local master planning of the Communes must conform to. The Communes and local authority associations together with all agencies dealing with matters of public concern and certain economic and environmental associations are involved in subregional planning, which is of crucial importance for its acceptance.

2.4.2 Urban development planning

Due to its importance at supralocal level, urban development law - building planning law and land law - is regulated in a federal law, the Building Law Code. This law which came into force on 1 July 1987 and has superseded previous laws

- requires land to be used carefully and sparingly
- emphasises the inner urban development of towns and villages
- reinforces environmental protection and future-oriented environmental policies, and co-ordinate landscape protection and nature conservation with master planning
- develops citizen participation further
- adopts the requirements of environmental protection as a redevelopment goal for urban renewal

to mention only the most important points connected with our topic.

The Länder are responsible for laying down the legal requirements which must be met by building projects permissible in planning law terms.

Urban development measures are carried out by the Communes. The Communes formulate their settlement policies in the local government master plans required by law (preparatory land-use plans and - usually based on these - legally binding construction plans). The content of these master plans is decided by the Communes on their own responsibility in accordance with the requirements which have been standardised in the above-mentioned Building Law Code. Each particular Land only has a right to participate in so far as it can monitor the legality of these plans and their compliance with the aims of the supralocal Land development plans or subregional plans. This last mentioned-element constitutes a very important link between the tiered planning levels.

2.5 The Land conservation strategy of the Federal Government

The Federal Government adopted a Land conservation strategy in 1985. This represents the first declaration of principle on integrated and co-ordinated land conservation. It contains basic political aims as well as legal, planning, administrative and scientific proposals for action with a view to "minimising qualitatively and quantitatively problematic inputs of substances from industry and commerce, transport, agriculture and households". The postulated "change of direction in land consumption" reflects the above-mentioned "Programmatic Priorities of Regional Planning", the call for a more careful and sparing use of Land:

"Land use must be better geared to natural locational conditions; this also applies to agriculture. Raw materials must be used sparingly and effectively from an overall economic and ecological point of view. Existing natural areas and areas close to nature must be safeguarded in all cases. The preservation and renewal of the

existing building stock in inner urban areas, space-saving forms of building and the extension of existing traffic routes must be promoted before new building land is designated and development measures carried out. A space-saving configuration of land uses must minimise the use of and pressures on land; to achieve this, greater importance must be attached to ecological requirements in all decision-making processes in the field of planning".

The aims of the land conservation strategy are incorporated into the current projects of the Federal Government (eg in legislation). In addition to this a differentiated package of measures is currently being prepared in close co-operation with the Länder who are responsible in the vast majority of cases for their implementation. In the interests of continuity in environmental policy these measures should be based as far as possible on the existing legal instruments and organisational structures and supplement them.

3. After this example of the differentiated structures of one country let me, by way of generalisation, mention the key words again which might be used as a guide for our discussions:

- role of the various actors in the planning of overall regional development, in its implementation and financing;
- role of the various actors in the planning in particular of settlement development, in its implementation and financing;
- distribution of decision-making powers in the public sector among the various levels, in particular from the point of view of centralisation/decentralisation;
- legal regulations for the steering of the consumption of land in terms of their adequate differentiation and effectiveness / their deficiencies in execution / their need to be supplemented;
- contributions of regional planning as a long-term future-oriented policy aimed at organising land use in general in a manner designed to safeguard resources and aimed above all at steering settlement development to ensure land is used carefully and sparingly.

Discussion

Mr Enter (Netherlands) was wondering how far the government intervention into the market may go.

He said that the private sector would only be interested in function and time but not in design (especially in rural areas). He suggested that the aim of a government's intervention should be to pay attention to the design quality. He was also wondering how to prevent that governments be used just as a risk insurance by the private sector inside a public-private partnership.

Ms Canan Güler (Turkey) replied that public authorities intervened by expropriating land for various uses and establishing infrastructure on urban land especially in areas where the demand for land is high. In Turkey the major aim was to revitalise the housing market and to promote low income housing.

As far as the risks of the private co-operation are concerned she mentioned a model which initiates public and private co-operation firms. Within this model, local authorities enter the market in order to reduce the risks of the private sector.

2. Contribution by Ms Canan GÜLER
(Department of Social Planning, State Planning Institute, Turkey)

ON THE INSTITUTIONAL ASPECTS OF LAND DEVELOPMENT:
OFFICIAL INTERVENTION AND THE ROLE OF PRIVATE SECTOR AND
NON-PROFIT ORGANISATIONS IN LAND DEVELOPMENT

PREFACE

This paper was written for the Council of Europe seminar on "Land-use policies in regional planning - Economic aspects", held in Antalya (Turkey) on 21-15 September 1987.

After highlighting the importance of land, the paper discusses the institutional structure of land development and gives an account of Turkish experience in the matter.

The first part of the paper examines the role of land in urban planning and the relationship between land and planning schemes. In the second part, the institutional structure of land development in Turkey and the transformation thereof in response to changes in economic relations are evaluated. In the third part, the evaluation is concluded and some proposals put forward.

I. THE ROLE OF LAND IN TOWN PLANNING

Land is of course, a limited resource. It should be used first and foremost in order to meet the general needs of society. The role of land is acquiring growing importance especially in rapidly developing cities with increasing population densities. Consequently, land development is the basic element of planning. Unless problems related to land are solved, no sound planning is feasible.

The use of the limited land resource available is determined by the land-use provisions of town-planning schemes according to the principle of public interest.

The relationship between land and town planning

Town planning schemes, which are expected to be prepared with the public interest in mind, determine the main aspects of development and the appropriate densities for several urban functions. They also set the limits to land development rights and organise the pattern of ownership forming the urban infrastructure in several countries, including Turkey (1).

Several economic values may be created on the basis of land. Under the provisions of town-planning schemes, various values have been created on the basis of land in terms of functions and building rights.

Rural areas envisaged as new urban development areas under town-planning schemes benefit from new land-use provisions which lead to an increase in revenue by virtue of the limited availability of urban land. However, the value of surrounding rural areas is determined according to the revenue derived from the type of use to which the land is put.

Urban land also brings advantages to its owner by virtue of its location. Although the total amount of urban land may be increased by town-planning decisions, the owners of such land acquire a monopoly, as well as a capital gain, as a result of the increase in demand for these areas, since the supply of central, accessible land is limited.

Moreover, rehabilitation programmes and social or technical investments carried out by public authorities are further sources of capital gains from urban land. And the bulk of such gains also accrues to the landowners.

In general, the functions of urban land that give rise to the above-mentioned revenues can be evaluated in the light of the following factors:

- Planning permission is granted for urban land under a town-planning scheme.
- Urban land forms a complete entity with the building on it.
- Urban land has the advantage of being connected to the city's existing infrastructure (2).
- Investment made on or around urban land increases the land's market value.
- The land's location and accessibility provide more rent to the landowner.

Income distribution in society is greatly affected by these theoretically defined urban land values (3). Before planning schemes for development are prepared and executed, the value of the area increases and land speculation sets in. The location of land that gains in value is precisely determined by the planning schemes, which are expected to be prepared in the public interest.

One of the important aspects of this subject for developing countries is that not all the urban population live in areas covered by planning schemes. In Turkey, for example, 70 per cent of the urban population live in the spontaneously developed areas of Ankara. Therefore, as a result of land-use arrangements and planning decisions, areas covered by development plans would appreciate in value. Areas which are developed independently of a planning scheme or are not subject to a profitable land-use decision would not be able to benefit from the increases in land values resulting from planning decisions (4).

This is an indication of the dual structure of the land market, where land is developed either on a planned basis or spontaneously.

Interest groups

Interest groups have a dual structure within the land market. This is one of the market mechanisms that emerge either as a result of limited resources or of limited usage of existing resources, determining price levels through the processing of goods. One of these groups is an organised sector of the land market, consisting of

landowners, land users and public institutions. Land users may or may not be property developers. There are also some unorganised interest groups such as owners and tenants of shanties ("gecekodu") (5), those who have more than one shanty and those who speculate in shanties on the other side of the land market.

In this dual structure, land values show a high upward trend as a result of the increase in demand. And spontaneous forms of property development make it difficult to ensure planned development and carry out rehabilitation schemes. The need for measures to change and direct this trend is becoming more and more acute in countries undergoing rapid urbanisation such as Turkey.

Goals, objectives and means of land development

Previously mentioned concepts such as land values, interest groups and the relationship between property development and physical planning should be evaluated as part of an overall policy, and the public interest in a process of rapid urbanisation taken into consideration (6).

The main goal of urban property development is to minimise land problems. The other relevant goals and objectives are as follows (7):

1. To plan urban development and facilitate its implementation:
 - 1.1 To draw up and implement the plan in the name of the public interest and under the control of public organisations.
 - 1.2 To select land for urban development in suitable locations and at the right time, choose the appropriate means of development.
 - 1.3 To facilitate implementation of housing policy and programmes.
 - 1.4 To prevent urban land from remaining unused and empty.
 - 1.5 To prevent the undesirable development schemes in the city.
 - 1.6 To protect natural, cultural and historical values.
2. To control and influence the land values and the resultant revenues by several means.
 - 2.1 To stabilise land values at an acceptable level.
 - 2.2 To take steps to prevent unfair revenues.
 - 2.3 To prevent speculation.
3. To ensure the equality among social groups affected by urban development.
 - 3.1 To ensure equality or balance land costs among similar urban properties.

3.2 To prevent economic losses for those affected by urban development.

3.3 To ensure equality among landowners benefiting from urban land development.

The main means and instruments that may be used in determining and implementing land policies in this framework may be defined as follows: planning instruments, taxation instruments, market instruments, financial support instruments and administrative instruments (8).

These instruments have either a direct or indirect relationship with the goals and objectives stated above. Each relationship is defined in the table below, which gives a conspectus of land development and intervention instruments. The meanings of the signs used in the table are as follows:

(*) directly effective relationship.

(0) indirectly or less effective relationship.

Instruments of land policy

Planning instruments

1. Public planning monopoly
2. Building prohibitions/restrictions

Taxation instruments

3. Property tax
4. Annual site value tax
5. Land value increment tax
6. Income tax on land
7. Tax on commercial sales
8. Tax on building rights
9. Penalty tax on vacant lots
10. Special tax exemptions
11. Land transfer duty
12. Development charges
13. Servicing/betterment charges

Market instruments:

14. Land purchase on open market
15. Exchange of land
16. Selling of land
17. Private/public development companies
18. Advanced servicing of development land

Financial support instruments:

19. Acquisition loans/subsidies
20. Land price conditions for housing loans
21. Payment by municipal bonds

Administrative instruments:

22. Nationalisation

23. Municipalisation
24. Recapture of unearned increment
25. Limitation of acquisition rights
26. Regulation of land prices
27. Limitation of building rights
28. Expropriation
29. Pre-emption rights
30. Compulsory replotting
31. Land division instrument
32. Building appeal in respect of unbuilt lots
33. Protection of nature/cultural objects
34. Regulations on specific urban areas
35. Land banks
36. Leasing of land
37. Development agreements
38. Land register
39. Property valuation
40. Urban land policy staff
41. Land administration questions
42. Land policy programmes
43. Land policy research, information systems

TABLE: GOALS, OBJECTIVES AND INSTRUMENTS OF LAND POLICY

GOALS: OBJECTIVES:	1						2			3		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	1	2	3
INSTRUMENTS:												
PLANNING INSTRUMENTS												
1. Public planning monopoly	*	.	*	.	*	*	0	.
2. Building prohib/monopoly	*	*
TAXATION INSTRUMENTS												
3. Property tax	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	1	2	3
4. Annual site value tax	0	0	0	*	.	.	*	*	*	.	.	*
5. Land value increment tax	0	0	0	*	.	.	.	*	*	.	.	*
6. Income tax on land	0	0
7. Tax on commercial sales	0
8. Tax on building rights	0	0	0	*	.	.	*
9. Penalty tax vacant lots	.	*	*	*	.	.	.	*	*	.	.	.
10. Special tax exemptions	.	0	0
11. Land transfer duty	0	0	.	.	.
12. Development charges	0	0	0	0	0
13. Servicing/better char.	0	0	0	0	0
MARKET INSTRUMENTS												
14. Land purchase (open market)	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	1	2	3
15. Exchange of land	*	*	*	0	0	0	*	0	.	*	.	.
16. Selling of land	.	*	*	0	0	.	0
17. Private/public dev.comp.	.	*	*	0
18. Advanced service dev. land	.	0	.	0	0	.	0
FINANCIAL SUPPORT INSTRUMENTS												
19. Acquisition loans/subsidi.	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	1	2	3
20. Land price cond. forh. loans	.	0	0	.	.	0	*
21. Payment by municipal bonds	0	0
ADMINISTRATIVE INSTRUMENTS												
22. Nationalisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	1	2	3
23. Municipalisation	*	.	0	*	.	0	0	0	.	*	.	*
24. Recapture unearned incr.	*	*	*	*	*	0	0	0	0	*	.	*
25. Limit. acquisition rights	0	0	0	*	*	.	.	0
26. Regulation of land prices	.	.	0	.	*	.	*
27. Limitation building rights	0	.	.	.	*	*	.	.	.	0	.	0
28. Expropriation	.	*	*	0	0	*	.	0	0	*	0	.
29. Pre-emption rights	0	0	0	0	0	*	*	.
30. Compulsory replotting	0	0	0	0	*	*
31. Land division instrument	.	0	0	.	.	.	0
32. Build. appeal unbuilt lots	.	*	*	*
33. Protect. nature/cultural	0	*
34. Regulat. specif. urban areas	.	.	*	.	*	*
35. Land banks/land pooling	0	*	0	.	0
36. Leasing of land	.	.	*	.	.	.	*	*	*	*	.	.
37. Development agreements	*	*	0	0	0	0	.
38. Land register	.	.	.	0	0	0	.	0
39. Proper valuation	0	0	0	.	*	.
40. Urban land policy staff	.	0	0	.	0	0	.	*	*	.	0	0
41. Land administ. questions	.	0	0	.	0	0	0	*	*	.	0	0
42. Land policy programmes	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
43. Land pol. res. info. sys.	.	0	.	0	.	0	0	0	0	.	0	.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	1	2	3

II. INSTITUTIONAL STRUCTURE OF LAND DEVELOPMENT

Evaluation of the institutional structure of land development requires an evaluation of mechanisms other than urbanisation and planning, as mentioned in the previous chapter. This is important in terms of achieving unity since land consists of multidimensional relations.

It will be useful to consider the institutional transformation of land development in order to evaluate the role of public and private sectors on the land market as a whole, including such aspects as change in economic conditions and production relations, urban land functions, property rights, housing finance and marketing models. The institutional structure of land development is analysed in this paper from the standpoint of changes in Turkey and the housing production process.

Functions of land

As the economic relationship changes from small-scale production to production for the open market, the functions of land are modified.

In the first case, the land is regarded simply as a place where a building can be erected. In the second case, it becomes an object of speculation, and ownership of the land is used as a means to obtain a capital gain, because demand for urban land increases as rapid urbanisation takes place.

Land provides a safe home for savings as it keeps its value, even in high-inflation economies (9).

As urbanisation has progressed in Turkey, land has become an important object of speculation and investment, particularly in metropolitan and coastal regions.

Property rights

Property rights have also changed. Single-plot property rights have been transformed into another type of right with the provision of housing for middle-income groups and the increase in land values (10).

The Multiownership Act made it possible for more than one family to own property on the same plot. As a result, changes in social structures and spatial organisation have occurred and inner-city land prices have tended to increase as the capital gain obtainable from land rose.

Housing production

Mainly as a result of increases in land prices and under the effect of the provisions of the Multiownership Act, land ownership has started to differ from entrepreneurship in land development. In order to develop a plot, it is no longer necessary to be its owner. And it has become common for flat ownership to be granted to the former landowner in return for the value of the land.

Small entrepreneurs have succeeded in penetrating the land market in spite of increasing land prices, through the mechanism which has developed as a result of individual demand, which is usually called "yap-sat" (build-sell) (11). In high-inflation economies the builder-seller does not invest in land purchase at the outset; after completion of the construction, he sells the flats or dwellings and obtains a big profit as costs increase rapidly and because the market price of the product is determined after construction.

The build-sell mechanism, which became widespread after 1955 in Turkey, was one of the factors which caused housing areas or urban sectors to develop homogeneously. Generally speaking, land subject to the build-sell process has a high value and the requirement of giving the landowner some ownership rights in the construction in return for the land value has led to full use of building rights and prompted builder-sellers to become a pressure group in order to obtain more building rights over land (12).

These institutional changes in property ownership have particularly increased demand for land in central areas and their surroundings and led to changes in building rights. As part of this process the built environment has been pulled down and rebuilt. In Ankara, for example, rebuilding has been done several times. In this way, the build-sell mechanism has played an important role in the development of highly populated urban areas which usually have insufficient social and technical infrastructures.

During this transformation period, the spatial organisation of land was approached in a different manner and a co-ownership arrangement has developed, paving the way for an "estate" pattern of building.

This development has created a suitable basis for the production of collective housing (13).

Similarly, another organisational model emerged for meeting the housing demand of middle-income groups. In new land development schemes the developer does not buy a big plot and develop it, but those in need of housing join together on a co-operative basis. The provision of housing on such a basis is calculated to satisfy the general needs of society more fully and is more in line with the public's wishes regarding design and amenities. The houses produced in this way are similar to those produced for the market (14).

In order to achieve planned land development, the build-sell mechanism should be eradicated. In fact, attempts to eradicate it began in Turkey with the collective housing schemes launched in 1973 onwards. Collective housing arrangements ensured a transition from the self-organisation of demand to the establishment of a specialised marketing institution. Multidimensional changes in several fields, such as housing design, management of housing environment, marketing of housing and engineering technologies have taken place. The most important step in this direction was taken with the Batikent housing project in Turkey.

As houses are being constructed in steadily increasing numbers, credit mechanisms and housing demand are being organised so as to establish a balance between housing demand and supply through mass

housing. The establishment concerned approaches credit institutions on the market on behalf of would-be house-owners, brings designers and consumers into contact and prevents each consumer from interfering with the complex planning process.

The fact that this new institution in Turkey is aimed at high and middle-income groups, together with the profit motive of the private sector, makes it necessary to co-ordinate public institutions for the integration of low-income groups into the system (15).

Financial structures

In the transition from one house on a single plot to mass housing built on estates, the system of finance has also changed. Before land acquired a speculative value, there was a supply of resources only for persons who received credits. As land gained a speculative value, such banks as Emlak Kredi Bankasi which specialise in lending money for housing were established (16). But bank lending could not be directed towards the majority of the population in need of housing and, because of increasing inflation, low-interest and long-term loans could not be made widely available.

New funds were established through central state organisations for social security, and some of these funds have become available for housing construction. In Turkey, a transition from bank-type finance to a finance model based on social security institutions (eg Bag-Kur, Oyak) took place between 1950 and 1960. But the use of these limited social security funds for the purpose of providing housing has not materialised. Incidentally, the supply of rental housing decreased and the desire to own housing became stronger as a result of the possibility of making capital gains from house ownership.

Thus, the provision of housing that should accompany rapid urbanisation has become a problem, and the institutional arrangements have lost their effectiveness for feasible solutions such as rental housing policies. At the same time, pressure has emerged to make the government intervene in the rental housing market in order to satisfy the increasing housing demand.

The following are the funds established in Turkey in order to meet the financial needs of settlement areas in the framework of policies aimed at solving the urbanisation and housing problems (17).

1. Housing funds: funds set up under Shantytown Act No. 775 for the provision of rental and low-cost housing; Mass Housing and Public Partnership Fund (established in 1984).
2. Funds of social security institutions: Institute of Social Security, Bag-Kur, Oyak, Meyak.
3. Local government funds: funds established with allocations from municipal and provincial authorities' budgets.
4. Industrial Estate Fund: fund used for settlement areas of small and organised industrial estates.
5. Special-purpose funds: funds for disaster relief and land settlement, especially as part of rural redevelopment and rehabilitation schemes.

6. Land Office funds: the Office's assets are used for settlement areas and infrastructure.

7. Funds of the Emlak Kredi Bank: assets used for purchasing land for new settlement areas which are limited by the amount of bonds issued on the market and the capital available for mass-housing production.

8. Other sources: land owned by the Treasury, various foundations, provincial authorities and municipalities.

In short, we have an organisational structure on the land market that is parallel to housing production and begins with individual demand and develops into co-operation schemes, build-sell arrangements and collective housing. The changes and transformations of the institutional structure of land development include the control exercised by public authorities over urban land in order to ensure that plans are drawn up and executed in a manner consistent with the public interest.

Land development in Turkey followed a trend parallel to that of housing production, as explained above, and public authority impact on land resources has been effected by such mechanisms as the control of land prices on the market through expropriation.

While the administrative structure in Turkey involves both central and local institutions, the biggest progress has been made by central authorities. Local authorities, particularly municipalities, have made too little effort to deal with urban land problems for several reasons.

Decisions concerning land use are taken according to the public-interest considerations approved by provincial governors and the relevant Ministry or institutions. In order to implement town-planning schemes, municipalities may expropriate land and limit the development of urban land use through the above-mentioned instruments.

In Turkey, land problems gained in importance with the initiation of discussions on shantytown areas and the problems, they raise in cities. One of the most important measures taken by central authorities to ensure properly planned urban development was the establishment of the General Directorate of the Land Office in 1969. It is connected to the Ministry of Public Works and Housing.

The Office has important functions regarding the distribution of land by the state and the control of land prices. Basically, its responsibilities are as follows:

- Supplying land for housing, industry, tourism and various public-service uses by means of agreements, transfers of land expropriated, purchases, etc;
- Expropriating the necessary areas for these uses with the approval of the Ministry;
- Building up land reserves in order to prevent land speculation in the pursuit of the above-mentioned goals.

- Drawing up plans for expropriated land according to the Ministry's criteria, selling, renting or reappportioning land, establishing a servitude over land, either with or without the provision of infrastructure.

- Carrying out other works in connection with these operations.

The Office is organised at both central and regional level. At central level it consists of the following divisions: land purchasing and selling and transfer works; planning and construction works; maps, application and parcellation works; personnel and administrative works; financial works; inspection and legal supervision. At regional level the Office comprises a series of directorates.

By November 1986 the Office had expropriated land for the following functions:

Industry (47.4%)

Housing (32.3%)

Craft activities (16.1%)

Public services (3.2%)

Tourism (1.0%)

As may be seen, tourism plays a very small part in the Office's activities. This is mainly because land expropriation for the purposes of tourism is the responsibility of the Ministry of Culture and Tourism.

The Office's activities have had no decisive impact on the land market, nor have they provided any effective solutions to land problems. This is because it has failed to create land resources at the right time and in sufficient quantity during the rapid urbanisation process. This failure is due to such factors as a shortage of funds, a lack of collaboration between organisations and planning authorities and a lack of a clear public land policy.

It is now necessary to transform the Land Office into an active programming structure that operates in harmony with other planning bodies. However, it seems rather difficult for this central institution to ensure the requisite co-ordination with applications at national level.

To solve land problems, it is necessary to enable the Land Office to perform more efficiently its task of creating land resources cheaply and in sufficient quantities as well as making land owned by other public institutions available at the right time and on the proper terms for market consumption. At the same time, a balance needs to be established between land supply and demand by controlling and guiding developments which create a need for land.

The public authorities are unable to establish adequate and effective control over the land market. This is due to a lack of clarity in housing and land policies, the inadequacy of credit mechanisms and the failure to provide them with an appropriate statutory basis.

It is still necessary to reorganise the legal aspects of land development for the purpose of orienting the various related activities. However, the matter assumed new dimensions with the implementation of the Mass Housing Act and establishment of the Mass Housing Fund in 1984, such as the possibility of regulating the use of credits and creating the necessary resources.

The concepts related to urban growth, such as settlement, planning and implementation which are controlled and organised by public authorities as well as the role of the public sector in the orientation of urban development, have become important as a result of this new Act (18).

Another development has been the introduction of public partnership bonds, constituting a mechanism for the transfer of revenue to industry, especially for major projects requiring huge sums of money for expropriation purposes.

In short, the Mass Housing Act has played a significant role both in increasing the importance of planning in urban land policy and in facilitating the implementation of such planning (19). It is also an important basis for official control of land development.

At local level, some housing projects have begun. One of these, the Batikent housing project is part and parcel of public policy in the matter (20). It differs in both scale and organisation from the land and housing development schemes carried out up to 1974. The project was launched by the Municipality of Ankara and was the first one to establish an upper echelon of co-operatives (the Union of Housing Co-operatives - "Kent-Koop" - established in 1979). Thus, a new land development structure was created through the organisation of the housing production process.

From 1980 onwards land development and the orientation of urban growth were subjected to the government's decentralisation policy. In 1985, the policy was implemented as part of the Cukurova Metropolitan Region Urban Development Project.

This project involved establishing a number of bodies separate from the municipalities, called Housing and Urban Development Companies (HUDC), in order to deal particularly with land and housing development. An HUDC has two important functions. One is to provide land for urban development together with the necessary infrastructure, at a price that neither exceeds the purchasing power of low-income households nor falls short of the development costs. The other is to make urban development feasible in both economic and fiscal terms in accordance with the cost recovery concept.

In this way, progress has been achieved in the initiation of collaboration between the public and the private sector in land development, and a new institutional structure has been created by the public authorities through the establishment of non-profit organisations.

III. CONCLUSION

In short, rural land is being transformed into urban land through the provisions of town planning schemes which bring substantial rents to landowners. The following are the measures that need to be taken in order to balance the distribution of capital gains from land, control urban development more satisfactorily and meet the public's demand in relation to town planning schemes:

1. The concept of public interest should be clarified in the preparation of town planning schemes, which also means reorganising the pattern of land ownership.
2. Planning institutions should be established, developed and managed which operate continuously and vigorously; a link should be established between policies and actions; and public investment should be evaluated with the inclusion of the spatial dimension.
3. Land speculation should be prevented, especially beyond the boundaries of municipalities.
4. The existing urban structure should not be subjected to planning decisions which would cause an increase in density, and new urban developments should be carried out in unbuilt areas.
5. The existing urban structure should be rehabilitated and the limited land resources should be reassessed, especially in central commercial districts and transitional zones.
6. The population pattern of the country should be evaluated in a national and regional framework in order to create new populated areas or support existing ones which play an important role in the present and future stratification of the population pattern.
7. Any increase in the value of land as a result of changes made by planning decisions, public investment and the provision of social and technical infrastructures should be transferred to the community by virtue of taxation on capital gains. This will also help to balance income distribution in urban areas and the society.
8. The system of co-operative ownership should be encouraged in respect of urban land.
9. Measures should be taken to control land prices through intervention on the urban land market and through the co-ordination of related organisations at central and local level such as public, private and non-profit institutions dealing with urban land development.

In conclusion, having regard to the various administrative, financial and planning aspects, it seems difficult to entrust the responsibility for the development of urban land in Turkey to either the public or the private sector. At the same time it is difficult to alleviate the negative influence of the system of land ownership on the process of urbanisation.

The land development system should be entrusted to a mixed structure composed of the above-mentioned institutions. In addition, further structural changes should be made on a broad scale so as to cover all aspects of land development and provide for the various types of supply and demand on the land market on the basis of the priorities defined earlier.

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2. TEKELİ İlhan and others, Gecekondu, isportali, Dolmuşlu, Şehir, Ankara 1976.
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ON LEGAL ASPECTS: LAND USE CONTROL MEASURES

INTRODUCTION

The following considerations on the topic have the Swiss situation as their background. Their relevance to other states is therefore to be judged according to the characteristics in the state concerned. However, I believe we can take it that no state can do without legal regulation of the possession and use of land. Private and public interests are invariably and universally in conflict. There has never been complete self-regulation of interests. The extent of public interference in people's relationship with the soil depends on various factors. The following are prominent in the Swiss perspective :

- The soil is a vital element : As part of the cycle of matter, the soil stores water and filters out pollutants. As an essential of life, it allows the growth and survival of humans, animals and plants. It yields agricultural and forestry products, as well as raw materials such as stone and minerals. Society's activities, ie residence and employment, traffic and communication and leisure and recreation take place on its surface. It is an object of capital investment.

- Land is scarce in our country : the 6,4 million or so inhabitants occupy about half of the 41,000 km² territory. Forest and unproductive areas such as mountains and lakes constitute the other half.

- There is strong competition for land : being so scarce and serving so many functions, land eventually becomes the subject of inevitable conflicts between uses which preserve it (eg agriculture) or transform it (eg buildings and installations). The latter uses are steadily displacing the former. In the last 30 years the settled area has doubled. The loss of valuable crop land continues, and the contradictions raised by conflicting interests are becoming more numerous each year. Residential, craft and industrial requirements, the demands of roads, railways, services and other supply installations, together with agricultural and leisure needs, are waging a relentless struggle for the soil. Nor does society have any basic conventions regarding the relative importance and priority of the conflicting land-use interests.

- Soil quality is endangered : wholesale environmental pollution and over-exploitation gravely imperil soil quality. The soil is threatened in the same way as water and air. Atmosphere pollutants are usually precipitated onto the soil, and water pollutants, also penetrate the soil as a result of evaporation of precipitation. The soil is further imperilled by traces of pesticides and fertiliser residues, sludge from sewage works and seepage from refuse dumps. In addition, heavy machines compress the comparatively thin humus layer of 10 to 15 cm.

- Land rehabilitation is difficult : "Soil is one of humanity's most precious assets (but) is easily destroyed". This sentence from the European Soil Charter of the Council of Europe is intended to emphasise by the use of the word "destroy" that the soil's original condition is impossible to recreate, at least in the short term. Once land is built over it usually remains so, and consequently becomes unavailable for other uses. The scope for future developments may thus be considerably restricted. As opposed to water and air, which can be purified within a reasonable time through appropriate action, soil regeneration takes centuries.

Legislative challenges arise from this situation. Since land is scarce, the primary concern is moderation in its use, and in so doing, the following principles must be observed.

- Varied uses - buildings, agriculture, recreation, nature conservation etc - are to be ensured. Profit-making uses (eg building land) should not preclude other uses (eg agriculture, protection of biotopes, recreation etc). A balance must be struck between the various types of uses ; any regulation of use must be the outcome of a scrupulous reconciliation of interests taking account of the land's capabilities before all else.

- Careful land use is equally important : workshop, industrial, commercial, vehicle and agricultural pollutants should be reduced to a minimum. Application of fertiliser and pesticides is to be carried out with more restraint than hitherto. Air and water pollution must decrease appreciably, and building and mechanised farming must be conducted with greater forethought. Finally, rational crop rotation is to be applied.

Regulations alone cannot meet these requirements : alteration in human behaviour is also necessary.

We expect far too much of land in using it for building and agriculture and as an economic asset. Self-interest predominates in both public and private sector competition for land and uses thereof. Moreover, there is too little consideration of the threats to the soil which arise, for instance, when agriculture is required to produce cheap provisions and prime fruit and vegetables regardless of the intensive use of pesticides and fertilisers, which this entails or when people on weekend outings to the country demand every imaginable tourist attraction without heeding the repercussions (erosion, eyesores etc), or again when there is no effort to discover and make available sensible alternatives to land wastage by building sprawl in green areas.

Swiss land law

Swiss land law comprises all legal provisions governing land use and public and private ownership and thus offering solutions and settlements in the frequent conflicts of interests. There are land law provisions at every level, whether in constitutional law, administrative law or private law. Some particulars are given below.

- Constitutional level :

The Federal Constitution has a multitude of provisions of importance to land law. These stem from the fundamental property right stipulated by Article 22 ter of the Federal Constitution and covering movable and real property. The constitutional guarantee of possession, according to generally accepted writings and practice, is to be regarded as the legal institution safeguarding private property in its inviolable essentials as a basic concept of the Swiss legal system, together with its attendant rights of private use and ownership (BGE 105 Ia 140 E. 3a ; 103 Ia 418 E. 2). A public law limitation of ownership is only allowable when it has sufficient legal foundation, serves an overriding public interest and observes the proportionality rule. Expropriation and restriction of ownership which are tantamount to expropriation attract full compensation. The inviolable nucleus of the constitutional guarantee thus consists of the institutional guarantee and the guarantee of compensation (guarantee of value, Art. 22ter paras. 1 and 3, Federal Constitution).

Under the current legal system, property is guaranteed strictly within legal limits (Constitution, Art. 22ter para. 2). The property guarantee is thus on an equal footing with various other constitutional provisions affecting property law and land law. Where land law is concerned, Article 22quater of the Federal Constitution relating to spatial planning, and Article 31bis para. 3(b) on rural land ownership, deserve special mention. Also to be mentioned are the provisions on public construction (Article 23), supervision of water engineering and forestry (Art. 24), water conservation (Art. 24bis), environmental protection (Art. 24septies), national highways (Art. 36bis) and tracks and footpaths (Art. 37quater).

Article 64 lastly establishes the Federation's legislative competence in the area of civil law, and this is also of importance to real property law.

The foregoing list shows that the Federal Constitution's provisions applying to real property law are many and varied. Conversely, there is no overall policy concept regarding ownership.

- Legislative level

The principal legislative texts relate to the following fields :

- Civil Code and supplementary and implementing provisions thereto (law of matrimonial property, law of succession, ownership, joint ownership, collective ownership, ownership of floors of buildings, easements, encumbrances, agricultural ownership (disencumberment and upkeep of agricultural property) and purchase of real estate by persons residing abroad) ;
- liability law with its supplementary and implementing provisions (rental, lease, contract for services, measures against abuses in letting) ;
- conservation of nature and landscape ;
- tax law (tax on value, income from land and sale profit ; causal taxes ; compensation for added value created by development ; succession duty) ;
- spatial planning (co-ordination of spatial planning functions ; balanced allocation of land among the various types of use) ;
- environmental protection (soil conservation) ;
- right of the Federation and cantons to expropriate ;
- water conservation ;
- promotion of housing construction and ownership ;
- agricultural law (land improvement, consolidation of parcels) ;

- forestry ;
- agricultural leasing (rent controls) ;
- cantonal building and planning law.

Correspondences between spatial planning and environmental protection
in relation to quantitative land preservation

The Spatial Planning Act (LAT), since it covers in particular the
economical use of land - ie the quantitative aspect of its preservation - is one
of the most important pieces of legislation in the extremely varied field of land
law. The qualitative aspect is the subject of a provision which came into force
several years later, the Environmental Protection Act (LPE) aimed at preserving
humans, animals and plants, protecting their biocenoses and environments from damage
and nuisances and maintaining the "fertility of the soil". Let us now consider
the correspondances between these two basic texts of land law :

Points of convergence :

Spatial planning is intended to serve the ends of "judicious use"
and "orderly settlement" of the land (Federal Constitution, Art. 22quater para. 1),
while environmental protection is designed to protect "man and his natural environment"
against "damage or nuisances", particularly air pollution and noise (Art. 24 septies,
para. 1). Comparison of the aims of these two national duties shows that they are
substantively associated. This is still more apparent where the law is concerned :

In the performance of their planning activities, planning authorities
are to take account of the "natural conditions" (Section 1(1), Regional Planning
Act LAT). Under Section 1(2), acts of spatial planning are to support efforts to
protect the "natural foundations of life". Residential areas are to be
preserved from "damage of nuisances such as noise and vibrations" (Section 3(3)).
In the determination of rational criteria for siting buildings and installations
which are publicly owned or in the public interest, their adverse effects
on the "natural environment" are to be averted or generally kept to a minimum
(Section 3(3) LAT). Areas "seriously threatened with impairment" are to be
identified in master plans in accordance with the principles governing them
(Art. 6(2) LAT). Lastly, the general provisions on areas in need of protection
cater for protection requirements in the preparation of the allocation schemes
which regulate land use.

Environmental protection under the Environmental Protection Act LPE
extends this substantive correspondence and clarifies the points of convergence
between conservation and spatial planning, for instance in stipulating planning
values for new building areas (Sections 23 and 24(1), and the re-allocation
of hitherto undeveloped building land where the planning values are exceeded
(Section 24(2), and restricting the possibilities for issue of building permits
(Section 23). The Act further requires the selection of suitable sites for
refuse dumps and other disposal installations (Section 31(5)).

Contrasts

The aforementioned points of convergence indicate the potential conflicts between these two national functions. Whether and to what extent these conflicts really occur can only be ascertained in full knowledge of spatial planning and environmental protection characteristics. On closer investigation, distinct contrasts are observed regarding the object and form of the regulations applying to each.

Spatial planning is concerned with "space" and the organisation thereof, so that logically air and water must be included in the applicable regulations.

The aims of spatial planning under the Constitution, namely careful land use and orderly settlement, nevertheless make it clear that Article 24 quater of the Constitution concentrates on land use, so that soil, air and water purity as such are not subjects of spatial planning.

Environmental protection, on the other hand, is concerned precisely with the subjects not taken in by spatial planning regulations, viz. protection against air pollution, preservation of soil-fertility, noise abatement (Article 24 septies of the Constitution, Section 1 LPE). Water purity is covered by water conservation legislation (Article 24 bis para. 2 of the Constitution).

There are also major contrasts in the form of these regulations. Spatial planning is an organisational and directive government function which entails definition of aims/adoption of measures, analysis of effects and review of aims. Spatial planning is dynamic and on-going; its conduct requires the balancing and optimisation of the interests involved. Consequently, the Spatial Planning Act features a whole range of provisions on objectives, procedures, allocation of functions etc, but no set standards of comparison. The functions, implementation and effects of planning are indicated, but not the actual content.

Environmental protection, on the other hand, invests the State with a duty of protection and conservation. It establishes limit values in respect of human health and well-being and nature and supervises their observance. It serves a function of demarcation and supervision according to standards largely unrelated to legislation. Predetermined standards are used to define what is admissible and harmful, clean and unclean. The balancing of interests is therefore not the central concern of environmental protection.

Spatial planning and environmental protection as vital activities for rational control of land-use.

Does environmental protection take priority over, or rather depend on, spatial planning. This question is meaningless as it proceeds from the assumption of competition and subordination between the two activities. Spatial planning and environmental protection are on an equal footing as indeed are all responsibilities under the Constitution - and both are equally significant for rational control of land use.

There are absolute limit values, the disregard of which leads to health hazards. These values are admittedly established in the environmental protection sphere and apply to the other fields of governmental activity, including spatial planning. Environmental protection takes "priority" from this angle. However, such limit values are obviously safety devices in any activity and must therefore be taken into account in the decision-making process attaching to any substantive competence.

Apart from these limit values, the other principles of environmental protection are relative. They can be formulated solely in the light of specific uses and in relation to other uses. Whether these values assume a tangible form depends largely on spatial planning. In this respect, spatial planning and environmental protection go hand in hand; environmental protection is but one of many factors in spatial planning activities: spatial planning is, inter alia, a preventive environmental protection activity. Spatial planning, in accordance with the aims and principles of the relevant Act, duly takes account of the concerns of environmental protection in the judicious allocation of land to the various uses. Spatial planning can thus be of assistance in obviating or at least reducing subsequent environmental protection measures.

Conflicts between environmental protection and spatial planning can largely be avoided if spatial planning incorporates the limit values of environmental protection at an early stage and environmental protection for its part is guided by the basic spatial planning regulations as a whole.

Further development of land law

The law of immovable property has been on the move for a long time in Switzerland.

At the beginning of the sixties there was great controversy over the proposal by the Swiss Farmers' Union for the creation of an agricultural zone under Federal law. The initiative concerning real property law by the Swiss Social Democratic Party and the Swiss Confederation of Trade Unions also made waves. The farmers' aspirations were legally impracticable at the time, and the initiative, which was aimed at the promotion of local, regional and national planning and the introduction of a right of pre-emption in the interests of the community, was rejected by the nation and the Council of States in 1967. Yet an undercurrent remained; on 14 September 1969 the "real property law" articles of the Constitution - Article 22 ter on the guarantee of possession and Article 22 quater on spatial planning - were adopted by referendum.

In the seventies there was a further initiative on the subject of land law by the Social Democratic Party. The text of the petition expressly stipulated the social obligation attaching to property and bound the Confederation to ensure a wide redistribution of land to ensure its private use. The initiative nevertheless failed to arouse sufficient enthusiasm, ran into trouble with the number of signatures and was withdrawn in 1978. During the same period, land law questions appeared on the agendas of most other Swiss parties, and lastly we should not overlook the small group of farmers in Vaud who came to grief in December 1979 with 80,000 signatures to their "Delafontaine Initiative" against land speculation.

All the foregoing efforts to bring about changes in real property law were overshadowed by the conflicts concerning the Federal Spatial Planning Act. As early as 1972 the Federal Council, in accordance with the constitutional direction in Article 22 quater of the Constitution, referred its Federal bill to Parliament. Debate in the two chambers continued through the years 1973 and 1974. A referendum to oppose its promulgation met with success on 4 October 1974, and the nation rejected it by a narrow majority on 13 June 1976. The very next day, a motion agreed to by both chambers entrusted the Federal Council with the speedy drafting of a new bill which was approved by both chambers on 22 June 1979 and took effect on 1 January 1980. This law is also the outcome of a decade filled with debate over land law.

Now that we have reached the mid-eighties, land law is still under discussion. A National Council committee is considering the call by Mr. Bundi M.P. for the revision of Article 22 ter of the Constitution. The committee has suspended its proceedings, pending information as to the outcome of other moves for reform in the sphere of land law (overall revision of the Constitution, agricultural land law, the "town and country initiative against land speculation"). Here are a few additional details on the subject:

- . On 16 December 1985 the Federal Council published its communication on the "town and country initiative" against land speculation", tabled on 24 May 1983 with some 112,000 signatures. It advocated the rejection of the initiative without opposing it by an alternative project either at constitutional or at statutory level. Parliament supported this proposal. The national referendum will take place early in 1988.
- . Also on 16 December 1985, the Federal Council released the report of an interdepartmental working party on the development of land law. It dealt with the following legal areas : agricultural land law and leasehold, spatial planning, tax law, public capital investment in the real property market and private ownership.
- . On 26 March 1986 the Federal Council supplemented the Spatial Planning Order so as to secure crop areas, ie arable land, required to feed the population in case of disruption of supplies. Master plans and allocation plans should keep these areas in a condition for crop-growing without complications.
- . Lastly, mention should be made of agricultural land law, the subject of a Federal bill to be debated by Parliament in the Spring of 1988.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, I should like to put forward a few general considerations regarding the future development of land law:

Land law is highly diversified, has extensive ramifications and therefore virtually precludes an overview. It is closely associated in various ways with the constitution's economic and social provisions and with the civil law system. The effects of fundamental reforms to land law which diverge radically from the applicable law now make it virtually impossible to discern the interrelations. Responsible legal policy therefore requires that any alterations to land law which are deemed expedient should rather be carried out by degrees and confined to well-defined areas so that the resultant changes remain coherent and controllable.

Would-be land reformers must also bear in mind the fact that requirements are by no means uniform. Farmers, for instance, make different demands on property law than do other sectors of the population, the economy or the community, which need land primarily for settlement purposes, viz. housing, industry, craft, traffic, services, etc. Consequently, questions regarding the right to dispose of land, for instance in relation to agricultural land law, can only be settled properly once it has been made clear how land is to be allocated among the various types of use. Spatial planning law thus has a vital function in the subsequent development of land law.

Discussion:

Mr Al (Netherlands) stressed the need of a planning law which should always be flexible in order not to run behind the facts. It should also be in accordance with other legislation. This problem should be solved in Turkey.

Mr Baschung (Switzerland) agreed and talked about bills in Switzerland in the 60's which had been too detailed. Therefore the legislation should give more latitude to those who are carrying out the law.

4. Contribution by Mr Vincent RENARD
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ON "LAND DEVELOPMENT - FISCAL ASPECTS:
METHODS OF CREATING RESOURCES FOR LAND DEVELOPMENT"

1. Financial and fiscal aspects of land development

Introduction

Whereas the value of farmland is largely determined by its fertility, that of building land depends mainly on what it is legally permissible and economically feasible to erect on it.

It is the purpose of urban development and town planning regulations to specify land uses with reference to the public interest. But regulations have a pronounced effect on land values, usually causing building land prices to rise steeply. Thus the problem is to find financial and fiscal methods which will simultaneously help the community to derive benefit from the higher land prices and create the incentive to observe and implement town planning specifications.

An essential stage in an urban development project is the provision of certain community facilities (roads, drainage, utilities, etc). The cost of funding these improvements may be passed on to the taxpayer, the builder or the landowner benefiting from the resulting increase in the value of the land. Each country has its own answer to the problem, which may be judged by criteria of equity (to be defined) and efficiency (choice of facilities, compatibility with the area development plan).

This is a particularly important issue at a time when planning is generally in a state of crisis, deregulation is the order of the day and negotiation and flexibility are coming to be seen as basic principles.

It is especially important in countries like France, where the problems are changing.

The main problems are now

- to breathe new life into decaying districts;
- to reclaim land which industry has abandoned;
- to curb the abandonment of farmland (three million hectares have stopped being cultivated in France over the last ten years).

No fiscal machinery (land tax, rules governing the financing of facilities) can produce satisfactory results on its own. It can be effective only if properly integrated with town planning.

If fiscal machinery is completely dissociated from physical planning, it is likely to be counter-productive.

2. Land taxation and development

- Tax on capital gains realised in the course of transactions

This is a means of recovering capital gains at the time when they are realised. There are European countries which have no such machinery.

Without going into the very complicated technical details of the taxation of capital gains, I would point to two reasons for being somewhat cautious about passing judgment:

- In strictly fiscal terms, this form of taxation is not very productive. Because of a complex system of tax allowances, exemptions and degression, the tax does not apply to most transactions;

- As far as the fairness of the system is concerned, the results are not convincing. If the land market is tight, as it was during the period in question, the tax due is, to a large extent, passed on to the buyer. If the market is not tight, the fact that the tax decreases with time prompts the owner to be patient until his land is exempt from capital gains tax. The tendency of owners of building land to hang on to their land has traditionally been one of the headaches of town planners.

Capital gains taxation is usually highly complex, and often only modest results are obtained.

- Annual land tax (France, USA)

It is interesting to note that in the 19th century much thought was given to ways in which land and property owners could capitalise on technical progress. Hence the argument of Henry George and Léon Walras to the effect that the community should benefit from rises in land prices.

In 1880 the economist Léon Walras put forward an explanation of the way in which land acquired value, causing ground rent to rise indefinitely. This phenomenon prompted him to recommend widespread public appropriation of land.

This radical solution was widely implemented in certain countries, especially in Northern Europe.

An annual land tax, which exists in most countries, but in very different forms, is a good example of the reconciliation of the various objectives - a task which is not easy.

The United States provides the most striking example of highly productive land taxation. The property tax levied in all the states for the benefit of local authorities is based on the market value of the land and buildings. This tax still provides nearly 80% of local fiscal revenue although the proportion is decreasing.

Overall, the property tax is regressive, but because it was sometimes unfair or a disincentive, corrective measures were introduced.

Another example is the Federal Republic of Germany. The important Federal Town Planning Act of 13 June 1960 introduced tax incentives designed to stop landowners from hanging on to building land. It stipulated that the basic rate of tax, which was fixed at Federal level, should increase in the case of land classified as building land if planning permission had not been applied for in respect of the land in question.

Since land tax was low to start with, this change was not sufficient to discourage speculators. It did, on the other hand, heavily penalise small landowners who could not afford to start building. The tax, which was mainly designed to provide an incentive, was dropped shortly afterwards, in 1963.

There are numerous examples which cast doubt on the usefulness of land tax as a means of ensuring that building land is built on.

In France the Land Act of 31 December 1967 tightened up the land-use planning system and made it more widely applicable, but when a plot was classified as being in a constructible zone and therefore went up considerably in value, a fiscal corrective factor had to be introduced in the form of a special "urban development tax". This declarative tax was to be based on the market value of the unbuilt but constructible land, but it fell into oblivion, largely because the Ministry of Finance was opposed to it.

The idea of introducing a proper form of taxation on building land is regularly brought up, but as yet no legislation has been passed.

The declarative land tax was still part of the general policy programme which the Prime Minister submitted to Parliament in July 1981. Moreover, the June 1982 Finance Act made a provision for the submission, in 1983, of a government report suggesting improvements to the way in which land tax was calculated, but the report never saw the light of day.

It is unfortunate that land taxation has not been as instrumental as it could have been in ensuring that the community benefits from the rises in land prices resulting from urban development.

- Fee charged to the landowner for planning permission
(Britain, Italy)

It is difficult to decide who should pay for facilities. How the cost should be apportioned to the local authorities, the builder and the original landowner, who is likely to have made capital gains. There is no easy answer to this question.

The British Town and Country Planning Act 1947

This Act laid down the principle that the right to build lay with the state.

In order to compensate landowners for the loss of constructibility value, it was decided to set up a £ 300 million compensation fund.

In practice, the initial effect of the Act was to freeze the land market. Then the market gradually started moving again but at prices much higher than the current utilisation value. The end-result was an additional cost, which was added on to the final cost of the housing. This failure prompted the repeal of the Act in 1953.

The 1977 "concessione di edificare" in Italy

Italy has made statutory provision for a land-use concession.

A contribution has to be made towards the cost of any work leading to a change in the use to which land and buildings on municipal territory are put, and the work cannot be carried out unless the Mayor granted a concession, in accordance with the terms laid down in the Act in question.

This contribution to the cost is twofold. Part of it is calculated on the basis of the cost of the facilities concerned (roads, sewers, utilities), which is established on the basis of a pre-determined scale. This is the traditional idea of making the builder contribute to the cost of the facilities, and the Municipal Council has wide powers of discretion when it comes to calculating the contribution. The other part is a lump-sum payment for the constructibility of the land, for which nothing is obtained in return.

- Conclusion: sensitive multi-purpose methods which could have undesired effects

Land taxation has two serious drawbacks and several advantages.

The first drawback, and by far the most serious one in the eyes of the authority responsible, is that the cost of administering it is excessive in relation to the tax revenue it provides. It might be added that if land taxation is so complex that it is expensive for the authorities to administer, it is also very difficult for the taxpayer to understand.

The other drawback relates to social justice. The tax is regressive: the proportion of tax paid on the revenue decreases as the revenue rises.

As for the advantages, let us begin by quoting the most obvious ones:

- Land tax is the tax that provides the least opportunity for tax evasion. It is impossible to conceal property that is out in the open;
- Land tax encourages the more rational use, in economic terms, of property, which is sometimes kept for very long periods by owners who have no real use for it. The fact that he has to pay an annual tax may provide the owner with an incentive to sell. Land tax is therefore generally useful in economic terms.

To conclude, there is an impressive variety of fiscal techniques used throughout the world to try and recover at least part of the increase in the value of property brought about by the provision of facilities of all kinds. Yet none of these techniques - an annual land tax, the taxation of capital gains realised on the day of sale or a special tax levied when planning permission is granted - has provided a satisfactory solution to the problem.

A more promising solution for the future would seem to be the direct funding of facilities by the owners whose property will go up in value as a result of them and/or by builders doing work that renders these facilities necessary.

When more is known about the land market and evaluation methods have been improved, it should be possible to make this system more effective.

3. Financing of infrastructure

- The taxpayer

The case of Britain

The rates system in Britain has three characteristic features:

- Rates are paid by the occupant and not the landlord;
- They constitute local authorities' only tax revenue;
- Property is valued on the basis of its rentable value.

The rates paid by the occupant are based on the net rentable value on the date of assessment, ie the rent which the property would fetch on the market if it were available for letting.

This definition raises thorny practical problems, and alternative or supplementary techniques may be used.

Rates are highly controversial. They are a "visible" form of tax, and therefore unpopular and tricky to administer, and any major changes entail a shift in the financial burden that it is difficult to get people to accept. The revenue from rates is so large, however, that it is difficult to abolish them. Nevertheless, there are plans to abolish rates and replace them by a fixed poll tax.

- The landowner (Switzerland, Federal Republic of Germany)

Once it is acknowledged that the provision of public services benefits landowners by ensuring them of capital gains, it is possible to consider a more direct means of recovering those gains than taxation, which as we have seen, raises certain practical problems and has undesirable effects. An alternative is for landowners to bear the cost of the facilities directly, when they are installed.

This financing method is very widespread in both the industrially developed and the under-developed countries.

There are four main questions to be answered.

- What type of facilities can be financed in this way?

Firstly, the facilities in question must substantially increase the value of the plots of land they serve. This applies in the case of roads, electricity, water supply and sewers, and also urban and suburban transport services.

- What proportion of the cost of the facilities can be financed in this way?

The first question is whether it is possible to contemplate recovering more than the cost of the facilities. There is nothing absurd about this question. A survey of several areas concerned showed that 100% recovery of the increase in the value of the land resulting from the facilities would have covered the construction cost several times over.

In several European countries the law is opposed to the idea that a sum greater than the cost of the facilities should be recovered.

The example of Switzerland

The Basle City "Conseil d'Etat" recently passed a law whereby the total "betterment contribution" could exceed the cost of the facilities it was designed to finance.

This law was repealed on the grounds that the main purpose of the "betterment contribution" was to finance public facilities and not to get money back from "people who got rich doing nothing".

The example of Germany

The proportion of the cost of the work financed by the landowners is restricted by a federal act of parliament to a maximum of 90%.

The widespread introduction of a "facilities tax" can have adverse effects if the maximum amount is not restricted to the cost of the facilities.

- Who should pay it?

It is necessary to establish the perimeter within which the land has increased in value. Two specific examples will make this clear.

- In the case of a linear service of purely local interest, the simplest solution is to tax only the owners of land bordering on the service, often in proportion to the length of the side bordering on the road;

- If all the facilities in an area it has been decided to develop are installed at once, the people who should pay the tax can automatically be identified by defining the boundaries of the area. The cost of all the infrastructure facilities can be calculated and a proportion charged to landowners in the area.

- On the basis of what criteria should each landowner's contribution be calculated?

There is a general principle whereby a landowner's contribution should be proportional to the benefit he derives from the facility. The problem is to evaluate that benefit, for, although the cost of the scheme is known, it is not known by how much it will increase the value of neighbouring buildings. Once the taxation perimeter, the cost of the scheme and the proportion it is wished to finance by this means have been established, it remains to be decided what criteria should be used to share this cost among the landowners.

It is difficult to persuade the public to accept the "facilities tax" - as indeed it is difficult to have any tax accepted, at least when it is first introduced.

Nevertheless, can a decision to carry out a scheme be dependent on the owners of the surrounding land agreeing to contribute to its cost? The Californian Act providing for the "rapid transit system" stipulates that the scheme must be approved beforehand by two-thirds of the owners concerned.

A rule of this kind may seem appropriate for a project of local interest and limited scope, to which there is no alternative, but it is more dangerous in the case of a larger scheme with a wider impact, which may, one day, be considered necessary.

- The builder (France, Britain)

Mention was made, in connection with payment for planning permission, of the British Town and Country Planning Act 1947, which establishes whether a builder who has obtained planning permission has to pay a development charge equal to the difference between the utilisation value and the market value, account being taken of the buildings for which planning permission has been obtained.

It has already been stated that, initially, this Act caused the land market to freeze and that the market then gradually began to move again, but at prices much higher than the current utilisation value. The end-result was therefore an additional charge, which was added to the final cost of the dwelling.

In many countries there are special arrangements benefiting subsidised housing, in respect of which only the cost of the facilities is paid. A builder who undertakes to install the necessary facilities himself pays only a lump-sum contribution calculated on the basis of the cost of the building, irrespective of the cost of the facilities corresponding to that building. Public buildings, farm buildings and restored buildings are often exempt.

The statutory maximum density in France (1975)

If a landowner is authorised to build on his land at a density exceeding the "statutory maximum density", he must purchase, at a price equal to that of the extra land he would have had in order not to exceed this maximum, the right to build the surplus, which "belongs" to the community.

If this machinery had worked properly, the increases in the price of wasteland should have slowed down appreciably, as the ground rent would have been shared between the landowner and the local authority, which was having to pay out more for facilities because of the high construction density. As in Britain, the statutory maximum density rule eventually resulted in extra costs, which were passed on to the price of the housing - or to the withdrawal of certain landowners from the market.

4. Negotiation and regulations

In many European countries there have been recent trends towards deregulation, a mistrust of planning and tighter public budgets, especially local authority budgets.

The combination of these trends has led to a new development that of "public/private partnership", whereby an increasing proportion of public facilities are financed by private developers, after negotiations with the local authorities.

I think this trend calls for two comments. Firstly, it can be highly advantageous if it is part of an overall town planning policy that takes account of town planning, economic and social

considerations. In the United States, for instance, the so-called "linkage" technique makes it possible to combine large-scale office building schemes with the funding and/or construction of housing complexes for low- and middle-income groups, and with a contribution to the provision of public transport systems. On the other hand, if there is no proper planning, direct negotiations between developers and local authorities can lead to segregation and can aggravate inequalities: property development in areas with high ground rent leads to more and better facilities, whereas decaying areas, which are not sought after by developers, deteriorate even more.

Moreover, the principle of direct negotiation between the developer/builder and the local authority can call into question the very principle of town planning regulations, insofar as the rules themselves are at stake in the negotiations. The risk of such a drift in connection with planning gains was highlighted in Britain in the report submitted to the British Government in 1982 by the Property Advisory Group.

For town planners, the ultimate aim is to find the best possible combination of, on the one hand, plans and rules safeguarding the public interest and living conditions acceptable to the most deprived sections of the population and, on the other hand, the flexibility and negotiation necessary for constantly evolving towns.

Conclusion: towards the private funding of public facilities?

Some lessons can be learnt from this brief examination of the various financial and fiscal techniques used in connection with town planning.

1. There is no one simple answer, whether in the form of town planning, a land tax or a "facilities tax" to the complex landownership issues at stake. The solution is a co-ordinated combination of instruments making it possible progressively to adjust to a changing situation and the new problems that are arising.
2. No one instrument, whether a land tax or a "facilities tax", can simultaneously achieve the objectives of fiscal productivity, fairness and economic effectiveness. Clearly, a distinction must be drawn, in particular between the objective of recovering, for the benefit of the community, increases in the value of land resulting from urban development and the objective of financing infrastructure, for the two objectives obey separate rules.
3. Local financial management should make express provision for dividing local expenditure between the building of infrastructure needed for urban development and the maintenance or replacement of existing facilities.
4. Lastly, although the private funding of public facilities is an important aspect of urban policy in a context of generally tighter public budgets, it is no substitute for the essential role of the authorities in deciding on land use. The short-sightedness of the market and the scale of the external effects make it impossible, for reasons of fairness and economic efficiency, to rely purely on the law of the market when allocating land for particular uses and providing public facilities.

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IV. CO-OPERATION MECHANISMS FOR LAND DEVELOPMENT - PRESENTATION OF
CASE STUDIES, IN PARTICULAR PUBLIC-PRIVATE CO-OPERATION

Fifth working session

1. Contribution by Saffet ATIK, Deputy Director
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ON URBAN EXPANSION, HOUSING UPGRADING AND MANAGEMENT
PROGRAMMES OF THE ÇUKUROVA METROPOLITAN REGION URBAN DEVELOPMENT PROJECT

1. An introduction to the Çukurova Urban Development Project

The policy of strengthening local administrations, a top priority on the agenda of Turkey in recent years, has led to important changes in urban areas.

A number of legal rights, previously belonging to the central government, have been transferred to local administrations. In addition, new sources of revenue have been identified in order to make these administrations self-sufficient and the collection of taxes of a local character by local administrations has begun.

The "Çukurova Metropolitan Region Urban Development Project" was initiated by the State Planning Organisation on 15 April 1985 in Adana for the purpose of introducing the above-mentioned changes and to conduct a series of leading studies by giving support to local administrations. The project was partly sponsored by the World Bank.

The studies of Çukurova Project may be grouped into two major categories. The first deals with physical aspects (Capital Investment Projects), including planning and engineering aspects. Subjects studies in this category are :

- a. Urban expansion areas
- b. Informal housing upgrading
- c. Housing management
- d. Water supply
- e. Sewerage
- f. Drainage
- g. Roads and transportation
- h. Solid waste management.

The second category includes support studies on:

- a. Development of municipal finance
- b. Reorganisation and management of municipalities
- c. Manpower training.

The capital investments decided as a result of the physical studies are programmed for implementation over the 1987-92 period. The support studies complement the physical studies and together they provided the outline for a new urban management approach.

2. Planning and housing sectors in the Çukurova Project

The housing situation presents many problems both in the region and in the country as a whole. The housing sector therefore plays an important part in the project, which is being carried out in co-ordination with engineering projects. Support studies were also carried out on subjects such as the establishment of urban development companies and cost accounting systems.

Both the population growth rate and the urbanisation rate of the Çukurova Region are above the national average. The geographical location of the region and the level of economic development indicate that this increase will continue in the coming 25 years. Estimates of housing demand for the years 1985-2010 are given in the table below.

TABLE 1:

HOUSING DEMAND 1985-2010

	1985	1990	1995	2000	2005	2010
Adana						
No. of houses	157,000	196,650	250,400	312,800	379,700	459,000
Ceyhan						
No. of houses	13,900	16,400	20,100	25,500	32,400	40,250
Iskenderun						
No. of houses	35,400	43,600	60,000	81,400	105,750	135,100
Mersin						
No. of houses	64,250	85,550	119,850	163,600	217,200	283,750
Tarsus						
No. of houses	32,150	40,100	52,550	68,100	87,300	111,750
Total						
No. of houses	302,700	382,300	502,900	651,400	822,350	1,029,750

As seen in the table, the total number of houses needed to supplement the existing housing stock is 745,850.

A rational approach to urban development is essential to cope with such a huge demand; therefore, rather than seeking solutions only within the housing sector, new land development and house construction should be promoted while at the same time using the existing stock of informal houses. To implement such an approach, the following programmes were included:

- i. Urban expansion programme
- ii. Infill development in settled areas
- iii. housing upgrading (infill development and densification)
- iv. Housing management programmes (a new and simple planning approach to produce serviced land for low income families in potential informal housing areas).

For the Çukurova Project, studies were carried out for all programmes except the second one. The proposed housing programme for the period 1987-92 is listed below:

TABLE 2

CAPACITIES OF DIFFERENT HOUSING PROGRAMMES

Cities	Adana	Mersin	Tarsus	Iskenderun	Ceyhan
URBAN EXPANSION	15,593	12,350	4,508	3,423	844
UPGRADING	18,807	11,500	3,800	3,855	-
HOUSING MGMT.	28,291	13,700	2,560	6,889	-

3. Land Development Programme

3.1 Urban expansion areas

A brief description of the URBAN EXPANSION MODEL is given below.

1. Urban expansion areas are developed on land owned by the municipalities, thereby controlling speculative increases in land values.
2. There are no direct subsidies available from the municipality or the government towards the development cost; the local government is therefore free from financial burden.
3. Although no direct subsidies are available, a cross-subsidy programme enables affordable housing to be developed for lower income groups.

After land is expropriated and/or purchased by the municipalities, it is approved as a mass housing area and sold to the Housing and Urban Development Companies (HUDC), jointly established by the municipalities and other public agencies in accordance with the commercial code. These companies, in turn, develop the land and through a sales agreement transfer the titles to the purchasers of homes. In the course of the land development process the HUDC identifies and markets the land and housing types sought by individuals, companies and co-operatives.

The land development system of this model is in fact very simple. Housing and Urban Development Companies in collaboration with public agencies, such as water and sewerage authorities, prepare the physical plans (structure plan, development and parcelling plan) and infrastructure projects (roads, drainage, drinking water, sewerage, energy and telecommunication networks) and contract out the construction.

3.1.1 The planning model in urban expansion areas

Urban expansion areas should not only be envisaged for land development and house construction. Such areas also serve as efficient tools for urban growth management. As an example, urban expansion areas in Çukurova municipalities are to be developed in non-agricultural areas with lower economic cost development.

As a first stage in the planning process, a structural plan of the area is prepared and major development decisions are made in conjunction with the overall development plan. During the preparation of the structural plan for the expansion area, preliminary infrastructure projects are also prepared. At this stage, development cost estimates are carried out and compared with the feasibility analysis. Basic planning decisions are reviewed and, if necessary, planning and engineering standards are changed and cost reducing measures are determined.

As an example, the new land use standards established by the Çukurova municipalities resulted in lower land development costs, amounting to 320,000 TL (in 1985 prices) or approximately \$ 45,000 per plot.

Detailed feasibility and marketing studies and implementation plans are carried out in parallel. Types, size, number of plots and houses are determined and included in the plans, depending on the results of the feasibility studies. All the final designs for the urban infrastructure are also completed at that point.

3.1.2 Cost and Financing of the urban expansion model

Financing is required in the new development areas for the following investment categories:

- i. Land acquisition,
- ii. Infrastructural development,
- iii. Housing construction and,
- iv. Construction of social facilities.

Within the framework of the Çukurova Urban Development Project, the municipalities have acquired land through funds from their own resources and the Development and Support Fund of the National Housing Authority. Amounts of land expropriated using the resources of Development and Support Fund by the project municipalities are as follows:

TABLE 3
SIZE OF EXPANSION AREAS AND LAND EXPROPRIATION FINANCE

Cities	Area	Expropriation Finance
Adana	720 Ha	2.4 billion TL
Mersin	839 Ha	4.0 billion TL
Tarsus	226 Ha	2.5 billion TL
Iskenderun	113.6 Ha	0.75 billion TL
Ceyhan	37.5 Ha	0.4 billion TL

Ownership of the land is at that point transferred by agreement from the municipalities to the Housing and Urban Development Companies. Such agreements stipulate that the sale of land may not exceed the amount which can be developed by the HUDC in a one-year period.

After having the engineering projects prepared for on-site and off-site infrastructure of land, the HUDC prepare the cost estimates and bidding documents.

All costs associated with the development of land are included in cost calculation, thus enabling the HUDC to fully recover its investment.

The method proposed by the Çurukova Project allows for the development of a sufficient number of serviced plots so as to meet the demand for urban land. Moreover, these plots can be afforded by some 70% of the residents of the communities.

The following table summarises infrastructure cost in some project cities:

TABLE 4
INFRASTRUCTURE COST ESTIMATES

Cities	Infrastructure Cost Per Dwelling Unit*	Infrastructure Cost Per Plot*
Adana	523,400 TL	654,200 TL
Mersin	555,400 TL	694,250 TL
Tarsus	621,400 TL	776,750 TL

* 1986 Base prices

As indicated above, even in full cost recovery, the prices of land still fall below land prices of similar parcels in other areas of the municipality.

As a result of public demand and political preferences, the HUDC in Çukurova municipalities fully developed the expansion areas to include superstructures for housing and commerce. Prospective home owners first apply to the HUDC.

Through a power of attorney, the HUDC is then able to apply for loans and to process other legal requirement such as transfer of title etc. The HUDC also selects one or more contractor(s) for the construction of infrastructure and housing on behalf of the prospective home owners.

The table below gives the number of units currently under construction and the unit cost in the three municipalities' first phase construction programmes:

TABLE 5
HOUSING CONSTRUCTION PROGRAMME IN URBAN EXPANSION AREAS

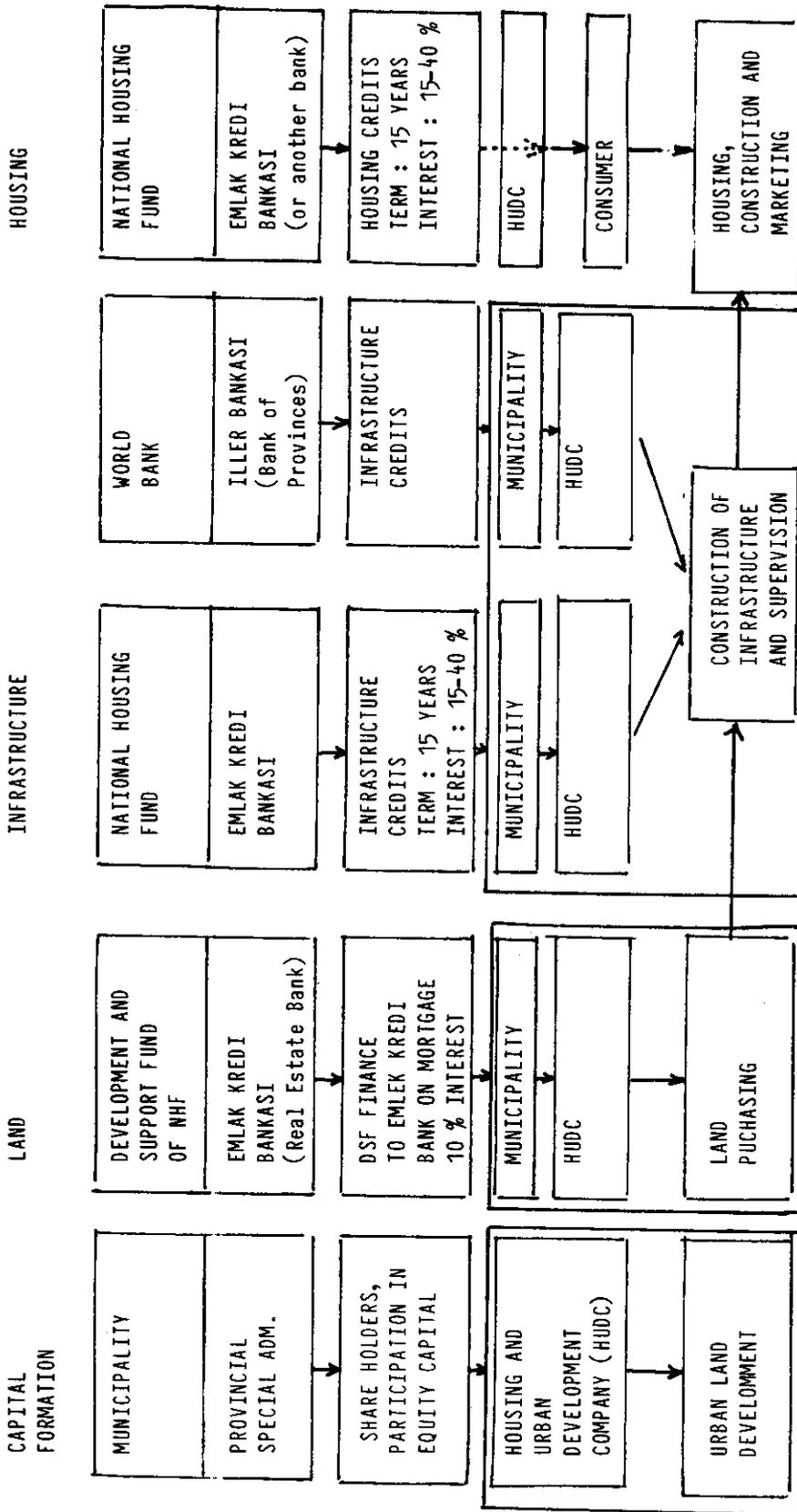
Cities	No. of units	size (m2)	(TL) m2 cost*	(TL) Total cost*
ADANA	2,035	40	51,201	1,950,000
		54	74,074	4,000,000
		60	58,333	3,500,000
		108	51,851	5,600,000
MERSIN	7,595	60	43,500	2,600,000
		72	42,800	3,080,000
		78	42,600	3,325,000
		83	42,500	3,500,000
TARSUS	140	60	41,666	2,500,000

* 1986 base prices

The financial resources to be utilised under the urban expansion programme for infrastructure development and construction of housing are as follows:

- i. Down payments by the beneficiaries for the land and for the dwelling units,
- ii. Resources of the municipalities and of the HUDC (in the form of loans and capital),
- iii. Funds from the National Housing Authority,
- iv. Other internal and external sources (private banks, financing organisations, etc).

Within the Çukurova Project, funds from all the above resources were utilised. The following diagramme shows the procedures for the production of serviced plots and units, related agencies and their responsibilities/roles, and the relationship among the agencies.



FLOW CHART OF URBAN DEVELOPMENT PROCESS PROPOSED IN ÇUKUROVA PROJECT

FINANCIAL SOURCES

TERMS OF FINANCE

MAIN INSTITUTIONS

MAIN DUTIES

3.1.3 Organisational Model

In the Çukurova Project, the institutional model adopted for the management of an urban expansion programme is the HUDC's.

The basic functions of HUDC are to implement the development of urban land-use programmes with residential areas playing the major role. HUDC will perform their functions within the broad spectrum of the urban land and housing market, so as to respond to the housing needs of different income groups. Their main responsibility therefore is the production of serviced plots and the organisation of construction.

In order to realise such a demanding programme, the HUDC are organised with specific departments responsible for planning, engineering, marketing-promotion, financial and economic aspects of land development.

The adopted model has the flexibility and the dynamics of a private sector entity. The municipalities, in partnership with special Provincial Administrations and Village Associations, have established HUDC in Adana, Mersin, Tarsus and Iskenderun.

Current experience shows that the HUDC are functioning successfully. The major breakthrough has been their speed of operation and flexibility. The salary structure is such that qualified professional staff are employed. Furthermore, with the application of financial management and accounting techniques, cross-subsidy for low-income groups is realised.

3.2 Informal housing upgrading and housing development management

Informal housing comprises the major portion of housing stock in large Turkish cities. Therefore, policies aimed at this sector gain more importance. The ratio of informal housing stock (gecekondu/shared title) to the total stock in Çukurova Project in municipalities is as follows:

TABLE 6: SHARE OF HOUSING IN TOTAL HOUSING STOCK

Cities	Total H Stock	Informal H Stock	%
Adana	157,000	81,000	52
Mersin	64,250	25,000	39
Iskenderun	35,400	8,000	23
Tarsus	32,150	22,000	68
TOTAL	288,966	146,000	50.5

Within the project, studies were conducted both for the programmed legalisation of informally subdivided/developed areas and for the realistic planning of areas under threat of informal development. This second branch of study is called "Housing Development Management".

The processes allow for plots to be produced for the low-income end of the urban land market both in the upgrading areas (through densification) and in the management areas (through production of legal plots affordable by target groups).

3.2.1 New Plots in existing upgrading areas

The Upgrading Programme, besides legalising illegal subdivisions, is linked with the town-wide infrastructure programme. Social facilities are also programmed to be constructed according to needs. The project period for upgrading programmes is 1987-1992. The Legalisation Programme, as a parallel action, covers 117,800 individual plots and is aimed at legalising illegal subdivisions whether or not they lie within the project-period's capital investment (infrastructure rehabilitation and new provision) programme.

A summary of the upgrading programme, new dwelling unit capacities in the upgrading areas and the estimated cost of infrastructure rehabilitation/provision is provided in the following table.

TABLE 7: HOUSING UPGRADING PROGRAMME FOR THE PERIOD 1987-92

Cities	Existing No. of d.u's	New d.u capacity	Total d.u.	Infrastructure cost (million TL)*	Cost per unit (TL)*
ADANA	30,094	18,807	48,901	10,330	211,243
MERSIN	19,000	11,500	30,500	4,953	162,393
TARSUS	5,000	3,800	8,800	2,932	333,182
ISKENDERUN	6,580	3,885	10,465	2,580	246,536
TOTAL	60,674	37,992	98,666	20,795	210,972

* 1986 base prices

As can be seen above, densification in the existing informal housing areas provides an increase of 38% in d.u capacity. The Çukurova Project analysis indicates that in these areas 37,992 d.u's can be constructed on 30,000 plots.

3.2.2 Planning and financial model of housing upgrading

The existing legal framework, amended by the legislative measures proposed by the project, formed the basis for planning the informal housing areas.

The approach adopted is similar to that of the urban expansion programme in the sense that town-wide programmes are reviewed, sites selected with respect to the infrastructure programme, and a five-year investment programme formulated. The main criteria for selecting project areas is the magnitude of deficiencies in services and the infrastructure provision programme.

The physical planning of these areas is undertaken in two stages: during the first stage, a structure plan of the area is formulated, taking into account the main infrastructural networks and relevant macro-level decisions on land-use, transport routes, etc. The second stage covers the preparation of implementation and parcelling plans with associated distribution lists. Land to be used for roads, green areas, etc for which municipalities will be responsible, is designated for "redistribution" and transferred to the ownership of the municipality. The existing fabric of the areas is preserved to the extent possible and standards employed are affordable both by municipal entities and by the target population.

An important factor is the link between the physical planning and infrastructure designs for the area, thus associated costs for the planned development/betterment of the area are calculated.

On the average, the cost of betterment/rehabilitation and/or provision of new infrastructure such as roads, drainage, water supply and sanitation is 210,972 TL/unit in 1986 base prices.

The feasibility analysis shows that this cost is affordable by the population living in these areas. This also ensures cost-recovery, necessary for the provision, rehabilitation and maintenance of urban services. The methods employed for cost-recovery are:

- i. Relevant fees during legalisation process, (ie building, occupation permits, etc),
- ii. House connection charges for water and sewerage,
- iii. Beneficiary charges on roads,
- iv. Property tax.

In addition, it is essential that an efficient cost-accounting system be established to secure cost-recovery for urban services.

3.3 Housing development management

A new approach to housing development management was adopted by the project to cope with the rapid growth of urban settlements and to meet the demand for low-income housing in a planned and effective manner.

The major thrust in this programme is to plan the areas under threat of informal development according to local conditions, to produce developable plots, and to secure the transfer of public spaces to the municipality.

Major portions of these areas lie at the periphery of the cities as extensions to the existing developed areas.

In these areas, the existing level of development is around 10% (ie number of plots developed as opposed to the total capacity). These areas are also within 1 to 1.5 km of existing or programmed infrastructures; thus infrastructure provision can be carried out concurrently with that in upgrading and expansion areas.

The standards employed in the planning and engineering designs for these areas are in line with the economic analysis carried out thus ensuring their affordability.

The programme for these areas for the project period 1987-92, is as follows:

TABLE 8: HOUSING DEVELOPMENT MANAGEMENT PROGRAMME

Cities	Existing number of d.u's	New d.u's	Total capacity	Estimated Infrstr. Cost Million TL	Cost per unit TL
ADANA	5,473	28,291	33,769	4,078.3	120,770
MERSIN	1,300	13,700	15,000	1,862.0	124,133
ISKENDERUN	-	6,889	6,889	699.9	101,596
TOTAL	6,973	51,440	58,418	7,125.1	121,976

The cost of infrastructure (roads, drainage, water supply and sewerage) per gross m2 is 575 TL/m2.

4. Summary

4.1. During project preparation it became evident that certain conditions need to exist for a successful implementation of urban expansion, housing upgrading, and housing management programmes. These conditions include:

- availability of experiences and motivated professional staff,
- streamlined legal and institutional procedures to eliminate bottlenecks during implementation,
- appropriate planning approach and strategy to allow for timely implementation.

In summary:

- It is necessary that local governments, with their politicians, technocrats and bureaucrats should have a dynamic and contemporary approach to problems associated with urban development.
- There must be a consensus that these problems cannot be solved by employing static approaches utilising only physical planning.
- There must be a rational definition of the problem and objectives should be realistic and attainable with available resources. It must be remembered that planning is a multi-sectoral discipline and that this requires effective intersectoral co-ordination. Urban problems cannot be alleviated unless required changes are introduced in the urban financial frameworks and organisational set-ups.
- A realistic approach to informal development is also needed, bearing in mind that these are dynamic solutions to urgent problems, and that they provide the potential for improved urban management and planned urban development.
- In the informal housing sector, analyses of both the demand and the financial capacity should be carried out, for the producer and the beneficiary.
- It is essential that, in evaluating the supply of serviced land and housing, costs be calculated and possible resources be identified. Cost-recovery principles must be applied to secure continuity for programme implementation. Town-wide programmes for serviced-land and housing supply must be instituted. Funds which are accumulating for upgrading under the new amendment to the relevant Act should be utilised effectively by the municipalities. NHF experience should be reviewed for possible parallel financing mechanisms for housing management in accordance with local conditions.
- The provision of service-land and housing are challenges to local administrators and municipalities are the major entities to take responsibility for the adequate provision of serviced-land opportunities, especially for low-income housing. The existing legal framework, however, does not provide the necessary basis for the municipalities to undertake their tasks in a wholly successful manner. Thus relevant amendments in the legislation (ie NHF Act, State Tender Act, Land Office Act, Municipalities Act, etc) need to be introduced.
- Municipalities must review their existing organisational structures and introduce reorganisational measures which will enable them to employ modern urban management techniques relevant to urban development problems.

4.2. The above list factors were strictly applied during the execution of the Çukurova Project. It is obvious that such an approach should yield successful results. Some results have already been obtained prior to the implementation stage and require some explanation. For example:

- In the housing sector, there has been major progress with regard to financing and organisation. Without draining municipal resources, about 10,000 units are being constructed, all with adequate services and at costs affordable to the beneficiaries. HUDC have been formed and have begun functioning with limited staff, but with great enthusiasm and success. In short, it can be said that the largest housing construction sites in Turkey have started to emerge in Çukurova.
- Cost minimising measures have been strictly applied for the production of serviced land and housing. In the Adana expansion site, 74.8% of the units constructed are below 60 m². Furthermore, traditional techniques, local building materials, and local contractors, are being utilised, thus positively influencing local employment and income.

In Mersin, the cost of an 82 m² dwelling unit on the site where infrastructure and community facilities exist, is 4,365,000 TL in 1986 base prices. This is nearly equal to the monthly rent for villas in prestige areas of large cities.
- Speed of construction and effective financial disbursements result in cost reductions. This has been the case on the initial site of the Tarsus Expansion Area where 140 d.u. were completed in seven months).
- There has been great publicity due to the success of municipalities in implementing housing programmes. As a result, more than 60,000 applicants have applied for housing.
- In the informal housing sector, the project has shown that existing informal areas can be upgraded at a lower cost and that with densification programmes, low-cost serviced plots can be produced (ie approximately 200,000 TL per plot).
- The problem of shared-titles that threatens the planned development of urban areas has been vigorously attacked. The necessary legal changes have been secured to enable municipalities to act in a more flexible manner and with increased resources (ie elimination of the standards problem in threatened areas; transfer of upgrading funds to the municipalities, etc).
- With active collaboration of central and local cadastral offices, municipalities have introduced town-wide legalisation programmes, and modern electronic survey equipment is used for fast and accurate demarcation. Within two years, shared-title will cease to be a problem in the Project towns.

5. Conclusion

1. Within the broad framework of decentralisation, the Çukurova Project has provided a methodology to be applied for improved urban management. During the 20-month project preparation stage, many components were launched into implementation stage. The low-cost housing programme, established HUDC, the legalisation process of informal developments, the implementation of new accounting procedures and new organisational set-ups are examples of the application of major Project principles.

2. The Project has shown that low-cost solutions to urban problems, in fact, are feasible in Turkey; therefore, the principles put forward by the Project and realised by the Çukurova municipalities can be adopted on the national scale.

3. These principles should form the basis of a national urban development strategy, and the policies with regard to strategy components, ie serviced land production, low-cost housing, financial mechanisms-accounting procedures and management techniques should be strictly applied.

2. Contribution by Mr Sadi KAN, architect
Ministry of Tourism and Culture (Turkey)

ON POLICIES FOR TOURISM AREAS -
SOUTH ANTALYA TOURISM DEVELOPMENT PROJECT

Since the 1950s, while significant increase in international tourism movements and incomes has been observed, certain countries have attracted a considerable number of tourists and thus have contributed to the development of their national economies by the income generated through tourism. In Turkey, particularly starting with the planned period, tourism has been regarded as an important sector generating income and job opportunities and transferring foreign currency, thus overcoming the bottlenecks in the economy related to foreign currency. The Fifth Five Year Development Plan as well as the Government's Programme emphasised the significant role of the sector in economic development.

On the other hand "the Law on the Promotion of Tourism" dated 12.3.1982, introduced some arrangements aiming at the development of the tourism sector while providing it with a dynamic structure.

FIFTH FIVE YEAR DEVELOPMENT PLAN (1985-1989)

The basic principles of the Fifth Five Year Development Plan concerning tourism can be stated as follows:

- to utilise the tourism potential of Turkey without disturbing the ecological equilibrium,
- to improve relations with the OECD, OPEC as well as the Balkan and the Third World Countries in the tourism sector,
- to give priority to mass tourism while promoting individual tourism and to offer affordable holiday opportunities for the working population,
- taking the lack of adequate statistical data into consideration, to utilise modern techniques to provide detailed and updated data on tourism movements,
- to co-ordinate the strategies on tourism development and strategies on conservation of natural resources, as well as the parties concerned within the sector,
- to extend credits to entrepreneurs instead of direct public investments.

INCENTIVES PROVIDED IN THE TOURISM SECTOR

In Turkey, the following incentives are provided to encourage the development of the tourism sector.

- credits,
- allocation of public land,
- customs tax exemption,

- tax reduction for investments,
- Resource Mobilisation Fund,
- employment of foreign staff,
- construction charge exemption,
- tax, duties and fees exemption,
- usage of blockage money,
- use of unguaranteed commercial credits,
- usage of foreign credits in cash and kind,
- Tourism Promotion Fund
- interest reduction for medium-term rediscounted credits,
- low tariff of electricity, water and gas consumption,
- priority in supply of telecommunication systems,
- incentive premium.

THE SOUTH ANTALYA TOURISM DEVELOPMENT PROJECT

The decree of the Council of Ministers dated 18.9.1969 about the definition of "touristic development zones" has played an important role in the development of the sector. The South Antalya Tourism Development Project was undertaken within the context of Master Plans which were prepared with reference to the above-mentioned decree. The project was put into implementation in 1977.

The experience gained from the implementation of this project has contributed to the reformulation of recent tourism policies in Turkey. Within the scope of the recent policies in the tourism sector, the concept of "tourism zones and centres" has been developed. In these areas, the Ministry of Tourism and Culture is entitled to carry out tourism development activities in compliance with the country's tourism policy. In 1982 a law on tourism promotion had been enacted and up today 74 tourism zones and centres have been designated where implementation has been started. This instrument of the tourism policy enlarged the area of concern by three times in only 5 years. The positive results of implementation will obviously be achieved in the coming few years.

The South Antalya Tourism Development Project has been one of the effective tools of the planned development of the tourism sector.

THE AREA AND THE SCOPE OF THE PROJECT

The South Antalya Tourism Development Project area is located in the southern part of Antalya Bay, at a 13 km distance from the city centre. It involves a 80 km long and 3-10 km wide rural area from Sarisu to the Gelidonia peninsula. The project area lies within the Olympus Bey Mountains Coastal National Park.

Kemer, a town which is of secondary importance within the project area, is 60 km away from the Antalya international airport.

The main highway to western Turkey from Antalya had already been constructed with it's connections in the project area.

The project area exhibits a perfect combination of natural values sea, beach and the sun which are prerequisites for tourism development.

The scope of the project

The project aims at providing a total number of 48,244 beds in 1995. 38,758 of these beds will be in hotels and holiday villages and 9,486 will be in camping areas.

It is expected that the project will help to improve the balance of payments through serving the international market by 50% at the initial stage and 80% afterwards.

PLANNING PRINCIPLES

The 1/25,000 scaled Master Plan approved in 1977 constitutes the basis for the South Antalya Tourism Development Project. This plan prepared by the involvement of different related Ministries envisages:

- promotion of the tourism sector for the economic and social development of the region,
- integration of the tourism sector with the other sectors of the region to realise balanced regional development,
- meeting the need for recreational facilities while protecting the natural environment,
- creation of variable touristic activities to meet the needs of different income groups,
- provision of the legal basis for a multi-purpose environmental control,
- promotion of touristic facilities which will be dependent on near vicinity for the provision of goods and services rather than the promotion of self sufficient touristic facilities, and to equip the existing settlements nearby with the necessary supply outlets,
- encouragement of the small sized enterprises to create competition and variability in the market.

The state takes the necessary measures to implement this project. The major measures can be stated as follows:

- provision of various incentives including additional financial possibilities for private entrepreneurs who are willing to invest in touristic establishments in the region,
- provision of high standard technical infrastructure in the project area,

- planning of the historical sites and natural parks to protect the natural and historical environment,
- provision of certain necessary social activities to create a sub-centre in the project area,
- allocation of land to private investors in the field of tourism.

EXPECTED BENEFITS OF THE PROJECT

Socio-economic benefits

- creation of 40,000 jobs in the project area,
- provision of recreational facilities for 200,000 people in the area,
- generation of 395 million \$ of touristic income with the assumption of 404,000 foreign and 520,000 local tourists coming to the region and each tourist accommodating 10 days,
- generation of value added amounting to 559 billion TL from the activities expected to develop due to the development of the tourism sector.

Benefits for the investors

- additional financial possibilities,
- serviced land allocation on long term basis (49 years),
- supply of trained staff,
- supply of necessary goods and services,
- controlled, safe, healthy and well maintained environmental conditions.

Benefits to the local people

- technical infrastructure and services of high standards, eg roads, electricity, communication, solid waste collection and disposal, sanitation and marina,
- high-standard health services,
- irrigation systems to increase agricultural production,
- job opportunities.

LAND USE DECISIONS

Land allocation for the proposed activities within the project area is determined according to the principle of the concentration of the investments in priority locations. This approach has many advantages among which easy environmental control, low-cost technical infrastructure can be stated as the major ones.

In the above-mentioned concentration locations, a flexible approach which welcomes investments at different capacities is adopted.

An optimum size for these development areas is determined taking into consideration the factors mentioned below:

- protection of the forestry areas,
- protection of agricultural areas such as hot-houses and citrus orchards in terms of the economic benefits of local people.

Touristic facilities, organised tourism development areas

For Beldibi-Göynük, Kiziltepe, Tekerlektepe, Camyuva and Tekirova organised tourism development areas, development plans at 1/1,000 scale have been completed and approved by our Ministry.

With these areas, a capacity of 5,785 beds is created within the holiday villages and hotels. Optimum sizes for these villages and hotels are determined by considering the "optimum business size", land ownership analysis and the topographical conditions. For all the holiday villages and hotel areas the ground floor area is defined as 30% and the construction area per person as 25sq m.

Camping areas

Within these organised camping areas, ground floor area for the Bungalow type of camping units is determined as 8%. The density is calculated as 150 sq m/person. The camping areas accommodate 2,313 beds in total.

Kemer urban development area

Kemer is proposed to be developed as a town supporting Antalya. The 1996 population of the town is estimated as 10,000 and 8,270 bed capacity is planned. However, the present increasing trends in land prices and housing cost has already resulted in a decrease in the dwelling unit size by 50% which gives the impression that the town will in future be capable to accommodate a population of about 20,000. This will certainly put an extra burden on the infrastructural facilities.

Kemer will in future be:

- the distribution centre of the region,
- the storage centre for regional importation,
- the social and administrative centre of the region,
- the recreational centre of the region.

Other rural settlements

Services required by the touristic establishments in the project area are proposed to be provided by the peripheral rural settlements. To initiate such development, the villages of Çamyuva and Tekirova have been designated as "service villages" and master plans as well as implementation plans have been prepared and ratified by the Ministry of Culture and Tourism.

Recreational areas

The South Antalya Tourism Development Project also envisages the development of botanic gardens, riding tracks, golf areas, picnic and promenade areas and youth camps to increase the attractiveness of the area. For this purpose, "recreational areas" are designated within the project area.

Social housing areas

"Areas of Social Housing for the Tourism Personnel" constitute one of the major components of the project. There are no urban settlements nearby the planned touristic establishments, eg the nearest town Beldibi is 20 km away from Antalya. Since the personnel employed in hotels and holiday villages usually work in shifts, they need to be accommodated not far from their work places. For this reason social housing areas comprising 3,650 dwelling units are proposed in Göynük, Kemer and Çamyuva.

Agricultural areas

The South Antalya Tourism Development Project envisages protection and development of existing agricultural areas, outside the accommodation, recreation, and service areas. This serves the dual purpose of protecting the nature as well as increasing agricultural production. Tourism Planning Principle attaches the equal importance and priority to both the tourism and agricultural developments.

PROJECT IMPLEMENTATION

Within the scope of project implementation the construction of major infrastructure and super structures such as water supply, sewerage and electrification systems, various service buildings, waste water purification plants and solid waste disposal plants have been carried out by the Tourism Bank.

The main roads as well as the local ones have been financed and constructed by the General Directorate of Highways.

The communication facilities have been provided by the General Directorate of Post, Telephone and Telegram.

The irrigation system necessary for the development of agriculture in the region has been constructed by the General Directorate of State Hydraulic Works.

The main power transmission lines and transformers have been constructed by the Kepez Company.

The management and maintenance of the above-mentioned technical and social infrastructural facilities will be carried out by the related public authorities.

The availability of trained tourism personnel is regarded vital for the success of the project. Therefore, a centre where 400 students can be trained each year, will be constructed in Kemer.

CONCLUSION

The South Antalya Tourism Development Project is a pioneer project in Turkey in the sense that it is comprehensive and is prepared according to the principles of tourism planning.

Economic and social surveys on which the physical planning was based, started in 1971 and the synthesis report was prepared in 1975, by the Turkish and foreign experts. The report constitutes the basis for realisation of infrastructure and super structures constructed in the region. The main aim of the project is to increase tourism revenues through creating adequate bed capacity in a well protected environment as required by the international market. The project will thus contribute to the increased inflow of foreign currency and better employment opportunities for the local inhabitants, as well as to better consideration for the natural and historical values.

Discussion

Mr Giritlioglu (Turkey) stated that despite the efforts that have been made to formulate the housing and land use policies in Turkey the results had not proved to be as successful as expected. This could be due to a lack of an approach system in handling the problem.

A successful solution would be achieved if a necessary co-ordination between different planning levels and integration among the policies involved could be realised.

The sectoral investment decisions lack the physical planning dimension in Turkey. Unless all planning levels exist and function effectively, the problem can not be solved.

V. Closing session

1. Contribution by Mr Alain CHENARD, Chairman of the Committee on Regional Problems and Regional Planning of the Standing Conference of Local and Regional Authorities of Europe (CLRAE)

ON REGIONS AND REGIONAL PLANNING - MAIN CONCLUSIONS OF THE
CONFERENCE OF REGIONAL REPRESENTATIVES RESPONSIBLE FOR
REGIONAL PLANNING AND DEVELOPMENT
(Valencia, Spain 28-30 April 1987)

INTRODUCTION

The CEMAT has played a very active part in several conferences organised recently by the Standing Conference of Local and Regional Authorities of Europe (CLRAE), particularly the Vigo Conference on towns with port facilities (5-7 November 1986) and the Conference of Regional Representatives responsible for Regional Planning and Development (Valencia, 28-30 April 1987).

Mr NIJPELS, the Netherlands Minister for Regional Planning and Chairman of the CEMAT, made two important statements at these conferences, while several members of the Committee of Senior Officials, including the Chairman, Mr BASCHUNG and the Vice-Chairman, Mr AL, also made considerable contributions to these conferences.

The spirit of co-operation that has been established for several years between the CLRAE and the CEMAT is not one-sided since it is now the Chairman of one of the CLRAE's committees who has the honour of presenting a few thoughts on "regions and regional planning", at a seminar that is partly aimed at contributing to the preparation of the 8th CEMAT, which will mainly cover land-use policies. The following observations will of course be largely based on the conclusions of the Valencia Conference and the CLRAE's work in this field.

I. THREATS TO THE LAND

Local and regional authorities are fully aware of the problems tackled at this seminar, in particular:

- the loss of agricultural land used for other purposes (urban development, leisure areas, transport infrastructures, etc),
- the difficulty of arbitrating between these different uses in order to decide the best possible siting of human activities,
- the need to take into account environmental values, socio-cultural characteristics etc,
- land speculation, and so on.

In order to deal with these problems, the representatives of the CLRAE have always advocated a regional planning policy co-ordinated at different levels (local and regional); they have also tackled the important question of land speculation in urban areas.

II. THE ROLE OF LOCAL AND REGIONAL AUTHORITIES IN DEALING WITH THE EFFECTS OF LAND SPECULATION (1)

In order to cope with the problems created by land speculation, mainly in urban areas, local and regional authorities must have the legal and financial resources to enable them to intervene in the real estate market.

(1) See Resolution 130 (1982) of the CLRAE.

2.1 Financial and legal resources of local and regional authorities

i. Local and regional authorities must have the financial resources they need to be able to intervene in the real estate market, in order to:

- carry out their planning policies (infrastructures, protection of the environment etc),
- constitute reserves of land, particularly by installing main services in development sites, and lastly
- achieve the objectives of urban renewal, by measures such as setting-up a financial equalisation scheme between the various regional authorities and enabling them to recover a share of the profits created by their investments.

ii. Legal means available to local and regional authorities should include in particular:

- an extensive right of pre-emption when land is sold in urban or suburban districts,
- the right to set up real estate intervention zones, and compulsory purchase powers in the public interest,
- freedom to use the land belonging to them; this could be achieved by introducing plans for the use of land belonging to local authorities, drawn up under the supervision of local elected representatives and binding upon third parties.

2.2 Role of the regions

In order to cope with the problems arising from land speculation regional authorities should draw up regional development plans in which the local land-use plans would be incorporated. In frontier regions there is often greater pressure on land prices because of the purchase of land by nationals of the neighbouring country. In order to tackle this problem frontier regions should endeavour to harmonise their regulations, particularly with regard to land use and environmental protection.

2.3 Role and responsibilities of local authorities

The first duty of a public authority is to develop its territory and, to this end, it must have sufficient control of its own land to enable it to implement its policies on housing, urban development, provision of amenities and urban renewal.

Consequently, local authorities should:

- i. ensure a more "transparent" real estate market, particularly by:

- providing as much information as possible, particularly about the results of planning permission applications, urban development projects and compulsory purchase schemes,
- encouraging maximum public participation in decisions on land use, particularly through the development of local committees, groups or associations;

ii. work out local development plans, binding on third parties, that fit in with existing regional plans and are designed to curb urban spread, especially when this is likely to reduce the area of farmland or woodland, impair scenic quality or result in excessive population density;

iii. implement a policy of local authority purchases of urban land, particularly through the acquisition of land holdings enabling them, on the one hand, to regulate the real estate market and, on the other, to have access to the land required for the installation of public amenities; these land holdings can be built up through private contract purchases, exercise of the right of pre-emption, compulsory purchase in the public interest or, for instance, through the action of municipal land departments;

iv. rent rather than sell the land in their possession, on long leases, for example;

v. adopt an effective taxation policy making it possible to recover some of the capital gains on land transactions for the benefit of the local community.

III. THE ROLE OF REGIONAL REPRESENTATIVES RESPONSIBLE FOR REGIONAL PLANNING: THE VALENCIA CONFERENCE (28-30 April 1987)

In several countries the regional authorities have acquired new powers in the field of regional planning and development. The trend towards a larger measure of decentralisation in this sector was also discussed at length at the 7th CEMAT in the Hague.

In the light of these findings, the CLRAE decided to convene a meeting of representatives from the European regions responsible for and involved in regional development. This idea eventually led to the Valencia Conference. Several representatives of the Committee of Senior Officials of the CEMAT attended this event and many questions were raised. A more complete account will be given during the 22nd session of the CLRAE (Strasbourg, 20-22 October).

There are several points which should be raised at this seminar.

1. Draft convention

It is necessary to go beyond the European Regional/Spatial Planning Charter. After its long drafting process, this charter represents an important step in the right direction, but it is now certainly time to go further,

perhaps by working towards a convention, as advocated by one of the rapporteurs on this theme (Mr PARTL, the Governor of the Tyrol). Admittedly, this objective may seem ambitious, but I feel it is worth considering.

The charter sets out important principles and lays down objectives on which all countries seem to be in agreement. The Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe has, moreover, endorsed this text in the form of a recommendation to governments. But although those directly involved - local and regional politicians and decision-makers - may need a guide to important principles in their daily work, at Valencia they expressed the desire for a more binding and precise instrument.

This led to the proposal that the CEMAT should prepare a convention for the 21 member countries of the Council of Europe which would lay down the main lines to be followed by regional development programmes. The European regions are in fact preparing numerous programmes, plans, outlines etc, specifying the present and future use of their amenities, socio-economic activities, transport infrastructures etc. These activities are often conducted in widely different ways. I feel it would be useful and advisable for the CEMAT to give careful consideration to this proposal, which would be particularly appropriate and useful in frontier regions.

2. Co-ordination of research

This is another question which was brought up by the Valencia Conference. Why is it not possible to develop a European programme - such as those which are beginning to be produced in many other sectors - in the field of regional planning?

This might certainly give a boost to the work in progress on the European regional planning scheme.

The French regional planning delegate made very similar proposals in Valencia with regard to European cartography - an essential instrument of regional planning.

3. Greater participation of the regions in the work of the CEMAT

To achieve this it was proposed that co-operation between the CLRAE and the CEMAT should be developed by means of a joint structure.

Here again I think this is a realistic project and that it is by combining our forces that we will succeed in giving our governments a better insight into the issues we discuss.

4. Permanent vigilance on environmental questions

This is a permanent concern of the representatives. During the last two decades the need to take environmental questions into account has taken on major political importance. That is why I think that if the CEMAT were to

work towards the preparation of a convention on soil after its 8th session this project should be carried out jointly with the Ministerial Conference on the Environment, which also decided to undertake such a project at Lisbon in June.

The citizens of Europe would not be able to understand why if, on such an important question, we could not manage to produce a single joint text covering both development and environmental questions.

2. CONCLUSIONS OF THE SEMINAR

All the seminar participants, some 150 in all, wish to thank the Turkish authorities, and in particular the Minister of Public Works and Housing, for their warm welcome and generous hospitality, which augur well for the 9th CEMAT, due to be held in Turkey in 1991.

The starting point of the seminar's work was the 1983 European Regional/Spatial Planning Charter, and more particularly two of its fundamental objectives :

- "rational use of land" (paragraph 17)
- "balanced socio-economic development of the regions" (paragraph 14)

and the European Soil Charter (1972).

Reference was also made to some of the more recent activities of the Council of Europe :

- the 5th European Ministerial Conference on the Environment (Lisbon, June 1987) and its concern that the possibility of framing a European legal instrument on soil protection be explored ;
- the Conference of Regional Representatives responsible for Regional Planning and Development (Valencia, Spain, April 1987) and its proposals concerning, inter alia, a joint CLRAE/CEMAT structure, the setting up of a European documentation and research centre on regional planning and the preparation of an outline convention on regional planning and development programmes ;
- the Conference "European Agriculture 2000" (Villars-sur-Ollon, Switzerland, April 1986) ;
- the European Campaign for the Countryside (1987-88) launched by the Council of Europe in Lisbon in June 1987, which is mainly concerned with the problems of farmland use and conservation (stemming dereliction, preserving the soil and its fertility against misuse and against pollution by fertilisers and plant protection chemicals).

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That the land is a precious resource becomes daily more obvious ; it is also limited, vulnerable and under threat. Its misuse, wanton destruction and irreversible deterioration are bringing us to the limit of our development the point beyond which it would be fatal for humanity to go.

The land, with its multifarious functions, is essential to human life : the soil serves to regulate matter and to provide a living habitat for animal and plant species ; the land is the source of production, both agricultural and industrial ; it underpins all other human activities and is the foundation of our culture.

This being so, regional planning and land policy together constitute an irreplaceable vehicle for promoting a form of balanced development that will enable the land to continue to be used for as many different purposes as before, not least housing, with due regard both for the natural regenerative forces and the long-term needs of humanity. Beyond this basic function, regional planning must maintain a balance between the different land use demands, some of which are mutually contradictory : industry and trade, agriculture, human institutions and recreation. Faced with considerations of short-term economic viability, awareness of the medium-term and long-term effects must feature prominently. Thus regional planning can assist in the protection of the environment and at the same time create the conditions for continuing economic activity and the development of new economic potential.

The successful implementation of a land policy of this kind implies the use of appropriate instruments. Firstly, regulations must be simple enough to be readily applied and understood by those whom they concern. Secondly, the public authorities have a duty to provide information to assist that understanding and, from there, to develop public awareness. Thirdly, land use plans must be socially acceptable. This requires the institution of a procedure for prior consultation and discussion with all the parties concerned. In addition, the decision makers must be properly trained, and so must the population as a whole, so that full and informed discussion can take place about land use issues.

Land use policy must take account of the time variable, using the techniques of forecasting. It is proposed that the public and private sectors co-operate over land use since they share responsibility for economic development. One important aspect of that co-operation is their joint responsibility for taking account of the long-term effects and for maintaining the ecological balance. This is also a long-term guarantee of continuing economic activity. The public authorities can and must monitor developments.

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These problems were addressed in the course of the seminar, on the basis of five papers prepared by various national delegations for the 8th CEMAT (Lausanne, 20-21 October 1988), the subjects of which cover the wide range of conflicting interests where land use is concerned :

- the fiscal, legal and institutional aspects ;
- the agricultural sector ;

- the industrial sector ;
- the sector of tourism ;
- the housing sector.

In this way the seminar made a useful contribution to the preparation of the 8th CEMAT, whose subject is to be "Rational use of land - basis and limiting factor of our development".

In the discussion, the participants noted the vast differences that are apparent among the 21 member States of the Council of Europe where the situation and the regulations are concerned. The question of land scarcity must also be considered in relation to the territory, the population density, the proportion of territory actually available for use, the fertility of the ecological balance, not forgetting the series of problems created by the withdrawal of land from agriculture (dereliction, extensive cultivation, desertification) and the formation of industrial wastelands.

Despite their differences, the countries of Europe should endeavour to find a common approach to land use policy. The considerations upon which such an approach could be based include :

- flexible instruments to regulate the use of land, in the legislative and financial fields alike (based, for instance, on the principles of zoning) ;
- co-ordination of responsibilities and instruments, both vertically and between one sector and another ;
- international consultation on new economic developments and infrastructures.

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The participants accordingly appeal to the Council of Europe for a strengthening of international co-operation in the field of land policy, including transfrontier land policy. Concerted action must be the rule, in particular when considering the impact of projects located in border areas.

The next CEMAT should be the occasion for launching an action programme on the theme "Regional planning - making a stand for the land" to which it is to be hoped that the Council of Europe will give its support.

In order to give the CEMAT the necessary capability for launching such a programme, the idea was raised of framing an outline convention for land use policy or a partial agreement.

A number of proposals were discussed which could be debated more fully at the 8th CEMAT :

- the creation within the Council of Europe, and in co-operation with the European Community, of a European documentation and research centre on land use policies ;
- the framing of a single convention on land use policy, covering the qualitative and quantitative aspects, as the two are closely linked ;
- the setting up of a European programme of demonstration projects on land use policy starting, for example, with a project located in Turkey ;
- closer co-operation between the CEMAT and the CLRAE, which represents the levels at which practical decisions on land use are taken, to enable them to join forces within an appropriate structure in accordance with the spirit of the European Regional/Spatial Planning Charter (paragraph 13).

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