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INTEGRATION OF LANDSCAPES IN NATIONAL POLICIES: URBAN, PERI-URBAN AND SUB-URBAN LANDSCAPE

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1.   Introduction: purpose of the study

The purpose of this study is

–   to *formulate proposals to implement Article 5.d of the European Landscape Convention* regarding the integration of landscape into town planning policies in peri-urban and sub-urban areas, and
–   to *draft recommendations to Member States of the Council of Europe* with proposals on the development of policies concerning peri-urban and sub-urban areas in the framework of the European Landscape Convention.

For the purpose of the Convention:
    "Landscape" means an area, as perceived by people, whose character is the result of the action and interaction of natural and/or factors;
    "Landscape policy means an expression by the competent public authorities of general principles, strategies and guidelines that permit the taking of specific measures aimed at the protection management and planning of landscapes.

Fig. 1: Definitions (European Landscape Convention, Article 1)

Each Party undertakes:
    to integrate landscape into its regional and town planning policies and in its cultural, environmental, agricultural, social and economic policies, as well as in any other policies with possible direct or indirect impact on landscape.

Fig. 2: General measures (European Landscape Convention, Article 5.d)

The focus of this study is on town planning policies carried out within the context of regional and local planning and decision-making. Current practices concerning the protection, management and planning of landscape in suburban, peri-urban and other urban areas are examined based on a selection of examples from different European cities and towns. Pertinent town planning policies are analysed and compared. The results of this analysis are used to draft proposals and recommendations.

2.   Concepts of peri-urban and sub-urban landscapes

In June 2005, the "Third Meeting of the Workshops for the Implementation of the European Landscape Convention" of the Council of Europe was held in Cork, Ireland[1]. The theme was "Landscapes for urban, suburban and peri-urban areas". It was observed that current phenomena of urbanisation make it increasingly difficult to clearly identify landscapes in the field. It is in old commercial and industrial areas, it is at the urban fringe, or what used to be the urban fringe, and it is outside of what used to be "city" or "town" ("ex-urban"), where dynamic transformations are happening. Traditional settlement types have been remoulded, in same cases into completely new forms, and their character may have changed beyond recognition. With current demographic trends, dramatic changes are expected to continue, and they will soon happen also in seemingly stable residential areas.

The quality of future development will differ greatly. Urban areas may be extended, or they may be reduced (for example: "shrinking cities", "brown fields"), archetypal rural and urban qualities may be diffused, leading to new types such as low density "new urban enclaves" (Martin and Bibby, 2005) or the "city turned inside out" (Venturi, 2004). Surveyors, while studying modern land use patterns, are finding categories such as "marginal fringe" and even "urban [sic] fringe" (Coleman, 2000). The artist

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[1] Proceedings of the Third meeting of the Workshops for the implementation of the European Landscape Convention, European Spatial Planning and Landscape Series, Council of Europe, 2007.

may see landscapes "*Entre deux mondes*" (Janisset, 2005). Statistical offices may simply refer to "semi-urban" areas (Eurostat, 1992).

"Peri-urban" and "sub-urban" are terms used by the European Landscape Convention to refer to such "intermediate categories", categories that are between urban and rural, both conceptually and spatially. During the Cork Workshop on "Landscapes for urban, suburban and peri-urban areas" it has been suggested that new concepts may be needed, and that new trans-disciplinary partnerships should be formed in order to develop and apply these concepts.
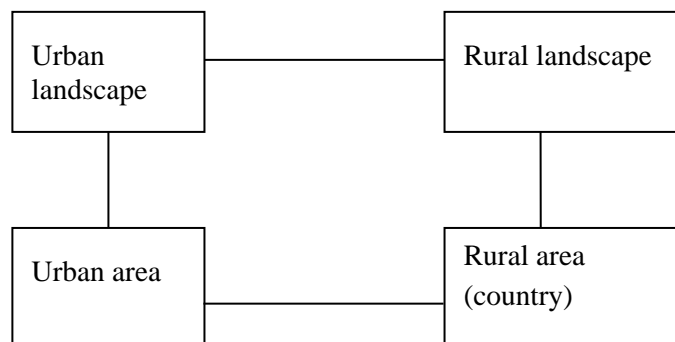
Fig. 3 Relating "Urban Landscape" to rural landscape, urban and rural area

Questions have been raised regarding what exactly the specific qualities of such "intermediate areas" and "in-between-landscapes" could be: are they predominantly "urban" with some "rural" character attached? Should they be considered as new types of landscape in their own right? Examples of innovative approaches of re-interpreting "urbanised" and "semi-urban" areas are, among others, the "*Zwischenstadt*" (Sieverts, 1997), "*Neue Urbanität*" (Oswald and Schüller, 2003) and "Metropolitan Landscapes" (Tress and Tress, 2004).). During the Cork workshop the term *urban landscape* was used to include all phenomena considered in these approaches. It was suggested that *urban landscape* may serve as a research concept, as well as a planning and policy approach. Both are interrelated, ask complimentary questions (Fig. 4), and should thus benefit from each other (Antrop, 2004).
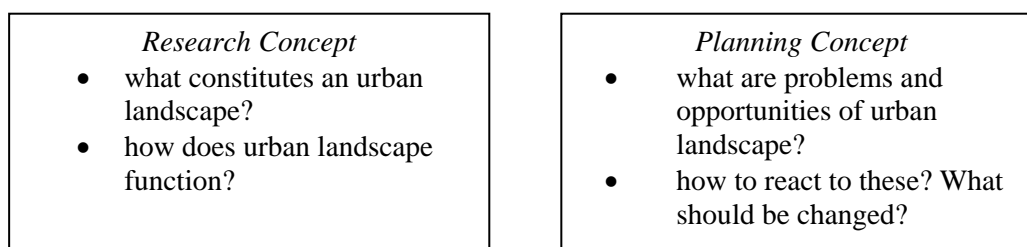
Fig. 4: Complementary questions asked within research and planning concepts of urban landscape

Urban Landscape as a term is used here, in its broadest sense, to describe and interpret changing landscapes of cities and towns. The examples employed in this study include urban landscapes on a neighbourhood scale, on a city scale, and on a regional scale. The "urban landscape" concept assumes that these levels should be considered, not separate from each other, but together and simultaneously.

3. Examples of peri-urban and suburban landscapes

3.1. Criteria for selecting examples

For the purpose of selecting examples of town planning policies that are useful for this study, initially, experts and recent literature on urban landscapes were consulted. Examples should represent *current town planning practice* and meet the following structural requirements. First, examples for this study should include a variety of *different types and forms* of "urban landscapes". Secondly, all *major land use types* should be covered, including residential, commercial, industrial, and recreational. Thirdly, examples should have *different locations* within the greater landscape matrix. Location criteria relate to landscape history, especially where urban expansion, or urban shrinking, lead to suburban or peri-urban locations. Other locations may include urbanised areas that used to lie at the edge, but also areas that lie beyond the city edge.

A collection of structurally diverse examples was made. From this collection those examples were identified that seem to best reflect: relevant policy guidelines of the European Landscape Convention, and the distinctive qualities of different European planning traditions.

With reference to town planning five legal and administrative "families" may be recognised in Europe: the British, the "Napoleonic", the Germanic, the Scandinavian, and others. In many cases these "families" and their respective characteristics closely relate to specific types of government, organisation and legal system (Newman and Thornley 1996, Balchin and Sýkora 1999). These include hierarchical structures of administration and political order (for example: Switzerland, Germany), structures relating to a body of law that developed primarily from customs and judicial decisions based on precedent (for example: United-Kingdom, Ireland), unitary systems with relatively strong central planning powers (for example: France), and systems with planning powers substantially devolved to the municipalities (for example: Scandinavian countries).

Local self-government and the ability to find solutions collectively has been the cornerstone of Scandinavian planning traditions. One of the most distinctive properties of the "Napoleonic" family, the application of abstract legal norms and intricate systems of codified rules, has been maintained in several countries, including France, Germany and Switzerland. Contributions of the British family include discussions of, and agreements on, planning objectives and (environmental) thresholds. Table 3 indicates how the examples selected for this study relate to traditional European policy and planning cultures.

3.2. Presentation of selected examples

A range of cities and towns has been included, with large metropolitan city regions at one end of the spectrum (for example: Ankara, Budapest, Copenhagen) and smaller towns at the other end (for example: Cork, Lucerne). Some cities and towns are expanding, some are shrinking, and others are more or less stable. Examples include urban open spaces (for example: Cork, Budapest), urban renewal areas (for example: Leipzig, Ankara), urban expansion areas (for example: Milton Keynes), and others (Table 2).

The territories of selected examples have been defined in a number of different ways, mainly considering:

– administrative areas,
– combinations of different land use types,
– physical appearance and organisation.

Some "urban landscapes" are clearly marked, for example as urban parks or residential development. Others lack border lines that are clearly visible in the field. They have been defined individually, for example as urban renewal areas, expansion areas, etc.

In assessing examples individually, indicators and criteria have been used such as:

–   functional characteristics, including networks, infrastructure, etc.,
–   indications of identity, including cultural features, way of life and atmosphere,
–   political and administrative realms, such as municipalities and regions.

Example	Territory of city / town (km²)	Population, density	Location of example in town / city	Brief description of selected suburban and peri-urban landscape
Jerry O'Sullivan Park, Cork, Irland	37,31	123.062 (2002)	peripheral	A former derelict green area restored to a new residential park
Stadtumbaukonzept "Grünes Rietzschke Band", Leipzig, Germany	297,60	498.491 (2005)	central	19th century urban blocks that are partly being demolished and replaced by green area
ESP (Entwicklungsschwerpunkt) Rontal, Luzern, Switzerland Agglomeration (2005): City (2005):	20,28 5,15	121.754 57.300	peripheral	An infill development is planned within an existing industrial and commercial area
Strategisk grønnstrukturplan for Groruddalen, Oslo, Norway	450 km²	529.454 (2005) 3.700 p/km²	peripheral	Urban development is planned in a part of Oslo that has been growing since the Sixties
Milton Keynes Eastern Expansion Area, United Kingdom	308,69	216.850 (2004)	peripheral	Development outside of current city borders
GPV (grand projet de ville) Communauté; CUS (1999) Neuhof, Strasbourg, France	78,27 305,97	264 115 3.374 p/km² 451.240 1.475 p/km²	peripheral	Mixed residential development, and services
Havneparken / Islands Brygge, Copenhagen, Denmark	Greater Copenhagen 50x50km	City: 502.362 (2005) 5.600 p/km²	central	Public waterfront near the city centre
Dikmen vadisi projesi, Ankara, Turkey	–	3.000.000	central	Replacement of squatter settlements with modern buildings and a large urban park
Park Millenáris / Ganz Park, Budapest, Hungary	525,00	1.886.000	central	Creation of urban park as part of urban renewal

Table 1: Overview of selected examples

Example	Expanding	Stable	Shrinking
Milton Keynes Eastern Expansion Area, United-Kingdom	■		
Strategisk grønnstrukturplan for Groruddalen, Oslo, Norway	■		
ESP Rontal, Luzern, Switzerland	■		
Jerry O'Sullivan Park, Cork, Ireland	■		
Stadtumbaukonzept, Grünes Rietzschke Band, Leipzig, Germany			■
GPV Neuhof, Strasbourg, France		■	
Havneparken, Copenhagen, Denmark		■	
Dikmen vadisi projesi, Ankara, Turkey	■		
Park Millenáris / Ganz Park, Budapest, Hungary			■

Table 2: Current development trends in selected cities/regions

Example	British	Germanic	"Napoleonic"	Scandinavian	Transition
Milton Keynes Eastern Expansion Area, United Kingdom	■				
Jerry O'Sullivan Park, Cork, Irlande	■				
Stadtumbaukonzept, Grünes Rietzschke Band, Leipzig, Germany		■			
ESP Rontal, Luzern, Switzerland		■			
GPV Neuhof, Strasbourg, France			■		
Strategisk grønnstrukturplan for Groruddalen, Oslo, Norway				■	
Havneparken, Copenhagen, Denmark				■	
Dikmen vadisi projesi, Ankara, Turkey					■
Park Millenáris/Ganz Park, Budapest, Hungary					■

Table 3: Planning traditions relating to selected examples

4. "Landscape" in selected town planning policies

4.1. "Landscape" at different levels of policy making

"Landscape" may be integrated into planning policies at national, regional and local administrative levels. Ideally, national and regional policies provide landscape targets in a broad sense, while local policy specify "urban landscapes quality goals", and both correspond (Fig. 5). Where broad policy frameworks are provided, landscape may be regarded as "common heritage of the nation", and as a "shared concern" at regional and local levels. "Every citizen should participate in the decision-making process regarding landscape" (*Ministère de l'écologie et du développement durable,* 2005).

Landscape at the national level example: Norwegian European Landscape Convention policy	Landscape at the local level example: Oslo's landscape policy
"The Government will give greater emphasis to *landscapes* in land use management, in accordance with the requirements of the *European Landscape Convention*." (Norwegian Ministry of the Environment, 2005)	"Different parts of the city shall maintain their character. At the same time, modern architecture is wanted and approved of, within the frames given by the city's scale, *urban landscape* and special surroundings. (City of Oslo, 2004a).

Fig. 5: National and local policies specifying "landscape" and "urban landscape"

National government may provide *strategic targets* such as to "safeguard the environmental qualities of landscape" and include these into broad policy documents (for example: Norwegian Ministry of the Environment, 2005). Strategic planning may include spatial categories such as rural, peri-urban and urban areas, and specify development targets for these categories, as well as for individual regions or sub-regions. Environmental quality goals may refer to regional landscape character, cultural traditions, mixed-use development, provisions for public open space, and others (for example: *Bundesamt für Raumentwicklung*, 2005; BUWAL, 1998).

At regional levels, *strategic policies* may be adopted, by regional, sub-regional, and local authorities, as an expression of combined ownership and responsibility for the territories in their area. Regional landscape strategies may also propose partnerships, crossing administrative boundaries and levels of decision-making. Through efforts of regional co-ordination public and private parties would adopt regional landscape policies that help guide the management and development of their territory.

Level	Policy	Landscape focus	Relating to other level
National level (Ireland)	National spatial strategy (NSS)	NSS recognises landscapes as one of the major contributors to define national identity NSS includes landscapes as part of sustainable development	Development plans are required to relate objectives to landscape character (Planning and development Act, 2000, Landscape assessment guidelines, 2000)
Regional level Example: South West Region	Regional planning guidelines (RPG) Identifies four different zone (RPG zones), including the Cork Area	RPG addresses the protection and enhancement of landscapes as one of the principle issues RPG suggests Urban renewal schemes, Environmental improvements schemes, Landscape character assessment (LCA), and other instruments, to ensure that "the public environment acts as a magnet to residents, shoppers, developers, businesses and tourists alike" (South West Regional Authority, 2004)	Environmental reports must be included with all spatial plans and development plans (Planning and development Act, 2000). Landscape is one of the categories to be considered in these reports
Local level Example: Cork City Council	Cork Area Strategic Plan (CASP) Cork City Development Plan (including zoning)	Designated "Scenic Routes", river corridors, amenity walks, views & prospects, conservation areas, landscape protection zones, public open spaces, sport grounds, etc. co-operation with neighbouring municipalities to protect views	Local area plans, local improvement schemes, etc., with democratic and legal planning processes

		(e.g. ridge protection zones)	

Table 4: Landscape focus at different levels of planning, examples from Ireland

Detailed guidelines may be specified for individual sites. In most European countries, municipal councils are responsible for comprehensive local planning, detailed local planning and for issuing building permits. Comprehensive local plans usually summarise and specify overall political objectives for the development of the municipality. Links at the interface between regional and local planning may include, for example, key themes such economic visions, the location and design of urban areas; the location of housing, workplaces, transport, and green spaces (Fig. 6 and Fig. 7). The location and quality of urban shrinking has become a new concern (Chapter 5.4).
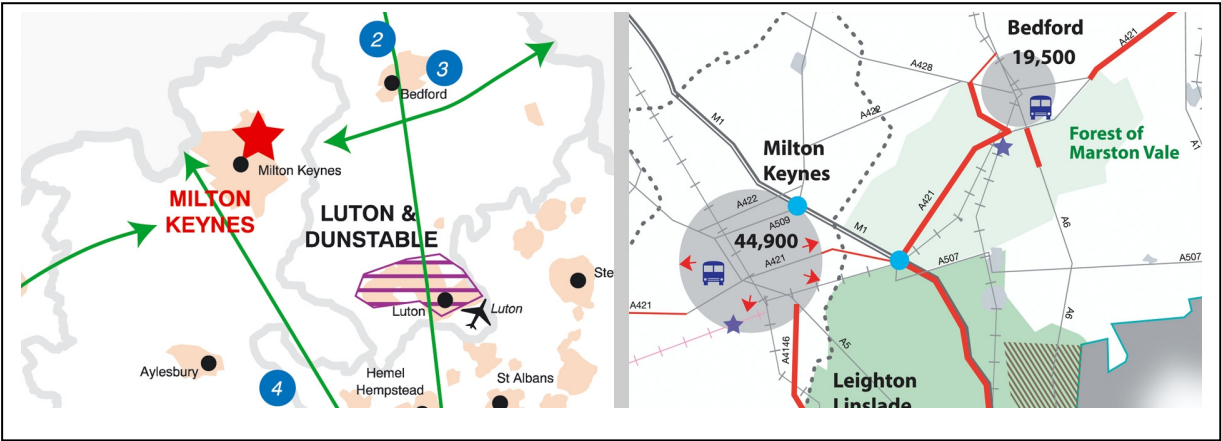
Fig. 6 : Sub-regional strategy for Milton Keynes and South Midlands (MKSM, 2005, RPG9, 2001)

Regional Planning	Sub-regional Strategy	Local Plan
Definition of sub-areas with distinct boundaries and character. Recognition of "Milton Keynes" as Growth Area. (RPG9, 2001)	Up to 44.900 homes to be developed until 2021 within balanced and sustainable communities. "Where new or expanded communities are needed, these should be sustainable, well-designed, high quality and attractive places where people will choose to live and work". (MKSM, 2005)	"Encourage good design in new development by promoting consideration of character; continuity and enclosure; quality of the public realm; ease of movement; legibility; adaptability and diversity". (MKLP, 2002)

Fig. 7: Cross-level policies specifying "landscape targets" (Example: Milton Keynes)

4.2.   Policy making across administrative borders

Ideally, spatial planning will be conducted and administered across administrative borders and levels. Close co-operation would be sought between agencies at regional level on the one hand, and administrations of all municipalities of a given area on the other hand (SPD, 2005). A classic example of providing a framework for cross-level and cross-border policy making is the "Thames Landscape Strategy". A "plethora of statuary agencies and authorities with responsibilities along the river through London" are part of the strategy area and the planning process (Wilkie, 1994).

Landscape visions such as the "Thames Landscape Strategy" or Copenhagen's "Green Finger Plan" may help support co-operation between municipalities that share one greater landscape region (Fig. 8).

The idea of "green belts", derived from the "*cordon sanitaire*" of plague ridden cities of the past, first became part of the "garden city" movement, and later expanded into concepts of "Green Networks" or "Green Corridors" (Chapter 5.3).
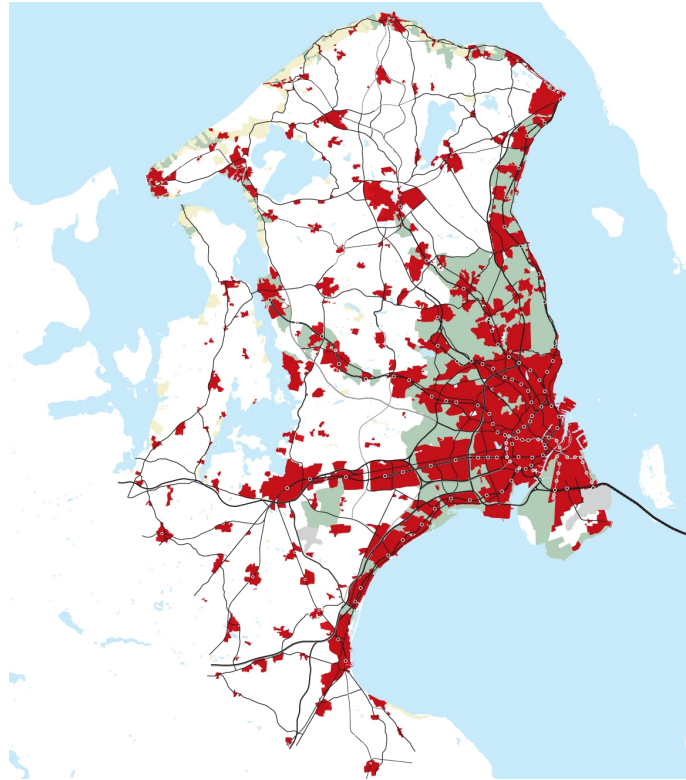
Fig. 8: The "finger plan" for Greater Copenhagen from 1947 (SPD 2002)

Cross-level and cross-border cooperation is important for all urban regions, whether they are expanding, stable, or shrinking. Strategies for expanding and stable cities may pertain to regionally optimal allocation of new buildings, aiming at, among other goals, the limitation of green field development (MKSM, 2005). Shrinking cities are faced with a multitude of social, economic and structural issues that need to be addressed in concerted efforts of neighbours. Large scale transitions usually affect entire regions (Chapter 5.4). The example of Leipzig illustrates how landscape policies may correspond across administrative borders and policy levels (Fig. 9).

regional plan „Westsachsen"

landscape plan „city of Leipzig"

green corridor plan „Rietzschke Band"

site plan „Neuschönefeld"

Fig. 9: Landscape policies corresponding across administrative borders and policy levels: Leipzig, Westsachsen (individual images from: Westsachsen 1999, Leipzig, 2003)

Broad landscape policies and cross-border coordination came to the capital region of Ankara as air pollution increased and the need arose to maintain effective ventilation corridors between the core of the city. The "Ankara 2015 Structural Plan" provides for a recreational and green-zone framework. It proposes to develop an 8 to 10 km-wide green belt around the city. This green belt connects to radial corridors that support local wind systems and thus help improve air quality. The "Dikmen vadisi projesi" (Chapter 5.4) is part of this system (Nalbantoglu, 2000).

Cross-level policy-making may be supported by corresponding budgets. In most countries regional policy-making includes financial planning, and individual regions are involved in allocating funds provided by the European Union, national programmes, and other sources. The aim may be, among others, to assist economic and social conversions of areas that experience structural deficits (« *La reconversion économique et sociale des régions en difficulté structurelle »*, Region Alsace, France 2005).

Additional mechanisms that make cross-level cooperation easier include, among others, thematic task forces, forums for public debate, information bulletins etc. (for methods and tools, see Chapter 6.1). Such mechanisms are largely informal in nature, and the may be integrated with statutory planning instruments like granting of building permit, local planning and regional planning. They may also correspond to budgeting (*Ministère de l'écologie et du développement durable, France,* 2005). Non-technical language and good visual tools are important to support complex cross-level communication (Fig. 9).

4.3. Trans-sectoral policy making

The starting point for the preparation of the landscape strategies and plans often are regional initiatives or discussions at the local level. These may lead to the decision to prepare a comprehensive plan for the territory of interested. The planning process may be led by an authority responsible for spatial planning, by a consultant hired for this purpose, or by another public or private agency. Usually an increasing number of additional authorities, sectoral planning offices and a number of different interest groups get involved. Thus, while the social and cultural dimensions of the landscape may become visible during the planning process, the holistic nature of landscape may be lost. In order to re-integrate sectoral and individual concerns it seems advisable to tie them together again, in one comprehensive plan (Fig. 10).
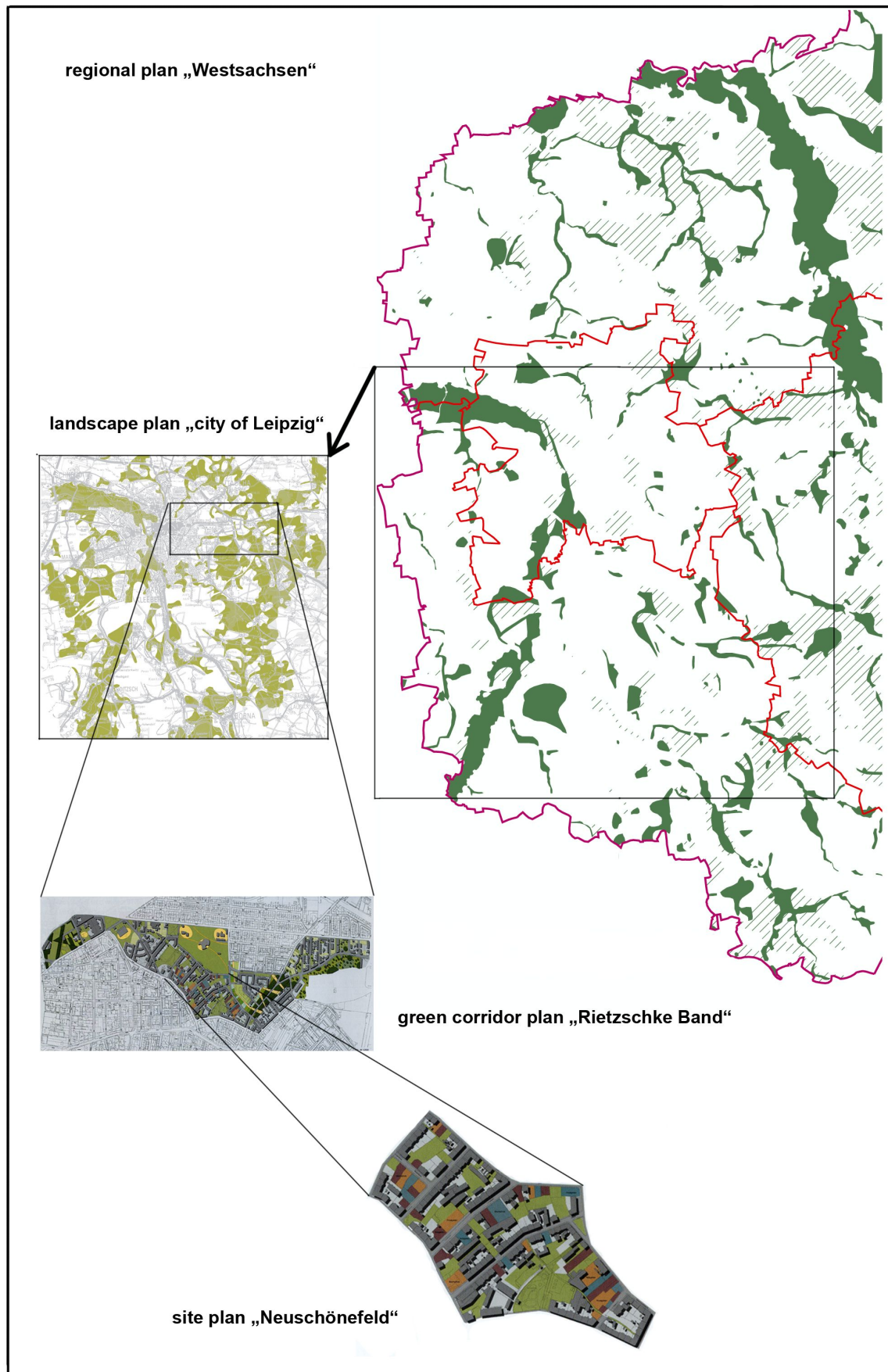
The Action Plan for the "Groruddalen" ties together seven in-depth sectoral studies	
• Regional scenarios • Local area development programmes • Plan for cultural activities • Alternative financing of environment and transport projects	• Transport plan • Strategic plan for green structures • Plan for conservation of cultural heritage monuments

Fig. 10: Integrating sectoral concerns into one comprehensive plan (City of Oslo, 2004b)

"Landscape Planning", practiced in several countries, is the kind of tool ideally suited to integrate sectoral landscape concerns from the beginning. The basic tasks of statutory landscape planning, as required by law in Germany, are: to be the official planning instrument of nature conservation and landscape management; as such to contribute to comprehensive spatial planning, such as regional planning and municipal local planning; and to contribute to programmes and project approval procedures of other sectoral planning, such as transportation, land development, flood risk management, etc. In this context landscape planning provides important information for environmental impact assessment (EIA) and strategic environmental assessment (SEA).

Professional landscape planning will:

– make inventories of all relevant aspects of landscape,
– prepare scenarios of probable landscape futures,
– provide relevant to the territory of concern, concrete goals and objectives for the protection, management and development of landscape,
– provide an assessment of the existing and future states (scenarios) of landscape, according to territorially defined goals and objectives,
– prepare strategies that include measures needed to realise territorially defined goals and objectives.

4.4. "Landscape" in environmental assessment

European regulations for Strategic Environmental Assessment and for Environmental Impact Assessment require that landscape be considered in environmental assessments. Methods that include both the subjective views of local residents (Landscape "as perceived by people", European Landscape Convention), as well as objective assessments of landscapes, still need to be developed. As state of the art, landscape classification and characterisation are prepared as part of professionally presented environmental assessment, and results are discussed during consultation periods.

Landscape and landscape character are also considered as an important regional and local resource, and attempts have been made to quantify them. To get an idea of urban nature quality, the city of Copenhagen, for example, has developed a so-called "urban nature index". The index measures biological quality and experienced urban nature values. The highest indices are seen in a park located close to the coast, offering peace and a large diversity of animals and plants. Paved areas have the lowest score in the urban nature index (CECE, 2003).

Broughton Gate:	*Brooklands:*	*Fen Farm and Eagle Farm North:*	*Pineham and Brook Furlong:*
Slopes gently, low lying arable farmland.	*Flat arable farmland with hedgerows and some mature trees. There are also a couple of drains and watercourses. (Principal landscape character within the development area).*	*Low lying farmland with two significant woods. Broughton Brooks offers important landscape identity.*	*Two sub-areas. One features urban transport facilities within dense tree plantings. The other is a low lying area of grassland dominated by sewage works.*

Fig. 11: Landscape character of four distinct district areas in Milton Keynes
(Halcrow Group Ltd., 2004)

5. "Urban Landscape" in selected town planning policies

5.1. Appreciation of the "urban landscape"

The term "urban landscape" may be found in the literature, to describe territories that are different from rural landscapes (Shot et *al*., 2004), physically marked by built up areas and by urban forms of

land use, sometimes also referring to administrative boundaries (Flores et *al.*, 1989). If, or where, boundaries are difficult to define, the concept of "urbanisation" may be useful to apply in order to describe processes that include changes in ways of life, housing, transportation and employment patterns (Antrop, 2000). In some parts of the continent, urbanisation spread over entire regions and a new type of city gradually developed which could be called "regional city" (Ipsen and Weichler, 2005). Former towns, suburbs and new urban centres merge with what once could be regarded as peripheral development, but is now part of a new matrix. Remnants of agriculture persist, small forests are left, new forest spring up on brownfields. Traffic corridors connect residential areas, areas of trade, commerce and recreation. The "regional city" requires a new dimension of technical infrastructure; networks of water, power and gas, which add to accelerated urban expansion. At the same time, with decreasing urban densities, the relative cost of infrastructures and services is rising (Venturi, 2004).

Where cities, small towns and villages merge with suburbs, agriculture, forests, recreation areas, traffic lines and infrastructure facilities, the traditional dualism of city and country loses its meaning. In order to understand this type of space in its uniqueness, the term of the "urban landscape" almost suggests itself. With the "urban landscape" approach, different patterns of land use and form are viewed in connection with natural conditions (topography, stretches of water, soil, vegetation). They can thus be understood as specific eco-cultural units that offer new landscape qualities.

Examples of suburban, peri-urban, and other types of urban landscapes, including those at the urban fringe, may be defined as:

– multifunctional complexes of very diverse land use types (that have a);
– highly fragmented morphology, physical appearance;
– fuzzy (zoning) borders and contours, uncertain delineations;
– form, uses and borders remain stable only for short periods of time; land cover and land use change rapidly, thereby;
– increasing landscape diversity, heterogeneity and fragmentation (Antrop, 2004).

Fig. 12: Park Millenáris / Ganz Park, Budapest (Mehrl, 2005)

5.2.   Policies for sustainable "urban landscapes"

Regional and local landscapes are considered relevant to sustainable urban development. Examples include strategic plans for green systems (Chapter 5.3), integrated urban renewal schemes and policies for the rehabilitation of open spaces (Chapter 5.4). Policies aiming at "brown field" instead of "green

field" development and at sustainable travel concepts serve as examples that help implement the idea of the compact city. Environmental impacts, like noise and air pollution, may be reduced by placing services close to traffic nodes, and to facilitate a high degree of urban density near these nodes (Fig. 13).

The strategy for land use shall contribute to a sustainable urban development and is based on the principle of the compact city.
New housing will be planned locations such as public transport nodes, central parts of the city, and redevelopment areas.
Areas for business and commerce will be provided for close to traffic nodes, where a high degree of density will be permitted, with good access to public transport.
Different parts of the city shall maintain their character. This idea combines at the same time modern architecture and cultural heritage protection. All developments take place within city's scale, the urban landscape of Oslo and special surroundings.

*Fig. 13: Sustainable Urban Landscapes, Oslo's Comprehensive Urban Development Plan
(City of Oslo, Norway, 2004a)*

Cross-border town planning (Chapter 4.2) serves to achieve a high degree of sustainable development. The "Rontal" project, for example, is defined as a main industrial development of Lucerne region in Switzerland. Planning is done, in cooperation, by four different municipalities and the most important land owners of the 130 ha project area. Plans are based on targets set by the regional plan that gives priority to projects taking advantage of existing development potentials. The "Rontal" projects starts out with a very attractive transportation infrastructure, and most new buildings will be erected on, or be filled in between, sites that have been built on previously (Ecoptima AG; Albrecht and Partner AG, 2003). By placing development within the existing urban matrix, the extent of greenfield development is reduced and open space kept available for recreation, agriculture, nature conservation and other values and interests (Fig. 14). Goals of sustainable urban development also include considerations for the preservation and enhancement of regional and local identity (Chapter 5.5).

Vision: "The focus is on enabling urban renaissance, promoting regeneration and renewal concentrating development in urban areas promoting a prosperous and multi-purpose countryside".
Implementation: "Concentration of development in urban areas. Greenfield development, only after all other possibilities have been checked".

Fig. 14: Development of "Brown fields" before "Green Fields" (RPG9 2001)

5.3. Green networks and urban open space

The historical patterns of settlement, determined by geology, climate and social and economic factors, set the base for contemporary urban landscape. The main contours of "urban landscapes" may follow the natural lines of coast, rivers, railways, motorways, hillsides, etc. These lines provide ideas for the main structure of long term landscape strategies. Examples are metropolitan green belts, axial systems of urban open space, and specific strategies such as Copenhagen's "Finger Plan" (Chapter 4.2).

The idea behind the "Finger Plan" for Greater Copenhagen (Fig. 8) is that urban development should be concentrated in the "fingers" created by railway lines and motorways, and that the green wedges between the fingers should remain open and mainly serve recreational purposes (SP, 2002, KK 2003). The "Finger plan" has affected the alignment and placement of the city parks and open spaces since 1947, when it was introduced, and the basic idea was still included into the new park policy that was adopted in February 2004. Similar strategies may be found in several European cities (Bauer, 1996). The city of Strasbourg, for example, has adopted a policy where existing "elements given by nature" be employed to create a system of "green finger connections", including the present greenbelt and green space corridors. All parts of this system shall be connected to form a network that contributes to

enhancing the scenic quality of the urban and rural open spaces, their ecological richness and biodiversity, and to the well-being of the inhabitants (Strasbourg, 2004).

Axe de développement est-ouest
> Grands équipements d'agglomération et tertiaire

Entrée majeure de la ville ou de l'agglomération

Pôle d'agglomération

Centralité métropolitaine à renforcer

Ceinture verte
> Liaison entre le centre et sa périphérie

Centralité de quartier à développer

Secteur d'habitat social à valoriser

Cours d'eau existant

Espace vert existant

Limite de Strasbourg

N

0   1500 m

source fond SIG de la CUS, 2002
réalisation ADEUS, mars 2003

ADEUS

Fig. 15 Greater Strasbourg's green connections (Strasbourg 2004)

Broad landscape strategies such as green systems need to be implemented (Stiles, 2005). On a regional scale goals may become part of legal plans, on local scales they need to be adopted as measures. The Leipzig city region, for example, has received special attention as "urban landscape" in official regional planning. Policies on the establishment of "Regional green axis" have been adopted by the Leipzig zoning plan and by the official municipal Landscape Plan, including details for a "Grüner Ring" and "Grünsystem" (Leipzig 2003, Westsachsen 1999).

The recent "Copenhagen Park Policy" pays particular attention to the availability of open space to citizens (KK, 2003). It is implemented through individual projects, such as the "Havneparken" (Chapter 5.5). Sections of the natural environment as well as historic monuments are protected and developed with special care. Green spaces are developed in a way that citizens have access to parks and other open areas within 400 metres (CECE, 2003).

5.4. Urban transformation and "Urban Landscapes"

One important quality of "urban landscapes" is that they are dynamic. They are constantly being altered, and they are changing with their inhabitants, the flow of goods, energy, etc. Of current interest are transformations that relate to urban expansion on the one hand (examples: Luzern (Switzerland), Milton Keynes; see Chapters 5.2 and 5.5; Fig. 7, Fig. 11 and Fig. 21), and to the shrinking of cities on the other (example: Leipzig (Germany); below and Chapters 5.3 and 5.5; Fig. 9). Transformation also include conversions of illegal development (example: Ankara (Turkey), Fig. 17), of urban waste lands, military grounds and railroad lines, the restoration of wetlands and river channels, and several others. The following projects illustrate revitalisations of old industrial areas and deprived residential districts.
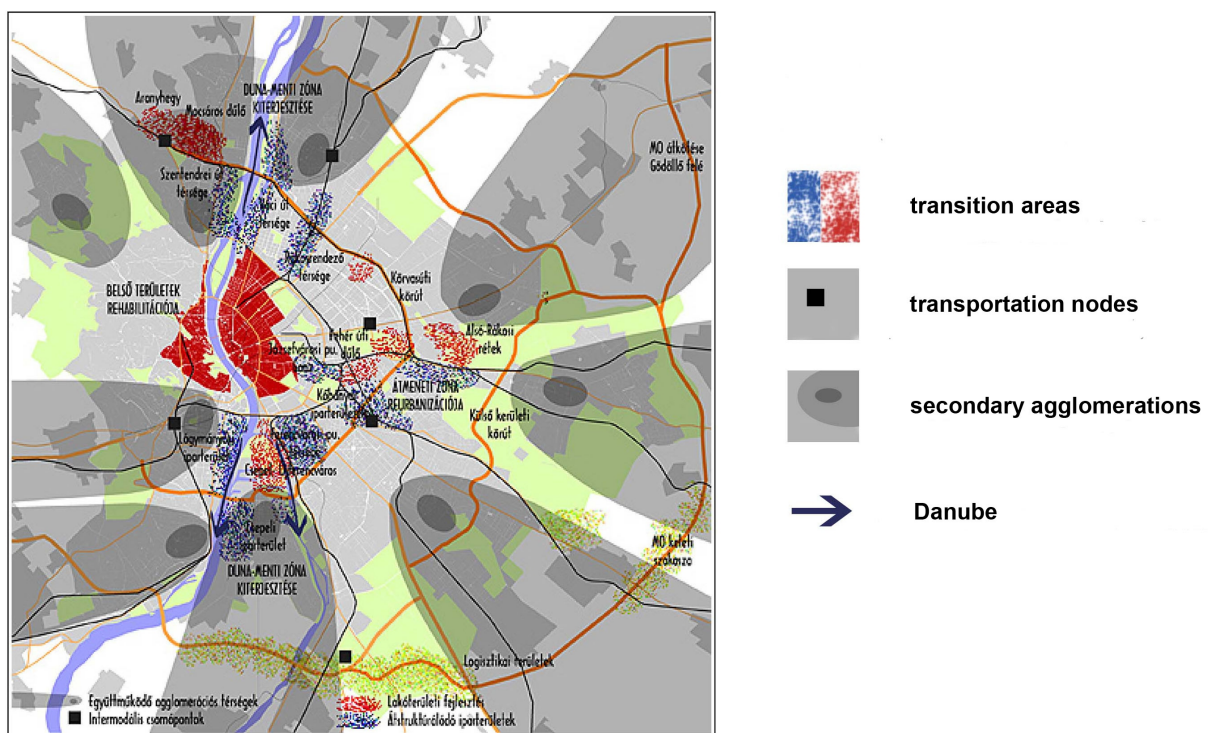
Fig. 16: Transition of former industrial areas in Budapest (Mehrl, 2005)

The district *"Strasbourg sud-ouest"* of Strasbourg, France, became an urban redevelopment project with the installation of a *"Grand Projet de Ville"* (GPV) and the support by the URBAN II program of the European Union. The district had remained isolated from the rest of the city, and its residential quarters predominantly consisted of social housing, with many social problems (Strasbourg, 2003, b). The project has three major objectives (Strasbourg, 2005, c):

–   sustainable transformation of the district;
–   improvement of living conditions;
–   encouragement of economic development.

New tramways, streets and pedestrian lanes provide better connections to the city centre, to new allotment gardens and other recreational areas. A mix of different kinds of housing was created, through a large programme of demolition, reconstruction and redevelopment, and the social housing was improved, and affordable residences built for private ownership, or for to rent. Playgrounds, recreation areas and sport facilities have been realised successively, where apartment buildings were demolished and space became available. In addition private gardens are designed besides residential buildings. The urban project "*Neuhof*" that is part of the renewal scheme draws advantage from the picturesque architecture in *Neuhof village* and the natural ambience of the surrounding areas. New enterprises are attracted to the area and employment has improved, together with public services (Strasbourg, 2005, c).

In Leipzig (Germany), some city districts may be considered socially and economically consolidated, while others still need to respond to challenges related to a decade of urban shrinking. Residents are leaving, shops are closing, and buildings are falling empty. One of the areas affected is the "Leipzig East Side". Here, more than 50% of the building stock is empty, and entire blocks will soon disappear. Insufficient open spaces in "Leipzig East Side" have been identified as one reason for the ongoing loss of residents. Open spaces are an important factor for the quality of life. They are related to neighbourhood satisfaction and must be considered part of the social and economic capital of a city area. The current situation provides a singular chance to overcome historic deficits and to enhance the quality of life for remaining and potential new residents. Traditional open space patterns will not work here. New symbols, forms and uses for open spaces are needed, especially for the re-use and re-valuation of abandoned sites. New and unfamiliar types of "Urban Landscapes" are emerging.

As a first step towards developing new "urban landscapes", the so-called "Conceptional Plans" are drawn up for different city quarters ("*Konzeptioneller Stadtteilplan*"). The plan for the "East Side" indicates possible futures, including 25% fewer flats in 2020, and a number of central projects. One of these projects is called the "Green Rietschke Corridor" (Fig. 9). This corridor is designed to snake through the entire East Side, and to connect, via the city centre, the outskirts from East to West. Demolition of buildings shall be concentrated accordingly, and a new type of "urban landscape" with a much higher proportion of open spaces be created. The Rietschke Corridor will not be a green corridor in a traditional sense. It will consist of sequences of large green areas, and it will incorporate a perforated structure of buildings and open spaces. Different features such as a light grove and a dark forest will be included as well. These are meant to create new interfaces between city and "country" in a former densely built part of the city. Irritating the city, scenes like a temporary deer preserve may be located right beside the central train station (Stadt Leipzig, 2002).

The Conceptional Plan for the Leipzig East Side outlines a new type of "urban landscape" which cannot be precisely determined. It will emerge step by step, with many aspects being left open and depending on the future development of empty lots. Land use decisions will have to be made, especially by all of the many private real estate owners, before we know exactly when and how many buildings may be demolished in the future. Within this process the role of the local government becomes that of a facilitator and moderator between different groups of actors.

Fig. 17: New green open space through urban renewal in Ankara, Turkey (D. Bruns)

With intensive migration to urban areas, squatter housing areas increased in countries experiencing structural transition during the 70s and 80s. This caused several economic, social and ecological problems, such as a complete loss of public open space. Urban renewal became an important planning and development option. In Ankara, for example, squatter houses were replaced by modern buildings and, supported by an intensive participatory strategy, green corridors like the Dikmen Valley opened up, again linking the city centre with forested areas at the city edge (Chapter 4.2). The main issue of the participatory process was to solve the problem of offering the existing squatter inhabitants better living options within the same area of the city (Nalbantoglu, 2000).

5.5.   Identity of "Urban Landscapes"

Regional and local identity may be closely tied to particular land forms and vegetation, special land marks and vistas, indigenous species, to name a few. For the appreciation of how landscape contributes to spatial identity, one first needs to look at how the natural landscape interacts with the urban landscape and to get an understanding of the history and the cultural associations of the landscape. "And we also need to be aware of the myths and memories evoked by our buildings, parks and place names, conjuring up more than the immediate visual impact" (Wilkie, 1994).

Urban landscapes may contribute to local identity through particular styles of urban design, special green open spaces, regional architecture, and others. Decisions on what and how much of the historic stock of buildings, parks, lay out of streets, tram lines, water fronts, etc. should be preserved are difficult to make. They require careful analysis, planning and design. Options for renewal will be subject to in depth local consultation and participation of citizens (Chapter 6). Impacts of planning and of development projects must be assessed, and landscape character considered in particular (Chapter 4.4).

In the Leipzig example (Chapter 5.4, above), a balance between preservation and demolition was found by assessing, on the one hand, the structural strength of buildings, and the economic strength of owners to continue to keep them up. On the other hand, the character of the Leipzig East Side is closely tied to the lay out and design of residential city quarters developed during a very important economic boom of 19th century called "*Gründerzeit*". The fundamental structure of city blocks and

ornate facades was to be preserved, and where this could not be achieved rows of art installations and lines of trees took their place.

Other examples demonstrate how the revitalisation of industrial areas may help preserve local identity, for example by including important icons of the era into modern design (Fig. 18 and Fig. 19). Urban renewal in Budapest (Hungary) incorporated steel frame structures reminiscent of 19th century engineering. With Copenhagen's (Denmark) "*Havneparken*" the idea was to create "a recycled park". It is not just the materials and elements of the harbour-construction that have been re-used, it is also the very openness of the site itself. The effort has given the site an authenticity which would have been very difficult to attain with a completely new structure (Dam and Nielsen 2003). A wide promenade along the waterfront maintains the character of a harbour. Different spaces within the park have special features, including elements reminiscent of nautic acitivities and of trade (Fig. 20). The harbour park is part of the harbour area, with an ambience that reflects its maritime and commercial history.

Fig. 18: Park Millenáris/Ganz Park – a new urban landscape including old industrial buildings - Revitalisation of an industrial brownfield (Mehrl, 2005)

Fig. 19: Park Millenáris/Ganz Park (Mehrl, 2005)

*Fig. 20: Havneparken / Islands Brygge -
Recycled cultural heritage: the inverted hull of an old ferry (D. Bruns)*

Urban expansion projects may also contribute to local identity, for example by maintaining qualities special to particular urban areas, or by including elements of regional architecture (Fig. 21). Cities often find how essential local identity and local qualities are for both, business development, and for people's quality of life (SPD, 2005). Spatial planning may thus be successful by including existing urban features and landscapes, and by exploiting respective opportunities for development (Fig. 22 and Fig. 23). The Milton Keynes "Eastern Expansion Area", for example, includes a "Character area concept". It takes into account: traditional urban form, proposed land uses, pattern of open spaces and watercourses, nearby buildings and surrounding landscape. Through different design elements like landmark buildings, key frontages, the built form and materials, the expansion is planned to develop as a part of the city with a strong character (Halcrow Group Ltd., 2004).

Fig. 21: Milton Keynes Eastern Expansion Area –
incorporating elements of traditional design into urban development (Halcrow Group)

The variety of her urban landscapes and the richness of her built-up heritage are taken into account in the transformations of the city through regeneration
Urban landscape is understood in connection but not identical with the architectural pool of buildings
The urban and the landscape heritage shall be taken into account within the urban regeneration and development

Fig. 22: Urban identity as part of policy for sustainable development (Strasbourg)

National policy, example: Norway	Local policy; example: Oslo	
The environment includes the cultural sites, archaeological and architectural monuments

(Environmental Information Act, 2003). | Oslo's physical, aesthetical and visual characteristics are central to the city's identity. All different parts of the city shall maintain their character. This idea combines at the same time modern architecture and cultural heritage protection. All developments take place within city's scale, the urban landscape of Oslo and the special surroundings. (Kommuneplan, 2004) | The plan develops models for protection and management of the 30 most valuable cultural heritage objects and supplement registrations with post war heritage sites.

(Cultural Heritage Plan, 2004) |

Fig. 23: Urban identity policy relating to urban character (Oslo, Norway)

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6. Cooperative and communicative planning and decision-making

6.1.   Integrated planning

"Integrated planning" is used here as a concept that includes two different forms of integration:

–   comprehensive spatial planning, across administrative borders,
–   landscape planning that integrates different environmental interests into comprehensive planning.

Both forms are closely tied in with cross-border, cross-level and cross-sectoral coordination and decision making (Chapter 4.1). Examples for planning and coordination across sub-regional and municipal borders are the Øresund Region with Copenhagen, the Milton Keynes and South Midlands area, United Kingdom, and the Swiss "*Kanton*" of Lucerne. In the Øresund (Denmark) and Sweden have a joint aim of developing the region into one of the cleanest urban regions in Europe. The partners in the Øresund cooperation have presented an environmental programme; one focus is comprehensive spatial planning (SPD, 2002). Within the region, Greater Copenhagen comprises three counties with 48 municipalities, plus the City of Copenhagen and the City of Frederiksberg (SPD, 2002). Milton Keynes and the South Midlands have produced a "sub-regional strategy" with a number of mechanisms for the implementation of objectives. These include interregional boards to ensure that all agencies deliver the policy commitment to meet these objectives. The boards bring together local authorities, Government agencies and other key stakeholders of the region. In addition, joint local development documents and master plans are being prepared where development across administrative boundaries is concerned (MKSM, 2005). Thus, it was possible to prepare spatial planning documents in a way that the drafting and consultation periods of different planning levels relate to each other, logically and consistantly (Table 5). To further assist integrated implementation of regional development, the Swiss "Kanton" of Lucerne has established networks for inter-municipal cooperation and devised a dynamic strategy called "learning region". The Rontal project, for example, has introduced special "coordination sheets" to ensure the continued collaboration of all stakeholders, including all municipal administrations, local and regional councils, private interest groups, investors and land owners (Ecoptima AG; Albrecht and Partner AG, 2003).

	RPG 8 regional	RPG 9 regional	MK subregional	MK local	Eastern expansion
Draft (1st deposit of plan)	1999	1998	2002	2000	–
Public Consultation			2003	2000	2002
Public Examination	2000	1999			2003
2nd deposit, changes	2001	2000	2004		
Public consultations			2004	2002	
Additional changes				2005	2005
Public participation				2005	
Publication of final version			2005	2005	2005

Table 5: Participation in spatial planning, Milton Keynes (United Kingdom)

The second form of integrated planning included in this chapter is the kind of landscape planning that collects information about different environmental interests and integrates these, collectively, into comprehensive planning. Official landscape planning in Germany, for example, prepares environmentally comprehensive documents on landscape at all levels of state and municipal planning. Results are integrated, either after or during landscape planning, into regional and local plans. Stages of integration may include:

–   strategic development goals;
–   limits of acceptable change;
–   landscape visions;
–   conceptual development options, scenarios, alternatives;
–   instruments and measures to implement goals and visions.

6.2.   Cooperative planning

Cooperative, participative and communicative forms of planning and decision-making have been introduced since the 1970s and 1980s. Recently they are being widely employed. The history of the of Copenhagen's Havneparken (Chapter 5.5 above), for example, began in the seventies, when the residents of Islands Brygge pointed out that the housing densities were very high and that the area needed a park. In the spring of 1984, several hundred residents laid out a provisional park, as a happening, that marked the residents' wishes. In 1993, the municipality of Copenhagen, represented by the Roads and Parks Department, decided to grant the money to complete the park as a permanent feature. The neighbourhood council established a fund to support the park. Planning commenced in 1993, and construction spanned 1995-2000. Experience from practical consultation work indicates that active participation in planning may initially take some time, but it results in significant benefits for the proponent of plans and projects, also for decision-makers, as well as for third parties. Benefits may include cost effectiveness and, at the end, a faster project completion.

At best, citizens are directly involved in planning and implementation. One example for deep citizen involvement is Jerry O'Sullivan Park, Cork. This park originally consisted of water logged greens and overgrown shrubberies. Major drainage works were carried out over the complete area, and the entire park was regraded and extensive planting carried out. Initially, a landscape plan was drawn up by a landscape architect. Later, major development and construction were carried out in consultation with the local residents (Fig. 26). The park was officially opened in 1999. The park is proving extremely popular with the public and is an invaluable amenity.

The concept of sustainable development should be comprehensible for everyone
Credible and transparent information shall be given to the public
The participation of the citizen in the public debate shall be encouraged and facilitated

Fig. 24: Objectives of cooperative planning: The Strasbourg example (SNDD, 2003)

Fig. 25: Public participation with GPV Neuhof (Strasbourg, 2005 c)

Fig. 26: Local residents help implement Jerry O'Sullivan Park, Cork (City of Cork, 2005)

Information on intentions of activities; e.g. a decision regarding a programme that would lead to a plan or project (this phase would include "screening" and "scoping" for Environmental Assessment)
Selection of reasonable plans or of project alternatives, based on economic and environmental assessment, etc. (this phase includes the defining of environmental and development goals; e.g. environmental quality goals)
The adoption of a plan or project includes several stages of consultation; these should be conducted as long as all options are open; e.g. "strategic alternatives" for programmes and plans
Results of public consultations should be considered before the adoption of plans and projects. Approvals for plans and projects should include transparent considerations of results of public consultations

Fig. 27: Communication schedule relating to different phases of planning

6.3.   Communication tools

Communicating the significance of the urban landscape and explaining projects will be critical to the agreement and involvement of people who live and work in the area (Wilkie, 1994). Common tools include media, newsletter, schools, marketing and tourism activities. According to the Institute of Environmental Management and Assessment (IEMA, 2002) the term "participation" incorporates a number of different techniques which are used to include individuals, groups and organisations in decision-making. The most important criterion for selecting and adopting communication techniques is that they actually help people to understand what is in a plan (Fig. 28). Ideally, visualisation should enable non-experts to influence "expert planning". In other words, the tools would need to support interactive communication (Bishop and Lange, 2005).

In summary, four levels of participation may be defined (IEMA, 2002):

– education and information provision – the use of information dissemination to create an awareness of activities or issues;
– information feedback – the dissemination of information with a request for feedback to supplement knowledge and gain a better understanding of issues;

  – involvement and consultation – formal or informal dialogue to identify issues of concern;
  – extended involvement – participants are able to contribute to the formation of a plan or proposal and to influence a decision through group discussions or other activities.

Informal and early consultations have the greatest potential for success (LI and IEMA, 2002). The following techniques are in current widespread use:

  – correspondence,
  – face-to-face discussion,
  – presentation and informal public meetings,
  – exhibitions,
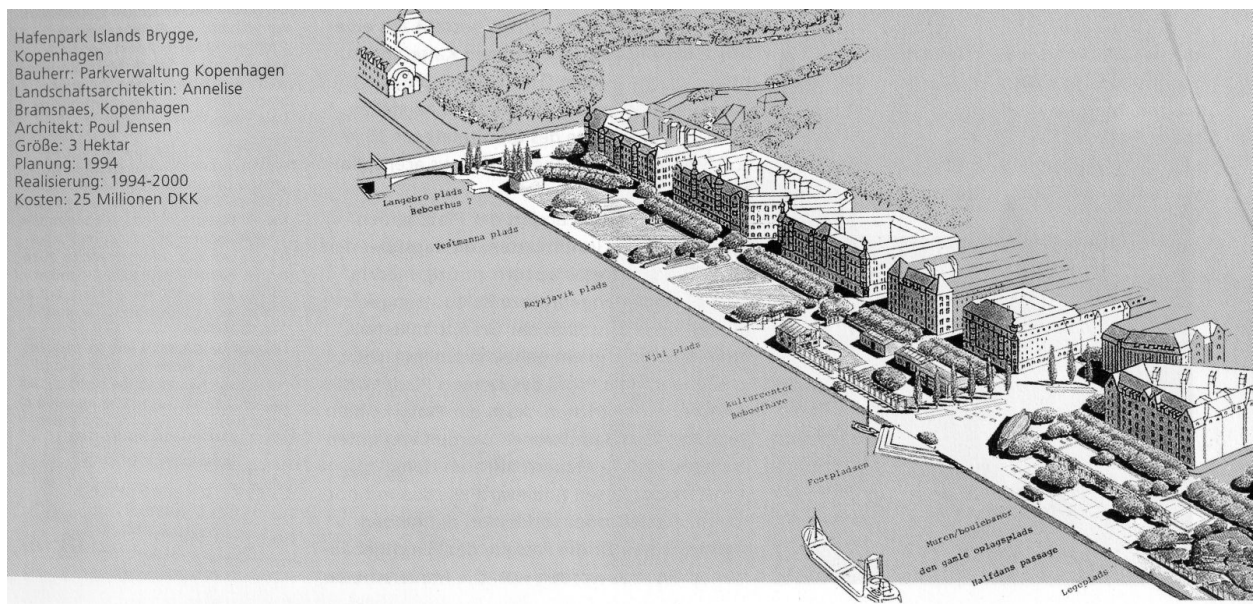 – workshops,
  – leaflets and mailings.

Fig. 28: Visualising future landscape character.
Aerial view of Havneparken Copenhagen (Bramsnaes, 1999)

7. Conclusions

7.1. Items to be developed further

Nine examples of town planning from different European countries have been examined. A summary of policy recommendations, learned from these examples, are included in Table 6 (below). The following items seem particularly important, especially for the integration of landscape into town planning policies. They could be developed further during meetings of the Workshops of the European Landscape Convention:

  – Town planning in Europe offers a rich variety of different traditions and cultures, each suited to individual countries and "planning families" (Chapter 3.1). Integrating landscape into town planning policies offers a unique chance, for towns and regions, to benefit from each other's strengths. *Facilitating exchanges of experience* would help makers and users of planning policies to learn about the potentials of European capacities in protecting, managing and planning urban landscapes.

  – In practice, town planning already includes landscape to a certain degree. *Promoting the use of landscape planning* in all European countries would help strengthen the protection, management and planning, especially of urban landscapes. Landscape planning corresponds to "landscape quality

objectives", as defined by the European Landscape Convention, and also to goals of sustainable management and development. Results of landscape planning may be integrated in town planning documents.

–   *Different disciplines are needed,* communicating with each other, in order to explain and manage landscapes. Landscape itself is an interdisciplinary concept. First, landscape has physical properties, including space. Secondly, landscape is a culturally determined form that depends on perception and evaluation. Thirdly, the treatment of nature is not only controlled technologically, but is subject to a variety of social rules.

–   Policies for town planning should *incorporate landscape at all levels* of spatially relevant decision-making, providing correspondence between these layers. They should include social concerns, urban programmes and projects, and they should make reference to *best practice examples.*

–   *Broad landscape strategies* such as green systems and networks of open spaces should *be implemented.* On a regional scale goals may become part of legal plans, on local scales they need to be adopted as measures.

–   Since landscape policies are the subject of specific programmes, and these are organised differently in individual countries, a "*landscape atlas*" may be provided, for the identification and classification of European landscapes, and for policies related to landscape. This atlas would pay particular attention to urban landscapes and include plans, charters and contracts on landscape. It would list public authorities and provide, by comparison, methods for landscape analysis, evaluation, planning, and design.

–   "*State of the landscape reports*", prepared by planning departments, would audit efforts and effects of spatial planning. These reports would describe the visions (for example of the Government) on planning policies and may be updated after.

–   To support and observe the integration of landscape into town planning policies special *agencies, councils and commissions for landscape* may be introduced. These may include agencies for landscape (for example Bundesamt für Umwelt, Wald und Landschaft, Switzerland), national and regional landscape councils (for example « Conseil national du paysage », France), and others.

–   Reports on the "State of the Landscape" and the work of agencies, councils and commissions may be supported by *demonstration projects* intended to inspire new solutions and co-operations.

Chapter	Recommendations
2.0	New concepts and strategies may be needed, and new trans-disciplinary partnerships be formed, for the protection, management and planning of landscapes in urban, suburban and peri-urban areas'. The urban landscape concept may serve to include all phenomena of suburban, peri-urban, and other urban areas.
3.1	To integrate landscape into town planning policies, countries may benefit from exchanges of experiences and from learning about planning cultures and their particular strengths.
4.1	National and regional policies provide landscape targets in a broad sense, while local policy specifies "urban landscapes quality goals".
4.2	To include phenomena of the "regional city", town planning would need to be conducted and administered across administrative borders and levels. Where municipalities share greater landscape regions, cooperation may be aided by common "Landscape Visions" and by special communication forums. Cross-level policy-making may also be supported by corresponding budgets

Chapter	Recommendations
4.3	In order to integrate sectoral and individual concerns, it is necessary to tie them together, in one comprehensive "Landscape Planning", which may be the kind of tool ideally suited to integrate sectoral landscape concerns. Landscape planning may also help integrate landscape into statutory environmental assessment procedures.
4.4	Methods that include both the subjective views of local residents (Landscape "as perceived by people", European Landscape Convention), as well as objective assessments of landscapes, need to be developed.
5.1	With the "urban landscape" approach, different patterns of land use and form are viewed in connection with natural conditions (topography, stretches of water, soil, vegetation). They can thus be understood as specific eco-cultural units that offer new landscape qualities.
5.2	By integrating landscape into goals of sustainable urban development these would include considerations for the preservation and enhancement of regional and local identity. By placing development within the existing urban matrix, the extent of greenfield development is reduced and open space kept available for recreation, agriculture, nature conservation and other values and interests.
5.3	All green areas of the urban landscape contribute to building systems of open space networks that contribute to enhancing the scenic quality of the urban and rural open spaces, their ecological richness and biodiversity, and to the well-being of the inhabitants.
5.4	Urban transformation provides a chance to enhance the quality of life for citizens. Town planning contributes to the making of new landscapes by including stakeholders. For the re-use and re-valuation of transitions areas, new and unfamiliar types of "Urban Landscapes" may be considered.
5.5	Urban landscapes contribute to local identity through particular styles of urban design, special green open spaces, regional architecture, and others. Decisions on what and how much of the historic stock should be preserved, or altered for new identities, require careful analysis, planning and design.
6.1	In support of cross-level and cross-sectoral decision making, town planning and landscape planning may be integrated as "Urban Landscape Planning".
6.2	In support of sustainable landscape decisions, citizens may be directly involved in the preparation and implementation of policies and measures.
6.3	A variety of tools are available to support participatory planning. The most important criterion for selecting and adopting specific tools is that they actually help people to understand what is in a plan, and to understand each other. Tools such as visualisation aids and internet-based platforms should support interactive communication.

Table 6: Summary of policy recommendations

7.2. Recommendations to policy makers and practitioners

The following recommendations are drafted, to Member States of the Council of Europe, with proposals on the development of policies concerning peri-urban and sub-urban areas in the framework of the European Landscape Convention.

– New types of landscape are forming through processes of urbanisation, including "regional cities", "urbanised countrysides" and others. A *new typology* that includes all phenomena of urban landscapes is needed (Bruns et *al*., 2000).

– Town planning policies would adopt this new typology and develop *comprehensive strategies* for the "regional city", for the "peri-urban" and for the space "in-between" (Sieverts 1997, Prigge 1998). Spatial thinking would look at *the city as an entire landscape*.

– New and *interdisciplinary approaches and organisational structures* are needed to interpret qualities of new urban landscapes, to identify their potentials, and to design for their future. Landscape is made up of a multitude of "modules" and "layers" making it necessary to bring together as many different disciplines as possible in order to begin to understand the "urban landscape" as an entity in its own right (Corner 1999, Tress and Tress 2004). It may be important to *overcome sectoral fragmentations* that reflect the limited views people and institutions have of "their" part of the world.

– To better appreciate the "urban landscape" as a whole, comprehensive *spatial planning may be linked with urban design* (Meyer 2003), with ways of creating symbols and signals (Kohlhaas 1995, Wall 1999).

– "Transformation landscapes" is a term recently introduced into urban policy making and planning (Meyer, 2003). This term relates to concepts that *appreciate change as one of the most important qualities of "urban landscapes"*. It includes physical changes, social changes, and changes of spatial identity. Different processes of change are analysed, and new relationships between space and people are interpreted in innovative forms of planning and design. These forms may include parts of traditional landscapes as well as elements of "patchwork-landscapes" that have little to do with patterns of what used to be the "city" and the "country".

– Planning and decision-making in town planning should *support participatory processes*. The European Landscape Convention provides basic guidelines to include "interested parties" into planning and decision-making. In addition, the "Aarhus Convention" specifies, among others, reasonable timeframes for participation, including provision for participation at an early stage, and obligations of the decision-making body to take due account of the outcome of the public participation.

– During the Cork workshop it has been suggested to form *"urban landscape partnerships"* (Stiles, 2005). Partnerships would be based on a network that includes a number of European cities and research facilities. The partnership would bring together the knowledge and experience of municipal government and administrations, and of academic institutions that have their focus on landscape. Its overall goal would be to promote good practice in the planning, design and management of urban landscapes of Europe.

– In order to compare different phenomena of "Urban Landscapes" in Europe, and to find potential planning and design solutions for them, *research needs to be organised* with international co-operation, with different programmes where town planning is integrated with other disciplines. Such multi-centred and interdisciplinary research may profit from being linked with "Urban Partnerships"

Cultural landscapes are part of European heritage. Natural and cultural diversity are common assets that require protection, management and planning. Their regional manifestation leads to local identity,

not only in rural areas and the countryside, but in urban landscapes in particular. Town planning policy needs to integrate nature and culture, in particular the unique features they produce.

8. Summary

The purpose of this study is to formulate proposals regarding the integration of landscape into town planning policies and to draft recommendations to Member States of the Council of Europe with proposals on the development of policies concerning peri-urban and sub-urban areas in the framework of the European Landscape Convention. A summary of policy recommendations are included in Table 6 (Page 37). Items that could be developed further during meetings of the Workshops of the European Landscape Convention are included in Chapter 7.1, recommendations to policy makers and practitioners in Chapter 7.2.

Based on nine examples of town planning from different European countries, current practices concerning the protection, management and planning of landscape in urban areas are examined. Pertinent town planning policies are analysed and compared. "Urban Landscape" as a term is used here, in its broadest sense, to describe and interpret changing landscapes of cities and towns. The examples employed in this study include urban landscapes on a neighbourhood scale, on a city scale, and on a regional scale. The "urban landscape" concept assumes that these levels should be considered, not separate from each other, but together and simultaneously.

It is through complicated cultural and historical associations which continue to bring a place alive, that "land" turns into "landscape". Local communities and their culture are crucial to the identity and character of an area. This is especially relevant for urban landscapes where much of what we perceive on the ground is associated with symbols, icons and myths that are alive in buildings, open spaces, and in the memory of people today. Just as former communities contributed to the landscape we have inherited, so the involvement of today's residents is central to the way the landscape is evolving (Wilkie, 1994). Thus, policies for the urban environment have to be based on participatory processes.

Spatial thinking should look at *the city as an entire landscape*. Local town planning should to be placed in the context of regional and sub-regional strategies, while strategic planning will benefit from being informed by the detail of individual localities, initiatives and projects. There appears to be a need for greater integration, vertically and horizontally, between all those who have stakes in and responsibilities for landscape. Landscape planning should incorporate landscape at all levels of spatially relevant decision-making, providing correspondence between these layers. It should include social concerns, urban programmes and projects. On a regional scale, goals may become part of legal plans, on local scales they need to be adopted as measures. To better appreciate the "urban landscape" as a whole comprehensive spatial planning may be linked with urban design.

Landscape is made up of a multitude of "modules" and "layers", making it necessary to bring together as many different disciplines as possible. It seems important to overcome sectoral fragmentation in order to begin to understand the "urban landscape" as an entity in its own right. Networks of European cities and research facilities may be formed that would bring together the knowledge and experience of municipal government and administrations, and of different academic fields that have their focus on landscape. It is recommended to find innovative planning and design solutions, and that research for "Urban Landscapes" be organised.

Town planning in Europe offers a rich variety of different traditions and cultures. Integrating landscape into town planning policies provides a unique chance, for towns and regions, to benefit from each other's strengths. Facilitating exchanges of experience would help makers and users of planning policies to learn about the potentials of European capacities in protecting, managing and planning urban landscapes. Policies on landscape would appear to benefit from greater attention, articulation, and also from good examples of "best practice".

It may be important to implement the European Landscape Convention not only in national and regional policies, and plans, but to bring its message directly to neighbourhoods, and to individual people. This would require, among other activities, the involvement of communities who are managing landscape change. Landscape-related learning and education appears to need attention. Landscape policies will have to be translated into specific measures which should be adopted at the level closest to the citizen wherever possible. Through processes of local consultation, people should decide on their own landscapes, and people should also inform each other about landscape values.

9. List of key words

Identity of Urban Landscapes;   Landscape Quality Goals;
Landscape Character;   Regional Planning;
Landscape Convention;   Town Planning;
Landscape Heritage;   Town Planning Policy;
Landscape Management;   Urban Landscape;
Landscape Planning;   Urban Transformation;
Landscape Protection;

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