



Strasbourg, 18 February 2015

CEP-CDCPP (2015) 11E

EUROPEAN LANDSCAPE CONVENTION

CEP-CDCPP

8th COUNCIL OF EUROPE CONFERENCE ON

THE EUROPEAN LANDSCAPE CONVENTION

*Conference organised under the auspices of the Belgian Chairmanship of
the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe*

ESTABLISHMENT OF PROCEDURES FOR THE PARTICIPATION OF THE GENERAL PUBLIC AND THE OTHER PARTIES WITH AN INTEREST IN THE DEFINITION AND IMPLEMENTATION OF THE LANDSCAPE POLICIES

Handbook on participative landscape planning

Council of Europe
Palais de l'Europe, Strasbourg
18-20 March 2015

*Document of the Secretariat General of the Council of Europe
Directorate of Democratic Governance*

Summary

1. The European Landscape Convention and the Recommendation CM/Rec(2008)3 of the Committee of Ministers to member States on the guidelines for the implementation of the European Landscape Convention state:

European Landscape Convention

“Each Party undertakes:

... c. to establish procedures for the participation of the general public, local and regional authorities, and other parties with an interest in the definition and implementation of the landscape policies mentioned in paragraph b above;” (Article 5 of the European Landscape Convention – General measures)

Recommendation CM/Rec(2008)3 of the Committee of Ministers to member states on the guidelines for the implementation of the European Landscape Convention

“A. Participation

The certainty that strengthening the relationship between the population and its living surroundings underpins sustainable development affects the whole process of landscape policy definition. Moreover, participation is regarded as an instrument for strengthening the identities of populations, which recognise themselves in their surroundings.

Public involvement, which may entail contradictions resulting from the diversity of the value systems espoused by the various social groups, should be regarded as enriching and as an opportunity to validate knowledge and the definition of objectives and action.

Participation implies two-way communication from experts and scientists to the population and vice versa. The population possesses empirical knowledge (local and naturalistic knowledge) that may be useful in completing and contextualising specialist knowledge.

This also has an influence on “assessment” activity, understood as a dialectical comparison between analyses by experts and the values attached by the population to landscape, in the knowledge that different systems of “values” and “non-values” exist that may be well-entrenched or still in the process of definition; these value systems (universal, specific to national cultures, to local cultures, to each individual’s culture) belong to both scholarly culture and to popular culture: they are qualitative and not quantifiable and some of them are sometimes mutually opposed. The concept of participation involves taking into account the social perception of landscape and popular aspirations in choices regarding landscape protection, management and planning. In this sense, the concept of landscape proposed by the convention implies an exercise in democracy whereby differences are accepted, common characteristics found and operational compromises eventually reached; these represent an alternative to the drawing up by experts of hierarchical classifications of landscape qualities.

The means of participation should be chosen by each state from among methods appropriate to the different problems identified, taking account of current consultation and comparison customs, the different administrative organisations, the characteristics of the various territorial situations, the types of operational instruments used, the scales of operation, and experience both past and present at international level. In any case, participation should involve all the relevant stakeholders: national, regional and local authorities, the population directly affected, the general public, non-governmental organisations, economic operators and landscape professionals and scientists.

Participation should be a feature of all the different phases in the processes of drawing up and implementing landscape policies, in particular those of landscape appraisal, definition of landscape quality objectives, decision-making and implementation of actions over time. Participation should also be regarded as a system for the mutual information of the relevant stakeholders. It is particularly important that participation take place at all stages of implementation, from the initial knowledge phase through to the implementation of agreed actions, that is, in the execution of projects in which all relevant stakeholders have participated.

In defining the procedures for approving choices, reference may be made to tried and tested processes such as consultation, public inquiries, information meetings and educational exhibitions. These

processes may also be used simultaneously.

* * *

2. A “Handbook on participative landscape planning” referring to the European Landscape Convention was prepared in the framework of the LIFEscape Project.

Authors:

Mr Per BLOMBERG (Municipality of Lund)

Mrs Katarzyna FIDLER (biuro projektów Fidler), on behalf of all LIFEscape partners

Addresses: www.lifescape.eu

The Handbook states:

“The European Landscape Convention was adopted in 2000 in Florence and came into force in 2004. 7 countries obliged themselves to acknowledge the importance of landscape protection in their legislation, raise public awareness of landscape problems and promote international cooperation in this field. Far too few of these postulates have been realised so far. The EU South Baltic Programme-funded LIFEscape project joins forces with local authorities and landscape planners - experts and practitioners from Poland, Lithuania Sweden and Denmark - to share their experience and work out the innovative management solutions best suited to each pilot area. The project was implemented between 2011 and 2014 under the leadership of Elbląg High-Plain Landscape Park, Poland.

Project Partners

- Municipality of Tolkmicko, Poland,*
- Žemaitija National Park, Lithuania,*
- Klaipėda University, Lithuania*
- Municipality of Lund, Sweden*
- Municipality of Sjöbo, Sweden*
- Linnaeus University, Sweden*
- Municipality of Slagelse, Denmark*

Associated Organisations

- General Directorate for Environmental Protection (GDOŚ), Poland*
- Association of Lithuanian State Parks and Reserves*
- Ministry of Environment, Lithuania*
- Swedish National Heritage Board*
- Swedish Forest Agency*
- County Administrative Board of Scania, Sweden*
- European Network of Local and Regional Authorities for the Implementation of the European Landscape Convention (RECEP-ENELC)*
- Visions and Strategies Around the Baltic Sea 2010 (VASAB)*

Part-financed by the European Union (European Regional Development Fund).

The authors are solely responsible for the contents of this handbook. Material included herein does not represent the opinions of the European Union, and the European Union is not responsible for any use that might be made of it.”

The authors of the Handbook have kindly granted permission to the Secretariat of the Council of Europe to use it in order to prepare a general Handbook for the Parties to the Convention.

The Conference is invited to:

- take note of the “Handbook on participative landscape planning” prepared in the framework of the LIFEscape Project;
- note that the authors of the Handbook – Mr Per Blomberg (Municipality of Lund) and Mrs Katarzyna Fidler (biuro projektów Fidler), on behalf of all LIFEscape partners – have granted permission to the Secretariat of the Council of Europe to use it in order to prepare a general Handbook to be used as a source of inspiration for the Parties to the Convention;
- ask the Secretariat therefore to prepare a general Handbook on participative landscape planning, referring to the European Landscape Convention, which will be submitted to the Parties to the Convention.

Handbook on participative landscape planning

*Prepared in the framework of the LIFEscape Project
and referring to the European Landscape Convention*

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1 Introduction

Welcome to this Handbook on participative landscape planning!

1.1 Preface

If you read it, it means you have a genuine interest in landscapes, either because you are a spatial planner, environmentalist, local politician or administrative decision-maker, or perhaps even an academic.

Our goal was to provide you with fresh ideas and inspiration on how to make landscape planning and management processes more rewarding and of lasting positive impact for all participants in the process, and eventually, for the landscape.

While chapters 2 and 3 explain the benefits of early and in-depth participation still not obvious to everyone, chapter 4 provides the necessary definitions when talking about different steps on the ‘participation ladder’. Further-going conclusions about the legal framework of our discussions in some of the European countries are presented in chapters 6 and 7.

However, the heart of this Handbook is chapter 5 with its tools and methods. Ranging from very general information methods such as the all-time favourites general meetings and homepages, through more interactive consultation measures, to full-immersion citizen control mechanisms – all are explained in a brief, practical manner to make them as easy as possible to apply. We particularly recommend section 5.1, ‘Introduction’, because it gives examples on how to prepare ground for the participation process by slowly building confidence. This step is frequently underestimated, but seems vital, especially in countries where citizen society is not working very well yet.

This Handbook is not a recipe to be followed in order from beginning to end, but rather a “pick-and-mix” approach in which appropriate tools may be adapted to the particular circumstances of the area and the planning situation. Indeed, in some countries more detailed guidance on stakeholder participation is already available (see the Further Reading section).

The LIFEscape project is coming to an end, but the cooperation and exchange of experience between North and East European countries will continue in the form of the LIFEscape Forum for Participative Landscape Planning (www.lifescape.eu). Also, the practice of landscape planning will continue to evolve to meet the needs of the European Landscape Convention, so feedback from users of this Handbook will be useful for future revisions. Comments on potential improvements are welcome and should be sent to the address on the inner cover.

1.2 Summary

The aim of the LIFEscape project is to show how the European Landscape Convention can be implemented on a local level through work in four pilot areas. The focus of the project is on participative landscape planning and how the general public could be more involved in planning and management. By testing various methods and tools in dialogue with the general public, the project is aiming at increased knowledge of how participation can be practically implemented in landscape planning.

The most important condition for being able to work on increased participation is that there is a common will throughout the organisation to do so. Increased involvement requires renewed work

models and sharing of responsibilities between different departments and between different officials, and between elected and officials. Increased involvement also requires renewed priorities of resources and time. But at the end of the day it is a question of attitude – does the organisation want to open up for a larger influence from the general public? There must be an outspoken wish on the leader level to work on the issue, or else it will be hard to achieve any results.

Increased participation often takes more time, and consequently takes up more resources. Meeting people and having a dialogue must be allowed to take time if it is to be creative. But sometimes dialogue may even save time, by avoiding future conflicts and the wrong decisions being made. Today's citizens are well-educated and engaged in issues that concern them and protest if projects and decisions are conceived as wrong. There is also much knowledge within the general public, which could be useful when it comes to planning. Officials and politicians cannot possess all the local knowledge, and in most cases need assistance from the local population. There are many different methods and tools used in the work for an increased dialogue, and they are time-consuming in various degrees. Consequently, it is important to decide the level of ambition early on, and allocate resources and time for the implementation.

Participation can take place in many different ways and with varying degrees of influence. Arnstein's ladder describes the various levels in eight steps, from negative participation in the form of manipulation from the sender to user-governed activities. Swedish municipalities and the Swedish Association of Local Authorities and Regions have a similar description made up of five steps in the upper part of Arnstein's ladder and including the more constructive forms of participation. These steps are information, consultation, dialogue, influence and co-decision. In the report 40 different methods and tools for participative landscape planning are described and presented in the five different steps. In local and regional planning, focus is often on a desired change of the landscape, e.g. in the form of new buildings, roads or energy production, but according to the convention the planning process is also important for localising and preserving existent landscape values. This is often new to the local planning process. Taking those future focused measures requires a planning process, and this is generally described in the report.

In the planning of a landscape, a decision is sometimes made to introduce some form for protection to secure the landscape values. After the protection have been instituted, there comes a long period of landscape management. This is particularly evident to those who manage protected areas, like reservations, landscape parks or national parks. The European Landscape Convention brings up those aspects too, in article 1d. The report gives general recommendations for those who work with landscape protection.

1.3 What is landscape?

The term 'landscape' is complex and has many different dimensions. Different people have different experiences of, and answers to what the landscape is. At the same time, there are common valuations of landscape. In every age there has been norms guiding what man considers beautiful or ugly, chaotic or ordered, good or bad. Through these norms we are trained to view the world in the same way. Art, literature, film, environmentalism and the tourist sector are some of the things that influence our world view.

A common way of describing landscapes is from the visual point; the landscape is a view we are looking at. This is mirrored in the term 'landscape view', and originates historically in landscape painting. Another way of describing the landscape is as an ecological environment surrounding and controlling us by supply of food, housing and other economic factors. Those functions are studied e.g. in sciences like landscape ecology. A third description of the landscape is as the totality uniting man

and his environment. Man is part of the landscape and the landscape part of man. You could say that the landscape is the result of and the interaction between natural and/or human factors. This wider understanding of the term 'landscape' is used in the European Landscape Convention.

1.4 The European Landscape Convention

The European Landscape Convention is a vision of what importance the landscape could or should have to man. It also wants to show how we, by protection, management and planning, could create a sustainable development in the future. The convention was prepared by the European states in common and accepted as an international agreement on October 20, 2000 in Florence under the Council of Europe. It is then up to each state to carry out the intentions of the convention. Most states in Europe have ratified the convention, i.e. formally approved of its intentions and suggested measures for how they should be carried out. The Landscape Convention also aims at supporting cooperation on landscape issues within Europe, at the same time as the purpose of the convention is to strengthen the contribution from the general public and the local community in that work. The convention includes all kinds of landscapes, urban as well as rural, that people meet in their everyday life and in their leisure time. In order to enable the diversity of the landscape to develop in a sustainable way, a comprehensive view of its values is demanded. The aim of the European Landscape Convention is to direct development towards a richer life context where everyone can take part and have an influence. To make this work in the best possible way a close cooperation between authorities, organisations, corporations and individuals is demanded. It will also aid a more wide-ranging participation in decisions concerning the landscape, locally as well as regionally. A participative landscape planning is thus central for carrying out the intentions of the convention.

The Landscape Convention makes it possible for every person to participate actively in issues on how the resources of the landscape should be used and developed. The views on those issues are wide, road and varying, depending on what the individual sees and appreciates in his day-to-day landscape. Ownership rights are not threatened by the Landscape Convention for the simple reason that it is a convention, not a directive, i.e. it is an agreement, not a law that must be followed.

2 Why participative landscape planning?

Democracy is a multifaceted concept that has many expressions. Most countries in Europe have a representative democracy which means that we choose delegates in general elections. The citizens hand over the decisions to politicians who are then held responsible for their decisions in the next election. How close contacts the politicians have with the citizens between elections vary. A tendency in Europe is that each politician represents more and more citizens. This happens on the local level, but also since the EU's influence has increased, with politicians appointed on the European level. This is a contributing factor to diminishing engagement in the "Great Democracy" (national and international levels), while many still hold forth an interest in taking part and influencing what happens in the local development, the "small democracy". It is thus considered an important political issue in Europe to increase democratic confidence and engagement in various ways, like increased participation in local and regional planning.

Generally, there are four comprehensive motives for engaging citizens in governing processes:

- better governing: e.g. to achieve legitimacy, confidence, control and good decisions
- better services: to increase efficiency and quality, and create services that serves the requirements of the individual in a better way
- knowledge build-up: to increase the competence, knowledge, awareness and self-confidence of the participants

- active citizenship: to support better relations between citizens and the municipality/county administration and discourage alienation.

Sometimes it is better to desist from performing a citizen dialogue. E.g.:

- when a decision has been made already and it is not possible to change it
- when the dialogue is performed merely because it ought to, without any genuine interest in learning the citizens' views
- when dialogue is used to postpone an issue where it is hard to make a decision, but the dialogue is not viewed as an important part of the decision-making

2.1 We are all participants – Landscape and Democracy

Increased participation in decision-making, planning and management is being discussed in many contexts. Internationally, two conventions have special importance: the Aarhus Convention and the Landscape Convention. The Aarhus Convention is about the access of information, the general public's participation in decision-making, and the rights of trial in environmental issues (Aarhus, June 25, 1998). The convention is special in the way it connects issues of environment and human rights. A democratic process must be developed to acquire an interaction between citizens and state. The convention basically deals with the relation between the citizens and their governments, and consequently is also a treaty on the obligations of authorities, on demands for transparency, and their will to meet the citizens' demands. Citizens have the right to have access to environmental information, the right to have a say in decisions concerning the environment, and the right to appeal decisions concerning the environment or in other ways have a juridical examination of their rights being violated.

The Landscape Convention also includes a distinct democratic aspect. First, because it emphasizes the social importance of the landscape; and second, because it stresses the importance of people being able to actively take part in evaluation and management of the landscape. The democratic aspect is also clearly visible in the definition of landscape in the convention: a landscape is "an area as it is perceived by men and whose character is the result of influence of and interaction between natural and/or human factors". In the second article of the convention, it says in the second paragraph on the aim of the convention "confirming and implementing landscape politics that aims at protection, management and planning of landscapes by taking the special measures stated in article 6" and "introducing procedures for participation of the general public, local and regional authorities and other parts with an interest in forming and implementing the landscape politics stated in the above point".

In the political debate, there seems to be an agreement that an increased and widespread political engagement is the best remedy against distrust in politicians, increasing feelings of political alienation, and decreasing election participation among many citizens. In a difficult economic situation, the rivalry for public resources and various citizen groups' needs for public service are sharpened. While the distribution of resources is a political issue, the planning of public institutions is more of a planning issue. Consequently, a wide-ranging dialogue is important for finding solutions on how to satisfy collective interests without economically strong groups usurping more at the expense of the economically weak.

2.2 Sustainable development – Building the future together

The environmental problems and the ambition to accomplish a sustainable change of society require a dialogue between citizens and public authorities. Sustainable development is based on individuals changing their living habits to decrease the consumption of products and services that devour a large amount of natural resources. All measures for achieving a sustainable development demand some form

of dialogue, where planners and other public servants and politicians account for which counter performances are offered. The work on Agenda 21 is an obvious example of this. Planners need to come in contact with people that have knowledge and understanding of the local environment.

Cities are becoming more and more multifaceted or multicultural. How cultural minorities are going to have a chance of maintaining their identity is an important challenge within a normative majority culture. Multicultural cities are created by developing a sense of belonging among the citizens. It is hard to find solutions that suit everyone, so the value of hearing many views – especially from those who have difficulties in voicing their opinions – is great.

In the former communist states as well as in Scandinavia, a market orientation of public administration has taken place during the 1990s and the noughties. Inspiration comes from private business, with client-performer models, internal buy-and-sell relations, internal competition and privatised responsibilities for a number of public services. This is partly the results of resource limitations, but also of political decisions. From this development a demand for more networking has grown, in place of the previous, more hierarchic rule. Local politics strive in a wider extent to create the conditions for local development by coordinating various resources. Dialogue becomes an important tool in that work.

2.3 Planning is change

Good land-use planning needs the confidence of those who live and work in the area. The important thing is to find a *modus operandi* that lends legitimacy to decision-makers, officials and plans. A well-made participative planning could lessen the number of appeals and questionings whether the plan really meets public interests. A well-made participative planning generates more understanding for different standpoints, even if everyone does not agree. Cooperation must take place early on in the process, before mental and formal positions get locked.

Planning is often the beginning of something new and an opportunity for various choices. Taking sides may generate antagonisms between people and various interests. The role of the planner is to, as far as possible, solve these conflicts and find the best solutions for society. To find the best solutions, it is a requirement that many different views are heard. Planning is also a process where we learn more together about different perspectives and possible solutions. Consequently, planning often turns into developing and supporting cooperation processes. Communication about planning is just as important as the plan itself. Communicative planning claims its process leader, and it is important to prepare for that role.

2.4 Challenges to be considered

Increasing participation in planning is not without complications. It requires more time and resources in public administration, which are often lacking. It is important to find tools and methods that are effective and adjusted to the occasion and situation. Democracy requires dialogue and takes time. Everybody does not have the same opportunities to participate, however, which make a representative participation hard to accomplish. On the other hand, new information technology offers new possibilities for more people to participate without having to meet or spending very much time on participation. But also here, opportunities to use technology are unequally distributed in society.

It is always a question of whose voice should be considered and how the emerged views should relate to representative democracy. If the public administration does not strain to make the weak voices heard in the planning process, the resource-strong will dominate. It is also a question of how many voices that are heard. Is it 5 or 500 in a meeting that express a certain view? How does their voice relate to the mandate the representatively elected politician has received from the whole electoral

district? There is also the risk that participation is misused in order to force through views of experts or politicians. If there is no honest intent behind the dialogue, confidence in the process is weakened as is interest in partaking in future dialogues. Building confidence in, and knowledge of, the dialogue takes time, but it is easy to ruin the confidence in a short time. A politician is more dependent on confidence from the general public to get re-elected, while an official or an expert does not have the same incitement. Consequently, a political standpoint is often required to commence increased participation in planning.

3 How to carry out participative landscape planning? to carry out participative landscape planning?

If the dialogue is to have the desired results, You must have a clear idea as regards:

- Aims (Why is the citizen dialogue carried out? What do you want to achieve?)
- Context (What is the background of the dialogue? Who are concerned by the issue? What has previously happened in the area?)
- Method (How is the dialogue to be implemented? Which tools are best suited to the aims and the target group? How much time and resources are available?)

3.1 Support within the organisation

The most important condition for being able to work on increased participation is that there is a common will throughout the organisation to do so. Increased involvement requires renewed work models and sharing of responsibilities between different departments and between different officials, and between elected and officials. Increased involvement also requires renewed priorities of resources and time. But at the end of the day it is a question of attitude – does the organisation want to open up for a larger influence from the general public? There must be an outspoken wish on the leader level to work on the issue, or else it will be hard to achieve any results.

3.2 Time and resources

Increased participation often takes more time, and consequently takes up more resources. Meeting people and having a dialogue must be allowed to take time if it is to be creative. But sometimes dialogue may even save time, by avoiding future conflicts and the wrong decisions being made. Today's citizens are well-educated and engaged in issues that concern them and will protest if projects and decisions are conceived as wrong. There is also much knowledge within the general public, which could be useful when it comes to planning. Officials and politicians cannot possess all the local knowledge, and in most cases need assistance from the local population. There are many different methods and tools in the work for an increased dialogue, and they are time-consuming to various degrees. Consequently, it is important to decide the level of ambition early on, and allocate resources and time for the implementation.

Democracy takes time and requires resources – and must be allowed to do so.

3.3 Contract with the general public – Confidence and relation

A useful cooperation does not come automatically, but demands time and efforts. Everywhere there is a certain sceptical attitude to those with power and influence. Perhaps there are negative experiences from previous occasions, when the public views were not considered. Achieving a useful cooperation demands mutual confidence, and more often than not this takes time according to experience and position. In certain situations there is already a good cooperation, and in those cases dialogue often

works right away. In other situations there are tensions that must be dealt with first, before a good dialogue can be started. For officials and politicians in municipalities and regions as well as administrators in protected areas, an increased cooperation with the concerned public is a remedy for long-term prosperity. It generates confidence in the work pursued and provides the organisation with valuable knowledge. Confidence is a capital that builds with time, but is easily lost by inadequate actions.

There are several different incitements for the general public to engage in landscape planning. First, there is interest in acquiring more knowledge and information on certain circumstances. There could also be an urge to learn more of the views of various participants, what expectations there are, and what requests and visions are represented. Third, there could be a desire to build relations and networks in the area, strengthening existing networks as well as finding new ones. Man is a social being after all. Fourth, there could be striving for capacity support, to enable action on a certain issue. This is perhaps most distinct when there is explicit resistance on a certain issue. Fifth, there could be a desire to advance oneself and others, and the current life conditions – a political involvement to create a better future in the local environment or the surrounding landscape.

3.4 A mutual process between politicians, officials and the public – roles and responsibilities

In a representative democracy, politicians are elected and then granted a period to realise their politics. If you are dissatisfied with the results, you have the opportunity to elect other representatives in the next election. But between elections there is also opportunity to have a direct dialogue between politicians and public to find as good as possible practical solutions. To carry out the practical work, officials are employed and the responsibilities for the practical realisation have been delegated to them. The officials are often experts on their subject and carry out measures according to their capacity. To what extent they consult the general public varies from person to person and from organization to organisation.

An extended dialogue in planning requires interaction between those three parties, and in addition new roles for the different parties. That the general public is allowed a greater influence in planning implies new roles for the officials, and sometimes requires new competences. You should not just be good at your special topic, but you must also be able to communicate and find mutual solutions. Public information officers and process management are competences that could be useful in the organisation for the dialogue. Also the general public and politicians need education on how a participative process should come about, and acquire skills in leading a dialogue and finding creative solutions.

3.5 Feedback to the general public

Having a good dialogue is not enough; it is also a requirement that the general public is informed on to what extent their views have been considered. Consequently, a feedback of the involvement in the planning is important. This lays the foundations for the next process, and strengthens the confidence in politicians and officials. Models and time for the feedback should be planned at an early stage. There could also be reasons for making a more formal conclusion to a process, and celebrating to have succeeded achieving a mutual vision of the issue in question together. There is also reason to feedback disagreements too, to learn in the process, and utilise various viewpoints in future projects where better solutions may be formed.

A simple plan for forming a citizen dialogue may look like this:

Step 1 – Establishing a planning group that is responsible for the dialogue. It is a good thing to have a small group with specific responsibility for the citizen dialogue. The group determines the goal of the dialogue, which methods and tools should be used, the extent of the dialogue, etc.

Step 2 – Forming a detailed project plan. This plan should clarify the extent, time frame, key activities and dates of the dialogue, what resources are available, what additional resources are necessary, and a communication plan (see step 3).

Step 3 – Communication. Communication should, just like evaluation, be a recurrent theme throughout the dialogue process. Good and wide-ranging communication is required to attract participants, make citizens feel that the dialogue is important, finding support for the dialogue internally and with different parties (e.g. businesses, civil society) and report what happens after the dialogue is finished.

Step 4 – Realisation. This includes all practical work necessary to carry out the process, like booking premises, preparing material, inviting participants, planning for coffee/food for meetings, preparing and moderating possible web tools, finding support in concerned department/administrations and recording participants' views.

Step 5 – The results are used. In this step, the results of the dialogue are introduced into the governing. How this will happen depends on what the issues are and what the processes look like, but it is important to have a plan for how to use the results already when the dialogue starts.

Step 6 – Feedback. If the participants were not included in the final decision-making it is important that they, and other citizens, are informed what happened after the dialogue, how the participants' views were used, and why certain views were ignored – if that is the case. In addition to general communication work (e.g. in media or on the city/county administration homepage), it is important to make special circulars or feedback meetings for the participants.

4 What is participative landscape planning?

(Various steps on the Participation Ladder)

4.1 The Participation Ladder

Participation may occur in many different ways and with varying degrees of influence. Arnstein's ladder describes the various levels in eight steps, from negative participation in the form of manipulation from the sender to user-governed activities. Swedish municipalities and the Swedish Association of Local Authorities and Regions have a similar description made up of five steps from the upper part of Arnstein's ladder and including the more constructive forms of participation. These steps are information, consultation, dialogue, influence and co-decision.

It is not necessarily so that the higher steps of the ladder represent the best forms of participation. We have previously discussed the relation between representative and direct democracy, and the complications that exist between the two forms. In some situations information is the best solution, while in others a large part of the decision responsibilities could favourably be handed over to the participants.

The Participation Ladder should be viewed as an aid in structuring the citizen dialogue in relation to the decisions the politicians are going to make, working from the local conditions that prevail in the municipality/area.

Quite often, several different levels are represented in a participation process. Perhaps some citizens want to get more involved and participate through influence, which takes more time, others may take part in a dialogue or just a consultation on the finished proposals or are even content with information on how the work was carried out and what the results were.

4.2 Information

To be able to participate you need to be well-informed and have the opportunity to take in knowledge of the issue that is to be discussed. Some decisions are not suited for citizen dialogues, but the citizens have the right to be informed on what decision has been made. A transparent organisation creates trust and confidence. There is also the reverse situation when officials and politicians want information on certain conditions or a certain area. The general public's chances to inform the municipality or the organisation are consequently also important.

4.3 Consultation

Consultation means giving the citizens opportunity to take a stand on which alternative they think is the best in a current issue. The starting point here is alternatives that were prepared by the profession and accepted by the politicians, and where citizens can decide whether they prefer alternative 1 or 2, and A or B. Consultation could also mean that various experts are consulted in a specific issue, or that an inquiry is made of a group of experts or public where everyone is invited to participate.

4.4 Dialogue

Here people are given opportunity to meet others in order to carry out a dialogue on a current issue. The starting point is that everyone should be allowed to put forth their view, and argue for their view of the issue. The basis is that you do not have to reach a consensus. There are a number of different methods and tools to make the dialogue work well – this is presented more in detail in the next chapter. Dialogue is often central to participative landscape planning.

4.5 Participation

Participation means that the citizens take part during a lengthy period, and are involved in a development process from the beginning and through to the complete proposal that is the basis for political decisions. The participation takes place on a deeper level, and requires more preparation to be rewarding. This may be the form that is most desirable, but it is also very time-consuming and resource-demanding.

4.6 Co-decision

Here the representatively elected assembly has chosen to delegate responsibilities to a group of people where delegates are not chosen from party affiliation, but as persons. There are a number of examples where a local group have been given right of decision, e.g. cooperative preschools, management of protected nature areas, or road collectives. Also in the production of plans there are attempts to assign the work and the decision-making phase to the locally concerned, but most common is that this happens through participation together with officials, and that the plan is decided by elected politicians.

5 Tools for participative landscape planning

This chapter presents a number of tools and methods for participative landscape planning. Often, several tools may be useful in the process, and the freedom to combine different methods and techniques is large. The tools are presented, starting from the beginning and then the various methods from information to citizen decision with increased influence and resource requirements. Many proposals were collected from the Swedish Association of Local Authorities and Regions (SALAR) and their publications and homepage. Paragraphs 5.2 through 5.6 follows the participation ladder produced by SALAR, modeled on Arnstein's ladder.

5.1 Introduction – Build-up knowledge – Involvement

More often than not, it is not possible to start the dialogue right away, and preparations are necessary to make the process work. First, planning is required; second, those who will be involved must be informed; and third, knowledge of and confidence in how the process will be implemented is required from officials, politicians and the general public.

5.1.1 Operator analysis

To enable a good dialogue it is important to find out early on which actors are concerned and thus important to include in the process.

An actor analysis is a good planning tool in every project. Different actors prefer different methods and tools for collaboration. Some actors may be less interested in participating, but are important for achieving a good result, e.g. young people. The best way to get a good overview of the actors is to meet people in the area and ask which interests and networks are active. Who are the key persons? What resources do various actors have to participate? Which authorities and societies could be concerned?

5.1.2 Communicating – Group dynamics

A condition for participation is good communication.

The meeting and how it is carried out is consequently very important. It is about simultaneously accomplishing creativity, democracy and effectivity, which may not be very easy. Furthermore, it is important that not just a few speak, but everyone's views should be brought forth. It is about having a distinct agenda for the meeting, so everyone agrees on the aim and the implementation. Everybody is not equally good at communicating, but there is a lot you can learn in order to improve your skills. There is, of course, also the opportunity of bringing in communicators and process leaders to help out in the work. Sometimes it may be a good thing to have neutral leader of the meeting to make more people engaged. Also furnishing, the room, time, group dynamics, consumption, etc. are important for creating good communication. It could also be important to know the master suppression techniques in order to avoid them. Those are the five (Berit As, 1976): Making invisible (silencing or marginalising the oppositional by ignoring them); Ridicule; Withholding information; Double bind (being faced with a choice and getting disrespected or punished irrespective of whichever choice is made); Heap blame/put to shame. As opposites of those there are five confirmation techniques (PhD students at Stockholm University): Visualising; Adherence; Inform; Double reward; Confirm reasonable standards.

5.1.3 The ABCD method – Asset-Based Community Development

The idea of the ABCD method is to focus on the resources in a certain place and situation, not on the problems.

To create engagement, it is often more constructive to work at positive feelings, rather than negative. From tradition we often tend to focus on problems when discussing planning situations. By looking at which conditions people have in an area, which dreams they have, what visions there are, a constructive development can be created. It is those living and working in the area who defines what resources there are. Central to the method is that those present are the right people, whatever happens, when it starts the time is right and when it is over it is over. It may sound simple, but the achieved results are good enough.

5.1.4 The Safari Method – invite to experiences

The aim of this method is to emphasise what is exciting in an area and present it in an interesting way.

An invitation is made to a discovery trip in an area to make people interested and start a dialogue or consultation. The arrangement may be short or long – walk, bicycle trip or journey by bus. A safari could be a good way to start a process which then continues in other forms of meetings. The participants get something in return and not much is demanded from them for taking part. Contemplate which the main target group is, and what demands and wishes they have. Adapt the activity so everyone who wants to can participate irrespective of age and mobility.

5.1.5 Local stories

By telling an interesting story, interest and engagement is aroused

Local stories is similar to the safari model, but could just as well be held indoors or on the internet. The participants listen to the story and may respond to it afterwards. The stories do not have to be remarkable, they could be about ourselves and how we experience an area. Research indicates that we listen and understand better if we hear a story. Stories arouse feelings and activate our experiences. Stories are often easier to assimilate than technical terminology, project descriptions or statistics.

5.1.6 Landscape analysis

Making an analysis of the landscape and its conditions is always a good starting point for a project.

In this process, the general public and various experts should be allowed to contribute their knowledge. This could be done as simple sketches on a map, with coordinates set for certain points for GIS manipulation, or as advanced landscape analyses with substantial expert involvement. In the UK there is a long experience from Landscape Characterisation Assessment (LCA) and Historic Landscape Assessment SpacesSpacesLA). Through participation in the production of landscape analyses, a better basis is provided and a better knowledge basis is achieved, especially as regards social background. An analysis is never really complete, and the discussion can continue, but some kind of finishing should be made, so the participants can see how the experts have treated their views and have the chance to correct mistakes.

5.1.7 Study circles and courses

Building competence and knowledge is valuable to the process of participative landscape planning.

This may apply to physical as well as social conditions, but also to the work to reach a common vision. The level of ambition may vary from the occasional course to a lengthy study circle that the participants administrate themselves. There are always some people who have more time than others, and who want to learn more and make new acquaintances. The building of knowledge could become an important part of landscape analysis, and it could preferably focus on some area that has not been elucidated before. A substantial result is important, and the course or the study circle should have something to account for when it is finished.

5.1.8 Professional networks

The landscape is complex and doing justice to it requires many different competences.

Consequently, creating wide networks among professionals is important. A wide network also provides the opportunity for experience-sharing that everyone can benefit from. Think wide and avoid getting stuck in traditional categorisations of what a landscape is. Even in an area with high natural values, social issues are important for maintaining the high values. In a cultural landscape this is more obvious, but also in genuine wilderness areas tourism and outdoor activities are important to the landscape values. You must also be open-minded towards different professionals and show curiosity of what they can tell you.

5.1.9 Ambassadors and mentors

Using ambassadors and mentors as resources in local projects, it will be easier to reach special focus groups.

They could be groups that are difficult for the professionals to reach, like children, youth and immigrant groups. Personal contacts are important in local development projects. Mentors as well as ambassadors use their networks to reach certain groups. The ambassador should be communicative and reach the groups that are desirable to involve. The mentor role is more about supporting groups that have difficulties in voicing their opinions, e.g. youth. The mentor becomes a contact person and a support to them.

5.1.10 The photographic method

Use photography and film to document and analyse the physical conditions, but also the process.

Photography could also be used to engage the participants in capturing their image of an area. This could be a prelude to a discussion on the qualities and shortcomings of the area. It could be a way of showing different perspectives and having a dialogue on different values. You could also use pictures of different landscapes that have been produced prior to a meeting, to start a discussion on which landscapes we prefer. This adds a greater understanding of different opinions, but also shows some common references when it comes to beauty and attraction in the landscape.

5.1.11 Conflict resolution

In all group dynamics some form of conflict arises.

Everyone cannot agree all the time. But disagreements must not lead to conflict. One must be prepared for the situations when the divergence does lead to conflict, and prevent or solve them when they arise. The most important thing is to tackle the factual matter, not the person, when you disagree, letting people talk without interruption, and breaking discussions that are going out of hand. Listening is an important basis for solving differences of opinion. Power abuse is a frequent cause of conflicts. It is important that the experts/officials and the politicians reflect on how much influence and power they have. In certain issues a consensus cannot be reached, and in most cases a decision then has to be made on the political level.

5.2 Information

Information is the prerequisite for participative landscape planning. All concerned parties must have information on how the process will evolve, where and when meetings take place, what the results of the various activities are, and what the final results are. There are a number of channels available to bring out and receive information. Here are some suggestions:

5.2.1 General meetings

When you want to inform many people simultaneously on an important theme/subject, an information meeting/general meeting is a good way to do it.

An information meeting/general meeting is essentially a one-way communication and should not be confused with a dialogue. This is primarily a method for informing citizens, e.g. introducing a large dialogue project and informing a large group on how the work will proceed. Another example could be when the management wants to inform on a decision already made, including the basis and facts. Verbal information should be supplemented with written information/presentation materials of various kinds. A general meeting puts very high demands on the leader of the meeting. The aim and the agenda of the meeting must be clear to everyone. Make clear in the invitation that this is an information meeting and not anything else. Often, there are discussions one way or another. All participants will not be heard, however. In most cases it is only those who dare express themselves in other contexts who put forth their views and opinions. If the issue considered is controversial, many participants run the risk of having difficulties to assimilate substantial information. Because of this, it takes an experienced organiser to lead the meeting, let various participants speak, and handle various situations. A general meeting is easy to accomplish if you want to spread similar information to many people at the same time. This form should not be used if the aim is to acquire substantial views and have a dialogue.

5.2.2 Homepage

Homepages are simple and efficient tools for providing many people with information simultaneously.

A homepage is not a static information channel you make once; it must be updated continuously and adapted to the demands of the world around us. In spite of the large access to computers and the Internet, you cannot reach all citizens through the homepage. Think about how you inform – is the information primarily aimed at citizens or users? Perhaps several levels of information are required. A comprehensive description of e.g. the management of the area aimed at residents, media and other interested parties, and in-depth information for users and personnel. This kind of role-based and target group-adapted information is getting more and more common. The homepage is the absolutely fastest channel for spreading information. The homepage must be run in a professional way and this requires resources in the form of competence as well as tools.

5.2.3 Information and marketing via printed media, posters, etc.

Printed information provides a clear message, but it may be difficult to reach the right target group and it is rather expensive.

Informing the citizens on what is happening in the municipality or in the area in question is a very important task. One must use several different channels, since citizens pick up information in many different ways. In spite of homepages and other channels on the Internet having assumed a large amount of the information flow, printed information is preferable in many cases. When printed matter is produced, it is important to use words everyone understands and avoid technical terminology. Be careful to describe the target group, so the information reaches the intended recipients. Can we write to the young and old in the same way? The information in printed matter should also be presented on the homepage. There are also opportunities for having in-depth information, discussion fora, etc. If you want to make a broad invitation to various activities, printed information is efficacious. The invitation may include an entry stub, reply form, etc. if desired. A method frequently used by organisations is performing dialogues in the neighbourhood, and where they meet people in the street. In that situation it could be worthwhile to have something for those who want additional information. A leaflet or

brochure that explains or provides facts has a value in being easy to put in your bag or pocket for later reading when you are on the bus, etc. Does the information you consider printing have a short or long lifespan? If the lifespan is short, consider other information channels. The chain from idea to finished product is rather long, but of course it varies with the requirements put on the end product. Count backwards from an imagined delivery date and it will become clear how much time the process will take via your suppliers. and have a dialogue.

5.2.4 Video on the web

Today, it is possible – with rather simple tools – to produce your own video/TV features that you can publish on the municipality/organization homepage.

It is often conceived as more personal if an elected person “speaks directly to me”. Moving pictures is an excellent way for organisations to invite citizens to meetings, citizen panels, etc. (To explain complicated relations in a simplified way: “A picture says more than a thousand words!”). You should practise, so you are relaxed in front of the camera, and perhaps there is media training nearby that you can cooperate with. Time expenditure is dependent on ambition – there are no limits to how much time and money you can spend on this medium, but through e.g. YouTube we now have a totally different acceptance for simpler features as regards production. Contents and message are valued higher than visual design. The production time of a short interview that requires a minimum of editing could be very short if you have access to the right technology. If you have to purchase the competence for the whole production chain from recording to finished film it will be expensive. Often, special IT solutions are required to present film on your own homepage.

5.2.5 Study trip

To inform and also increase knowledge among the participants, a study trip may be appreciated.

There is opportunity to look at similar conditions in another place or to be inspired by what someone else has done or is planning to do. Study trips could go to the neighbourhood or far away, depending on what you want to show and what resources are available. Study trips are often made by bus, and the number of participants is accordingly limited.

5.3 Consultation

In consultation, an intended group is interviewed about their views on a certain issue. They could be experts as well as general public. The tools used range from simple ones like questionnaires to more advanced ones like the English Spaceshaper system.

5.3.1 Questionnaire

Questionnaires are written inquiries that can be used for fact collection of various kinds, like opinion polls, evaluations and knowledge tests, where the answers are not known.

The questionnaire could be a postal questionnaire, group questionnaire or a reply stub. Which method you choose depends on what the aim of the enquiry is and the resources available. An advantage of the questionnaire compared to the interview is that it can reach many simultaneously – conducting interviews with the same number of people would require significantly more time. In a questionnaire the respondents could be anonymous, which renders follow-ups impossible if an answer need elaboration or explanation. The interview has an obvious advantage there.

5.3.2 Focus group

The focus group is mainly a consultation tool. It is a simple and quick method that generates involvement. It may take quite a lot of work, however, to reach focus groups and gather them for a meeting.

The focus group method could be used as a mapping tool, where you start out from the group's estimation of which the important factors in a certain issue are. Often, the mapping is combined with an evaluation of those factors. What the group deem important is graded and provides the basis for what is most urgent to take care of. A major advantage of the focus group is that it is based in dialogue and involvement, and that the results can be quickly compiled and presented. In this method, the work and analysis is concentrated to a main issue. The possible use is mainly early on in a dialogue process as an aid in identifying factors important to the area, and accordingly as a basis for the continued process. The method can be used to identify the target group's language, perception and understanding of the issue and as a complementary method prior to a questionnaire, to ask the right questions. There should always be a moderator in the focus group work. The moderator is well prepared and familiar with the subject/issue under debate. To his aid the moderator needs an assistant who documents the interview. The room should be furnished in a semicircle, so the participants can see the screen where documentation is made continuously. There are a number of basic steps in the process of the focus group method. If you want a very detailed analysis of an issue, the focus group discussions will not allow sufficient time for in-depth treatment. A suitable size of the group is c. 6-12 participants, to make them feel comfortable in expressing their views. To make the results highly reliable, it is a good idea to treat the same issue in several groups. The method works best in a homogenous group that is connected to the issue. Sometimes mixed groups can be useful, however. Prior to planning and the invitation of participants, it is important to consider the composition of the group. The participants of a focus group can be selected for being representative of the population at large, or of a certain part of the population. It could be a good way to involve marginalised groups. The time spent on each focus group meeting is about 2-3 hours, and the cost for focus groups is generally not very high. A 'carrot' in the form of coffee or dinner could be necessary to make the citizens partake in focus groups. Additional costs include premises, catering and arrangements to support partaking, like child care (SALAR).

5.3.3 GeoPanel

Citizens are invited to express their views or contribute their proposals by putting a marker in a spot, mark a stretch of road or a whole area on the map.

With the aid of the GeoPanel you can e.g. ask the questions: "Where is it safe to walk?" or "Where should we build a playground?" The marking on the map can also be connected to a written comment on the motives for the marking. All the answers have a geographical connection, and can be analysed in a GIS (Geographic Information System) in your municipality or organisation. Do not ask too many or too complicated questions. Try the questionnaire on a test group before sending it out. The GeoPanel allows many to contribute views and proposals irrespective of time and space. The gathered information can be compiled without any additional input – if you use a GIS map as a basis, the answers can be matched against various layers of the GIS system. The maps used in a web enquiry could also be printed and used in physical meetings. Access to good maps is a necessity for using the GeoPanel fully. This method can be used for an unlimited number of participants, but it requires access to the Internet. It requires well-reasoned questions – answering should be so simple that it takes a maximum of 15 minutes. Costs may vary depending on which competences are available within the organisation and how much consult time has to be purchased (SALAR).

5.3.4 Citizen panel

“In the citizen panel method, participants are selected at random and in that way the municipality may reach people who usually do not participate. The method includes informing the participants and opening for discussions and consultations” (Lindholm & Moritz, 2007).

Various forms of citizen panels have been developed, and the physical meetings have more and more been augmented with virtual panel meetings on the Internet, known as e-panel meetings. E-panels provide quicker answers and do not put equally high demands since participation takes place at home (Swedish Association of Local Authorities and Regions, 2010). The citizen panel could be designed as a workshop lasting for one day and containing various activities. An interesting alternative is to use audience response voting, which gives quick and effective answers. A citizen panel often lends goodwill to the organisation. The panel members represent only themselves and cannot be asked too frequently, about 2-4 times in six months would be appropriate. A citizen panel communicating via e-mail, web, etc. requires that the participants have access to and know how to use a computer connected to the Internet. It takes quite a lot of time to manage a citizen panel – from inviting participants to asking questions, receiving answers and administering the panel, and then the results should be fed back to the panel and published.

5.3.5 Audience response

A method that is applicable to large meetings is to use some kind of audience response equipment if you quickly want to get an idea of what a group of people think about one or several issues.

Make it very clear in the invitation what the idea of the meeting is. Be quick with feedback from the meeting and inform on the web or through other information channels. Be careful to formulate the questions so they can be easily answered, and maybe you can try the questions on a few people beforehand. The method gives an immediate response to the questions asked on a large screen, text messages also roll up as they are received. Everyone has the same chance of expressing their views – it is not possible for a few “smooth-spoken ones” to hijack the meeting. You can manage to ask many questions in a relatively short time, and the answers are anonymous. As a participant in the meeting you can quickly grasp if there are more people sharing your opinion, or if they express other opinions. Participants often perceive the method as positive, since you get a first-hand picture of what people think on various issues. Since you are going to rent equipment, you must dimension premises and estimate the number of participants to the best of your ability beforehand. Time is required for preparations, booking premises and equipment, invitations, formulating questions, etc. The actual performance will not take more time than an ordinary meeting. There are variations in how advanced the equipment is, which affects the cost. In a number of municipalities and regional boards the council halls are equipped with stationary voting equipment that can also be used for putting questions to citizens. If you consider investing in such equipment, a mobile set could be a good alternative. In that case, the audience response equipment could be used in many places. It could also be a good idea to coordinate any investments with one or two adjacent municipalities. If you buy compatible equipment, you can borrow it from each other in case of large meetings.

5.3.6 SMS panel

An SMS panel is a citizen panel where communication is carried out by text messages on mobile telephones.

Citizens are invited to register on the homepage for partaking in a citizen panel. The method is useful if you want fast feedback from many people. Since the answers are to be given via text message, the questions must not be too complicated. They could be:

- Yes/No/Don't know questions
- Ranging questions
- Questions of picking one proposal
- There are also opportunities for short text messages.

Be careful to formulate questions so they are easy to understand. Publish answers, summaries, etc. on the homepage as a feedback. Decide if the answers should be paid by the panel member or the recipient. Telephone traffic is a cost, check what is included in your telephony contracts. SMS panel is a fast and simple way of receiving points of view. Today, access to mobile telephones is high, and they are particularly popular with the young. An answering cost could be negatively regarded by some. If youth (minors) are participating, permission from legal guardians is required in most cases. The invitation could preferably be aimed at various defined groups, like the residents of a certain area, youth, visitors to a festival, etc. SALAR has produced a simple web-based tool for handling issues via SMS. Using the programme is free of charge – the only cost is for the SMS messages. (SALAR)

5.3.7 Spaceshaper

A practical toolkit to measure the quality of a public space before investing time and money in improving it. Spaceshaper captures the views of professionals who are running the space as well as those of the people that use the space.

Facilitated workshops discuss the results, design quality and how the space works for different people. Spaceshaper encourages people to demand more from their local spaces. Young people are often overlooked in community engagement, but Spaceshaper 9-14 aims to get them involved in improving their local parks, streets, playgrounds and other spaces. Since the tool was launched in February 2007, over 300 facilitators have been trained and 200 Spaceshaper workshops have taken place around the country. Spaceshaper works by collecting the views of lots of different people through visiting a site and filling in a questionnaire. A half day workshop then gives everyone the chance to explain what they think about the space. This helps the people who use the space and those who manage it gain a better understanding of how it works for different people, and its strengths and weaknesses. This can help those who look after the space make changes to improve it.

5.4 Dialogue

In consultation, an intended group is interviewed about their views on a certain issue. They could be experts as well as general public. The tools used range from simple ones like questionnaires to more advanced ones like the English Spaceshaper system.

5.4.1 Open Space

Open Space is a very free meeting form where the agenda is not decided beforehand, the only things that are determined are place, time and theme.

Open Space is a useful form if there are many participants. The recommended number varies from ten to several hundred. An Open Space could last anywhere from half a day up to three days and is led by at least one person. The modus operandi is that you meet and together come up with the specific subjects you want to discuss in connection with the theme. Anyone who wants to can propose subjects and the ones that interest enough people to have a discussion are the ones that will be discussed. The discussion subjects are written in a timetable for the meeting's various sessions, and each discussion is led and documented by the person who suggested the subject. You divide yourselves into groups in different rooms, and discussions are terminated when it is time for lunch or coffee. It is common to divide a full day into three sessions, and to start with an inspiration lecture. During discussions you are

free to change group if you want to, and this could enrich other discussions by exchange of good ideas between groups. Finally, the groups get together for a summary of the discussions and an appraisal of the meeting. Some kind of written documentation should be compiled for the participants, and will provide a good basis for continued work in the area.

5.4.2 Walks

The idea is that when you are outside, under the open skies, you think more creatively than when you are sitting in a conference room.

There are several variants of this method. The aim is to release creativity and acquire lots of ideas from the participants in the group. This method can be used for an invited, selected group of about 10–30 participants. What walks have in common is that you walk around in a group and stop at certain points that were selected beforehand, either by the leaders of the walk or by the participants. You stop at those points, either to discuss right there and then, or to take down notes for a discussion afterwards. There are also walks for evaluation of new neighbourhoods, and a well-known method for this is the ‘gatur’, that proceeds in a special way. “The participants are experts on the area with various experiences; they could be e.g. architects, administrators and residents. The size of each group should be 10–15 people. If it would be interesting to have more people attending the evaluation, several walks should be arranged. The leader of the walk has previously decided on a number of stops, based on the function of the places. It could be e.g. the entrance to the area or a square. The participants are not supposed to discuss with each other during the walk, but just write down notes on every place you stop at. After the walk you gather in a room where you discuss each place and everyone can express their opinion. All views are exposed in sight, e.g. on a flipchart, overhead or computer with a video screen. This so every participant is able to check that no misinterpretations have emerged and that all views are as painstakingly documented.” (de Laval 1997, quoted from Tylstedt 2008)

Another way of using this method is that politicians/officials meet citizens “in the street”, walk along and meanwhile ask questions on the basis of an issue/subject, from a fixed form/ questionnaire or suchlike. The answers are taken down as you go along. Politicians and officials compile the results and then present an analysis seminar. The material is used in the continued work on the issue/subject. The results are fed back and presented to the general public in an announcement or in another way as declared to the interviewees. It is important to decide the issue beforehand, with programme, agenda and place. The feedback should also be arranged before you meet the citizens. This method is not a detailed analysis of an issue; it should rather be regarded as a consultation method. Time is required for preparations, performance and the follow-up work with seminars for an analysis of the results. (SALAR)

5.4.3 The Workbook Method

This method implies that three workbooks are produced. This is rather resource and time consuming, to administrators as well as participants.

The workbooks contain information and questionnaires that are distributed to selected study groups. The first workbook brings up current issues to be discussed. In parallel with the study groups answering Workbook One, new study circles are started also discussing the current issues. The answers from Workbook One and the study circle are compiled in Workbook Two. In addition, Workbook Two is supplemented with more questions, and once again sent out to the citizens. The comments from Workbook Two are compiled in Workbook Three, and this book is the final result and the basis for the politicians’ decision-making. This method takes about a year to perform, which is one of its disadvantages. Otherwise, it is efficient in communicating knowledge and providing a well-founded dialogue. (de Laval 1999)

5.4.4 Chat

Chat is a method where participants communicate via short text messages in real time.

A chat could be open for a limited time, e.g. 7.00-8.00 pm, to allow citizens to put questions to the responsible people in a certain issue. It could be regarded as a modern form for call-in. A chat should be quick and it may be a good idea to have several people at hand to answer and to let young collaborators who are familiar with the form help out. In a very short time many people have the opportunity to put their very own question to the responsible people. Everyone can see all the questions and answers, and you can follow the chat without asking. Questions and answers can be saved for continued use, publishing, etc. The disadvantage is that everyone does not venture taking part since the tempo is very high. Besides preparations, marketing and realisation the efforts are relatively small. Access to a chat program is required, as is certain marketing, and a group that is at hand to answer questions during the time the 'chat' is open. SALAR has produced a web-based tool for chats that is free to use. (SALAR)

5.4.5 Discussion fora on the Internet

Another method for enabling dialogue with citizens is to use some kind of web-based dialogue tool.

Such a tool could be used for totally open discussions where everyone is welcome to take part. Another way is to connect it to a smaller group, like a citizen panel, or as a way to continue a discussion after a focus group meeting. The discussion can be conducted entirely text-based or including sound and image according to focus and aim. It is important to consider if the forum should be open to everyone or closed and connected to a limited group, like a citizen panel. By rendering contributions featuring sound and image possible, you support people with difficulties in expressing themselves in writing. Someone must assume the role of moderator and regularly control the comment so nothing unsuitable comes through. (One alternative could be to have direct publishing during office hours and for the additional time publish received contributions the next morning after a quick review). The discussion is held independent of time and space and many have opportunity to take part. Current issues are often debated fast and the discussion is transparent, everyone can see all contributions. This method requires that the participants have access to a computer connected to the Internet. It also requires watching by a moderator whose work effort depends on the activities of the forum. (SALAR)

5.4.6 The World Café Method – Dialogue café

The Café Method is a dialogue method that encourages people to take part in discussions on current topics in informal and comfortable surroundings.

The room is furnished as invitingly as possible, e.g. as a café where you are seated around small tables. The process is led by the moderator of the meeting. The meeting should start with a short account of the facts of the matter. Information materials should also be at hand for the participants. Small dialogue groups around the tables examine a theme or given problems, that should be open and challenging. The participants switch tables/groups at certain times during the meeting. In essence, the process is carried out in three stages: analysis, in-depth analysis, proposal preparation. The work at the tables is documented. Ideas and views are passed on to the other participants during or at the end of the meeting. There are plain rules/principles to aid involvement and creativity among the participants. The leader of the process should have a short education in the method. The furnishing of the room is important. Questions and topics must be relevant and clear. Costs may vary – if the premises are an

actual café with just about ten participants the cost may be very modest. For large events with hundreds of participants in a special location, the costs could quickly increase. Since the method does not require a large number of process leaders, it could be an inexpensive way of holding creative meetings. (SALAR)

5.4.7 Hearings

In most cases, ‘hearing’ refers to a meeting where a panel of politicians/officials have a dialogue with an invited expert panel, but it could also include representatives for concerned citizens, often in front of a large group of visitors/public.

The aim is that politicians/officials should have a comprehensive exposition and knowledge of the subject/issue that the hearing focus on, from various experts, interested and concerned parties. At the same time, everyone can ask each other additional questions, often resulting in good and rewarding discussions. Sometimes the chairperson concludes the hearing by letting all participants, politicians as well as experts, comment on what they have learnt from this rendezvous. In the invitation, it is important to express the aim of the hearing, and what the results will be used for. Extensive preparation efforts are required for compiling and defining the issues of the hearing, and for finding and inviting appropriate panel members, so the ‘expert panel’ can provide an all-round exposition. An experienced meeting/debate leader is required, and also several people to document the meeting (possibly recording). Plan and inform in reasonable time so everyone can take part, and organise publicity before and after the hearing. Decide how feedback should be brought to panel members and visitors. This method requires a certain competence from the leader to hold a hearing. Resources for information, communication and documentation of the hearing are required. (SALAR)

5.4.8 Open area meeting – Citizen assembly

This is a method for initiating a meeting place for citizens, local organisations and politicians. The aim is to discuss and have a dialogue on important issues and to answer the locals’ questions.

This method could constitute an on-going collaboration with the local community, and the discussion/dialogue is focused on issues of special interest to the local area. The number of open area meetings may vary, from every second month or once a quarter to twice a year. The meetings take place in the evening, and are led by local politicians with officials assisting in factual matters, methods, etc. The agenda of the meeting is broadly drawn and informed on before invitations to the meeting are made. To assure that a participant will be answered at the meeting, questions or viewpoints should be registered beforehand. There should also be time for a few additional questions from the participants. A summary of the results is reported back to the participants, either on an individual basis or in an information/newsletter that is sent out after each meeting. Normally it is also available on the web. The summary is also communicated inwards in the organisation, boards as well as administrations. In Lund City, citizen assemblies are performed regularly. The citizen assemblies cannot decide that things will be carried out; they can just make recommendations or propositions. The meeting protocol is signed by the chairperson and two selected citizens. The protocols are subsequently posted in citizen bureaux and libraries. The protocols will also be presented to the city council. It is important to make the agenda and invitation early on, and to inform on the meeting in various ways. Resource expenses are relatively low. Often the meetings take place in in-house premises, and the main costs are for personnel, including time for planning and participation in the meeting, and answering for notes/protocol reaching the participants. (SALAR)

5.4.9 Workshops in dialogue form

Workshops in dialogue form are actually simplified group discussions with the aim of allowing the participants to examine an issue thoroughly, challenge each other's views and develop their viewpoints/arguments to reach a deeper understanding of and insight into the issue/subject.

The workshops enable in-depth discussion on a specific topic with a couple of people for a few hours. They are also useful when an organisation wants better insight and understanding of what could lie behind people's views or a statement. The workshop in dialogue form is similar to the focus group, but tends to focus more on dialogue, discussion and negotiation. A workshop may take anywhere from a few to several hours to complete. It is a small-scale event. Workshops in dialogue form include only a limited number of people and can consequently not be used to collect statistically significant information for measuring the general opinion accurately. The fact that the participants' views are developed through discussions could also mean that they are not representative of the remaining citizen collective. The method could provide the organisation with valuable information on citizen views and standpoints on a certain issue, however. The participants have the time and opportunity to discuss an issue thoroughly, including expenses, advantages and long-term consequences. Through discussions with others, the participants acquire insights into other perspectives, allowing their own views to develop and be challenged. The dialogues may build and strengthen relations between participants, and could provide them with new knowledge and skills. Usually, 8 to 16 participants meet; who they are depends on what the issue is. Participants may be selected from demographics, interest groups, or at random. The costs for this form are generally not very high, unless you have to find participants through a genuinely random selection which could involve expenditure. Citizens may need carrots to make them take part in the workshop. Additional costs may include rent for meeting premises (choose informal surroundings if possible), catering and supportive arrangements, like childcare. (SALAR)

5.4.10 SWOT analysis

The acronym SWOT stands for Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats.

SWOT analysis is often used for analysing the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats in an operation, as part of strategy work. This method is also applicable to a number of areas in municipalities/organisations, e.g. to acquire the citizens' views on plans, projects, commissions, etc.

The analysis model is usually pictured as a matrix with four squares, which provides an overview of the most important factors to regard when analysing an operation, a project, plans, etc.

A suitable way of utilising the SWOT analysis could be the following:

Strengths	Weaknesses
Opportunities	Threats

1. Brainstorming, i.e. all participants bring up as many different factors as they can think of, that could affect the operation/issue/subject ahead.

2. Place all the factors in the matrix jointly.
3. Evaluation of the factors on a 1–5 scale: 5 means either very good (strengths and opportunities) or very bad (weaknesses and threats).
4. Ranging according to the evaluation scale in all four areas.
5. Proposed measures:
 - How to use strengths
 - How to treat weaknesses
 - How to take advantage of opportunities
 - How to avoid/fend off threats

The results of the SWOT analysis are compiled to comprise a basis for the continued process. Clarity about the aim of the meeting and that a specific method – SWOT analysis – will be used is important. Select a process leader who is familiar with the method. Arrange the premises so the walls have space for putting notes with the different factors under respective headings in the matrix. Post-it notes could be used favourably. It is also possible to use just the two upper squares in the matrix; which strengths and weaknesses are there? It quickly exposes the strengths and weaknesses, threats and opportunities that could affect the operation/subject/issue. This is a good tool for finding out where to put the efforts in an issue. The strengths you identify should of course be attended to in the future. The weaknesses you identify, you should consider how to treat. The threats you see, you must try to remove completely from e.g. the operation, and finally, the opportunities you see you should strive to utilise and develop.

5.4.11 Counsel

The basic idea of a counsel is to let people come together to discuss various alternative approaches to problems – their pros and cons, and the consequences of carrying out the plans.

As a rule, counsels are well prepared and organised, with a clearly structured dialogue with citizens, interested parties, entrepreneurs, other actors, e.g. within a geographic area. This method occurs in several different variants, and can be applied to situations where aims as well as courses of action are open. It could be a question of e.g. determining the direction and basis for upcoming changes and developments in dialogue with the residents and actors of an area. Proposals are formulated and prioritised, and then handed over to the politicians for decision. Sometimes, the term ‘Counsel’ is used when a municipality or regional board wants the citizens to take sides and prioritise one of two different proposals, either on the Internet or in meetings in the flesh. It is often promised, too, that the proposal that gains most votes will be the one that is carried out. With that it is a method for participation.

It is important to remember that it is an actual case that is handled. If actors and other interested parties are going to contribute and take an active interest, there must be some kind of rootedness in reality. It cannot be some kind of “swimming practice on land” without a clear aim defined in time and space. Make certain that you have the right target group/interested parties and that the adequate number of participants is invited from the start. Engage an experienced process leader who knows how to make the rules and limits clear, and clarify what the participants can have an impact on – their acting space. Do not forget the feedback to the participants after the project, on what was decided and how. This method requires extensive work and efforts beforehand, during and afterwards from officials and politicians.

The main proposals are already crystallised and with that no new proposals can enter the process in this form for counsel.

5.5 Influence and participation

These methods allow the participants to be more involved in the decisions made. A greater influence also demands more time and resources to take care of viewpoints and proposals. People who have an influence on the decision-making must be present, and the participants' confidence that the results will be considered is important.

5.5.1 Future workshop

The future workshop is a pedagogic method, a way of working, to produce substantial ideas and visions. The number of participants should be limited to about 25 people.

This method has a work form with a distinct framework that creates both freedom and safety, and also uses lust and creativity as driving forces. The aim of this method is that all participants should find a common platform where they can develop and realise their ideas together. A successful future workshop is a good starting point for future actions and it often leads to the forming of working teams that continue to work on solutions and new development processes. There are various ways of performing a future workshop. The method requires moderators who are educated in the technique. Its main principles are participant governing, democracy and structure. Everyone's ideas and views will be respectfully heard, discussed and entered into a common context. The method is based on having an overall theme, a subject or a condition that you want to change or develop. This theme is then treated in various ways in phases that runs from problem inventories to substantial decisions in action plans on what needs to be done, when it should be done, and sometimes even how it should be done and by whom. Various working materials are used, and there are supportive questions during the whole process. The future workshop is strictly disposed as regards time, and it is important that the stated time schedule is kept. The method may require a detailed follow-up to support the continued process in the working groups. The method is based on the participants' active contributions and that they have the opportunity to be present during the whole process. It is an advantage to have a mixed group including politicians, officials, citizens and other interested parties. How you find the participants in the meeting may vary slightly. Either you could have an open meeting where participants can register or you invite selected participants. A combination could also be appropriate. Many perform the meeting during a public holiday so many can attend. A large hall with plenty of wall space is required. (SALAR)

A future workshop lasts for one to three days and includes five phases of equal importance: preparation phase, critique phase, fantasy phase, establishing phase, and implementation and follow-up phase.

Preparation phase

A theme is decided on and a workshop leader is chosen. In the preparation phase practical matters like the duration of the workshop, the place and invitations to the participants must also be arranged.

Critique phase

The critique phase opens the workshop proper, and the idea is that the whole group should together formulate the problems within the theme that was decided previously. The participants are then divided into smaller groups to analyse and try to understand the views that have come to light.

Fantasy phase

Now you should leave all negative thoughts behind and imagine what you want. Everyone can contribute visions and ideas of what they would like the future to look like. It does not have to be feasible or even realistic, just creative and sparkling.

Establishing phase

This is the most substantial phase of the workshop. Now all problems and visions are to be formulated as something workable. Groups are formed on the basis of various issues that have come to light and they discuss how to proceed, who should do what and when to do it.

Implementation and follow-up phase

Back home again everything should get going. The results from the workshop have been documented and must now be distributed to all concerned, participants in the workshop as well as those who did not take part. To keep the process going demands repeated follow-up meetings, and this requires leading lights to keep the steam up (Denvall & Salonen, 2000).

A future workshop requires quite some commitment from the participants for an extended period, since the method includes an implementation phase. It is probably more suited to an organisation or association with regular activity than a temporary user participation project. But the principle of various phases could be useful: first critique, and then solutions.

5.5.2 Charrette

“The Charrette is a type of workshop lasting several days up to a week. In the charrette city planners, public authorities, developers, land owners, concerned associations, the general public and a project leader take part.”

"During the charrette a new future proposal is developed in common, e.g. in various forms of workshops. The charrette must be carefully planned, and the method is concluded with a finished proposal. This method is very efficient for making quick decisions, but it is not adjusted to Swedish planning. If the team has overlooked an aspect that is important to one party to the case and this party subsequently dispute the plan, the charrette must be repeated. The advantages are numerous, but above all a fruitful dialogue and a good cooperation between all involved are developed." (de Laval, 1999)

“Charrette is a useful method if the project has several actors with different interests. The former planning director of Uppsala, Carl Johan Engström, relates in a conversation that Uppsala City used the charrette method in the land-use planning for the Sävja neighbourhood. Uppsala City was planning to reopen a closed commuter station. The commuter station issue caused a large debate in Sävja and several opinion groups were formed. Uppsala City invited all interested parties and held a two-day workshop in the charrette spirit. The problems were solved in a creative and rewarding way where all actors had their say.” (Anna Squassina vt 2011) BPR

5.5.3 Matchmaking – conference

The aim of this method is to accomplish meetings between e.g. youth and local politicians and officials.

The form allows discussions, removes obstacles and stimulates a continued good cooperation. Today, many municipalities work in various ways to reach the young or start collaborations aimed at increasing young people's involvement and influence. This method could also be used to accomplish meetings between different citizen groups, politicians and officials. The Västra Götaland Regional Council arranged a conference, Matchmaking in Regional Council Direction. In connection with this a model was produced that was used at the conference. The conference was successful and contributed to several municipalities being stimulated to continue working along the lines that came to light during the conference. Uddevalla Municipality is one of those.

The main features of the Matchmaking model for e.g. the young are:

- involvement in the arrangement of the conference from the planning stage and in the follow-up and the continued work,
- a form that aims at interaction and discussion in various ways,
- as actively and tangibly as possible encouraging idea development and participation by everyone
- apparent commitment to support/stimulus for projects and continued development after the conference from the parties involved in the meeting.

This method requires planning, good preparations, an effectuation plan and a meeting leader. It also requires large involvement from all parties from the planning stage onward. Everyone is allowed to take part in discussions, and many proposals and ideas are generated during the meeting. The duration is from a half to one day. The resource utilization is relatively high for preparations like arranging the program, invitations, rent expenses and documentation. (SALAR).

5.6 Citizen control

Letting decisions be made by the concerned citizens is known as direct democracy or citizen control. The more locally you study the decision-making process the more common direct democracy is. On the national level there are a few examples of referenda that are binding decisions, on the regional level it is more common, and when you enter the local level it is relatively common. Often, certain issues of a more practical matter are handed over to the concerned parties to decide, a form for delegation from representative democracy.

5.6.1 Referendum

One way of bestowing the citizens in an area power of decision is to arrange a referendum.

This could be either binding or consultative, i.e. when the representative democracy takes the decision influenced by the referendum. Referendum as a binding form exists in some countries, like Switzerland and Mexico, on the regional level. Referenda require distinct alternatives to decide on, and quite a lot of administration to secure that they are performed in a fair way.

5.6.2 User council

One form for direct democracy is forming various kinds of user councils or suchlike, where delegates are appointed to make decisions together in various matters.

Often they are selected to reflect the various interests and views of the population in the area. There are examples of planning issues where the locals themselves have been responsible for producing plans in cooperation with professional planners. There are also examples of management organisations where the residents of protected areas have had delegated responsibility to decide on certain issues. Many of the above methods and tools under 'Dialogue' and 'Influence and Participation' could be used for making decisions on the local level. The distinction is whether delegation was given to make own decisions or if they formally should be made by representative democracy.

5.6.3 Working group

A third form for direct democracy is to, in more practical issues, assign a working group that locally has the responsibility for planning and carrying out a decision.

This is the most common form for delegated responsibility and decision-making. It may concern administration of public land next to a residential area, management of real estate, organizing activities or implementing various projects.

6 Spatial planning process

In the European Landscape Convention, article 1c, it is stated: “*‘Landscape quality objective’ means, for a specific landscape, the formulation by the competent public authorities of the aspirations of the public with regard to the landscape features of their surroundings*”. That is, municipalities and other public authorities present a strategy or equivalent for the landscape quality in a certain area together with the general public. This could be done in a landscape quality analysis, spatial plan document, management plan or suchlike. In article 1f it is stated: “*‘Landscape planning’ means strong forward-looking action to enhance, restore or create landscapes.*” Taking those future-focused measures requires a planning process, and that is what we are going to describe here. In local and regional planning, focus is often on a desired change of the landscape, e.g. in the form of new buildings, roads or energy production, but according to the convention the planning process is also important for localising and preserving existent landscape values. This is often new to the local planning process.

6.1 The planning process in the South Baltic area

General

All countries involved have a ternary planning process including national, regional and local planning, where national and regional interests regulate local planning. The influence of the different levels varies, however. Sweden has a clearly identified local responsibility for planning with strong national control, but where regional planning has started to develop in recent years. Denmark has moved in the opposite direction with a previously strong regional planning where focus has shifted to the local level. In Poland and Lithuania all three levels are of great importance, with national and regional levels dominating. Local planning is weaker and the directives from higher levels are stronger. The long tradition of influence from social movements in Sweden and Denmark has bred a tradition of citizen involvement that had no equivalents in Poland and Lithuania during the communist era. The quick development in Poland and Lithuania since the fall of communism has prioritised economics and investments in infrastructure, which is sometimes difficult to combine with landscape values. A similar development took place in Denmark and Sweden, but earlier and mainly in the 1960s and ‘70s. Legislation and the structure of public authorities resemble each other in the four countries, but practical application may differ significantly. Various areas of interest have different practical influence, and the application of the law varies.

Denmark

The Danish planning system is divided into four levels and regulated by the Law of Spatial Planning. On the national level, general priorities of national interest are outlined. On the municipal level, each municipality produces a general plan for the disposition of land areas and how to pay attention to various social interests. The municipalities then produce zoning schemes for special development areas. The fourth level is the countryside, where agricultural production is prioritised. Settlements are rather strictly regulated by law. Public involvement is encouraged on all levels, and on the local level it is statutory that concerned parties must be consulted. In many places voluntary, extended dialogue and participation takes place to strengthen public influence on planning.

Sweden

In Sweden municipalities have planning monopoly which has led to strong local influence on spatial planning. The State identifies national interests, which are considered on the regional level in the work of the County Administrative Boards. There are also municipal–regional federations (mainly healthcare administration) that have had increased influence on spatial planning, especially in urban areas. They aid municipalities in regional coordination, but it is still the municipalities that have the planning monopoly.

The most common form for user participation in the planning process is that the plan proposal is exhibited in e.g. the library, and the concerned parties are invited to a consultative meeting. The invitation is made in the press, on posters and in letters. Since it is usually complete proposals that are presented, mainly people with an opinion of the proposal will attend the meeting. Usually, only a very small share of the concerned parties takes part in the consultative meetings. The meetings mainly take place as information meetings with opportunities for asking questions and contributing opinions. In addition, everyone has the opportunity to leave written viewpoints on plan proposals, which should be considered in the consultation account. In many places, however, an extended collaboration with the general public takes place on a voluntary basis.

Poland

In Poland national and regional interests have a large influence on local planning. Local development plans cannot be carried out for areas of explicit national or regional interest. The State produces various basic materials and regulations, and presents a national strategy for spatial planning, which then regulates the work on regional and local levels. Also the regional planning includes a spatial plan. Quite a lot of the work concerns coordination of national and local interests in the region. On the local level it is the municipal council that initiates the local plan for the municipality. Some municipalities have yet to adopt a local plan.

Lithuania

Lithuania has a law on spatial planning from 1995 which regulates work on national, regional and local levels. The law is to ensure that the land use is sustainable and encourages economic development. Much attention was initially paid to planning in the border regions. In 2002 the first national plan was completed, and in 2010 all regions and municipalities had presented plans for their areas. The planning process works smoothly on all levels, but focus is often on economic development, and cultural and natural values are sometimes less attended to.

6.2 Starting the process (Aiding participation)

How local planning works depends on mandates and resources. It is of utmost importance that the participative planning process has an explicit mandate at an early stage and that resources are set aside to enable a more ambitious cooperation with the general public. The involvement of politicians in the process is also important, as is that of high executives in the administration. The second stage in the process of getting started is to get an idea of which actors, interests and groups are important to involve in the planning. Further, the methods and tools for the process should be determined and prepared early on. It is important to make contacts with the actors early on, to inform on the work to be started and how the cooperation is planned, and to be open to suggestions for cooperation forms, methods and tools. Some form of introductory meeting with various actors is required, and it is important that the invitation is wide-reaching. Perhaps it is not most efficient that all actors come to a municipality meeting, but rather that officials seek out places where various groups meet.

6.3 Background information and landscape analysis (Knowledge exchange)

The next step in the process is to compile a good knowledge summary with other experts and the general public in consultation and dialogue. In the European Landscape Convention, article 6 C it says, on Identification and Assessment:

“1) With the active participation of the interested parties, as stipulated in Article 5.c, and with a view to improving knowledge of its landscapes, each Party undertakes:

- a) • to identify its own landscapes throughout its territory;*
- to analyse their characteristics and the forces and pressures transforming them;*
- to take note of changes;*
- b) • to assess the landscapes thus identified, taking into account the particular values assigned to them by the interested parties and the population concerned.*

2) These identification and assessment procedures shall be guided by the exchanges of experience and methodology, organized between the Parties at European level pursuant to Article 8.”

Works on landscape could favourably strive after being sector–transcending, i.e. not separating nature and culture but instead focusing on processes and functions in the landscape. Landscape analyses and assessments should include all landscapes, not just selected pieces that are considered beautiful or special for various reasons. An important approach in landscape assessment could be how the landscape contributes to the economic and social well-being of an area, which means that it is also important to investigate and describe the identity–carrying functions of the landscape, which is the foundation for that.

A very good working tool is to make a Landscape Character Assessment (LCA) of the area, which divides the landscape into Character Areas according to physical and social qualifications. Those are described according to various topics worth discussing, like natural conditions, buildings, land use, infrastructure, movement patterns, etc. This method identifies and divides the landscape into Character Types as well as Character Areas. Character Types are larger landscape sections with a similar character, while Character Areas are smaller units in the landscape with common physical and social conditions. This level is often much more comprehensible to the general public involved in the discussion. LCA can be performed on various levels, national or regional, county or district level, and on diverse local levels, or various surveys on different levels of measurement could be linked together. LCA was originally used as a decision basis for experts, but it can also serve as a tool for involving the general public and various interest groups in the maintenance or development of an area.

To create historical understanding of how the landscape has developed, a Historic Landscape Characterisation (HLC) can be made. This method has been used for a long time in England to visualise changes in the landscape and the ‘annual rings’ in the landscape that are still visible. If LCA to a large extent is a visual analysis, then HLC focuses on historical sources and occurrences. Just like LCA, HLC uses a division into different levels; first, different historical landscape types all over the country; second, a subdivision of those into different zones. Both methods also build on spatial and map–based angles of approach, and make use of Geographic Information Systems (GIS). HLC could be used either on its own or as part of LCA to supply information on the landscape’s history and describe changes.

Various methods and tools that could be useful in the dialogue about background information are ‘Gatur’s’ in the landscape, photographic methods where the participants document important aspects of the landscape, workshops where simple analyses and summaries are made on maps, open space meetings where focus is on diverse themes that interest the participants, and hearings where invited

experts and the general public are questioned in front of invited participants. The various bases can then be analysed and considered as regards problems and values, possible development lines and obstacles. All of this should take place in close cooperation with the general public, so their unique knowledge can contribute to the work.

6.4 Visions and regulations

When the background description and analysis are done, you arrive at substantialising how you want the landscape to develop and/or be regulated. The officials do this in dialogue with experts and the general public and present a common proposal as the basis of the formal plan or for future handling of plan issues.

Here it is important to take care of the visions that exist among the residents, professionals and visitors. Some form for workshop to pick up the local visions is required and could preferably take the form of open space, future workshop or citizen panel, according to ambition level. The vision often concerns which possibilities you desire for a certain landscape.

But often there is need for some kind of regulation to satisfy public interests or to balance different interests. If you want to develop an area for e.g. tourism you cannot build an industrial complex in the same place. The regulation thus deals with which restrictions are required to render the desired development possible. Even in protection-worthy landscape sections where regulation is desirable, there is need for a certain development to make the values last, like services to enable living as an animal keeper in the area and thereby preserving a valuable landscape dominated by grazing.

As for the final visions and regulations, it is seldom everyone agrees. It is consequently up to representative democracy to decide how to balance different interests. Superior political administrative levels also have a large influence on how regional and national or even international interests should be considered.

6.5 Plan (Strategy)

The formal plan is the political standpoint for the area in question. It will be a balancing act between the various political representatives, but with a deeply rooted background description, analyses and visions in common with all concerned parties, conditions are good for reaching a common standpoint according to the intentions of the Landscape Convention. The different actors often have different visions, however, and then it is the role of representative politics to decide how those different interests should be considered in the plan.

Sometimes a formal plan is not required, and a good basis for the continuing handling of plan issues in the area is sufficient, but a formal political decision strengthens the legitimacy of the document. There is a formal handling of the consultation process for plans in the four countries, but there is reason to consider extended consultation on the plan/strategy to achieve wider rootedness and a better plan. In the consultation chapter there are a number of suggestions of methods and tools that can be used.

6.6 Implementation

But producing a good plan with a large participation is not enough. The plan must be implemented, too, which puts demands on the local administration and politics to follow up and carry out what was planned. The plan must be in phase with what is possible to do, practically as well as politically. There must be routines for follow-up and feedback to all actors on how the implementation proceeds.

Some kind of continuing information with opportunities to ask questions about the implementation is desirable. This could materialise as an information letter or information on a homepage, but also in the form of general meetings or walks in the area providing opportunities for direct questions and view exchange.

The various standpoints that have been taken for the area should be stated clearly and easy to find on the homepage, in the library or at some central place in the area. To be able to follow up the results of the process, you could draw inspiration from e.g. the English Spaceshaper method, which in a structured way measures people's idea of a place before and after an event.

It is also of great value to evaluate the whole process of participative landscape planning to learn more till the next time. What worked well and what did not? Are there any other tools and methods that could have been used? Do we need to improve the rootedness in our organisation, and is there need for education to make the process easier?

7 Landscape management/protection

In the planning of a landscape, sometimes a decision is made to introduce some form for protection to secure the landscape values. After the protection have been instituted, there comes a long period of landscape management. This is particularly evident to those who manage protected areas, like reservations, landscape parks or national parks. The European Landscape Convention brings up those aspects too, in article 1d) “*‘Landscape protection’ means actions to conserve and maintain the significant or characteristic features of a landscape, justified by its heritage value derived from its natural configuration and/or from human activity*” and in 1e) “*‘Landscape management’ means action, from a perspective of sustainable development, to ensure the regular upkeep of a landscape, so as to guide and harmonise changes which are brought about by social, economic and environmental processes*”. Just as in the planning process it is important that the dialogue is rooted in the organisation, otherwise it will be very hard to have a good dialogue and consider the views shared.

7.1 Proposed protection

In the work of protecting and managing landscapes, it is also important to have a good dialogue with the general public. Already when the protection proposal is on the planning stage, you should start a dialogue to lessen the risk for future conflicts. Often this is the most critical phase, and it is essential to find good solutions for all parties at an early stage.

It is rarely a good idea to hand over a completed proposal to a landowner, instead the dialogue should start at an unbiased stage, with the values in focus. It is helpful if there are more actors interested in finding a form for protection to preserve the values, so it will not be just a two-part discussion. Sometimes the initiative comes from local groups or landowners, and in such cases it is particularly important to consider the views that are the basis of the initiative. In most cases, walks in the area in question are the best way to start a dialogue about future protection. If there are several actors involved a workshop including a summary of basic facts and an analysis of strengths and weaknesses could be a useful working form.

In the process of protecting an area, the concerned landowners and authorities always take part – they could be referred to as first-level actors. It is important to also involve second-level actors like associations and networks active in the area. They could be hunting parties, nature preservation societies, ornithological societies, outdoor associations, private road organisations, etc. Localising them takes a little more work. Very rarely are there opportunities for third-level actors – those who are not organised or used to voicing their opinions – to take part in the dialogue about protected areas.

They are much harder to reach, and to involve them consequently demands more work. They could be residents of the area surrounding the object of protection, tourists, visitors and summer residents. A wider invitation through media and directed activities during the right time of year could give more people opportunities to participate in the dialogue.

It is important to clarify who bears the formal responsibilities for the protected area and how decisions are made in the process and the continuing management. Transparent decision-making and management increase confidence in the process and the work to maintain the landscape.

7.2 Management plan

When the boundary proposal for the planned protection area is finished, a discussion on maintenance and management is started. This is usually stated in some kind of management plan. By involving the area's residents and actors in the management plan, a greater understanding of conservation and landscape protection measures is achieved, and the work will be locally rooted. There is also much local knowledge of the area that is important to the management plan. The number of actors involved decides which working method is appropriate, but some kind of meeting form with wide representation to conduct a dialogue about the best maintenance is desirable. It is also an advantage if much of the practical work can be carried out locally by commissioning local entrepreneurs to create rootedness in the area and increased engagement for the maintenance of the protection.

Finally, the management plan is a product of experts, to be able to accommodate the management forms required to preserve the landscape values. Sometimes there are different requests from different actors, and decisions on the political or on higher administrative levels are required to determine how conflicting interests should be balanced. Those decisions and determinations can be made in a way that generates understanding among concerned parties, rather than being regarded as insensible directives from 'the top'. The dialogue and the course of action are consequently important for building a mutual confidence in the area. Building confidence takes time, and it is easily destroyed, which often may cause conflicts in the future.

7.3 Regulations and protection

In the decision of protection itself a number of regulations state what is allowed in the area. Often there are different aims for different values, and it may be hard to decide which aims should dominate in different sections or how different aims could be combined, exactly as in the management plan. The responsible public authority bears the main responsibility, and has to decide how to balance the aims, but with a broad basis and participation it is usually easier to make a wise decision and have it accepted. To have regulations and protective measures carried out, it is important that they are rooted in all concerned actors. First, everyone must know which the rules are, they must have confidence in the reasons for the rules, and they must have incitements to respect them. The dialogue process contributes to achieving this, and could consequently save future work and expenses by being well performed.

7.4 Management

Also in the continuing practical work of managing the landscape it is important to have an open dialogue about what is happening and how the work could be developed in the best way. There is cause for establishing some kind of reference group or council with various actors to achieve a broad basis. The council should be formed in a way as to make the concerned actors feel represented. The representative should be a representative of the group, have legitimacy in the group and be able to work together with the other representatives. Feedback to the representative's own group is important.

Certain issues may require a general meeting to pick up all the viewpoints. There is always an absent third party which is those who are not represented. They could be groups that are hard to reach, like youth and children, but also future generations and other species who cannot voice their opinion.

Information on what is happening in the landscape is important for maintaining good relations with the various actors. There are also opportunities for spontaneous viewpoints if information is provided before any large maintenance measure is taken. Information can be given in newsletters, mail, meetings or media, depending on target group and aim.

Creating some kind of common activities in the area makes collaboration easier and provides opportunities for spontaneous meetings. It could be an annual walk to study the landscape or management. It could also be an indoor lecture accompanied by a slideshow of the area.

7.5 Management of landscapes outside protected areas

Outside areas with more formal organisation it is not as easy to work with participative management. The management responsibilities are spread out on many different actors, landowners, public authorities, associations, etc.

As regards the municipalities there could be reason to have some kind of dialogue in connection with producing municipal master plans. Then important actors in different landscape sections could be localised and channels for exchange of knowledge and views in the continuing work be established.

Finding forms for a continuous dialogue about the landscape in a geographic area is important. Certain areas with higher values and more aspects to consider requires a more intense dialogue, while other landscape sections may require just one process in connection with e.g. municipal master plans or programmes.

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