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REPORT

"Towards a grammar for European landscapes"

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Summary

Article 5 of the European Landscape Convention on "General measures" states:

"Each Party undertakes:
…d. 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."*

This Report *"Towards a grammar for European landscapes"*, was prepared by Valerio Di Battista, as Expert of the Council of Europe. Mr Di Battista is Architect, Professor of Architecture Technology, Deputy Dean of the Faculty of Architecture and Society of the Milan Polytechnic, Maintenance, redevelopment of building and urban systems, National manager of research and author of numerous publications on the subject of the intervention on the built environment.

This report has been produced in the framework of the Council of Europe activities for the implementation of the European Landscape Convention.

The 9th Council of Europe Conference on the European Landscape Convention:

– took note of the Report *"Towards a grammar for European landscapes"*, which was prepared by Mr Valerio DI BATTISTA, as Expert of the Council of Europe, and congratulated its author for the great quality and usefulness of the report *[Cf. Document: CEP-CDCPP (2017) 15E rev.]*.

Preliminary remarks

The landscape as a symbol

Whether in research or field activities, the state of the art in landscape matters (as reflected in the literature, landscape plans and projects) is made up of numerous contributions and approaches, sometimes both disparate and contradictory. This situation moreover brings to the fore the need for guidelines more in keeping with the concepts to be found in the European Landscape Convention of the Council of Europe, and closer to a systemic vision.

In fact, the landscape "as perceived by the public" transcends the domain of "experts" and specialisation and requires informed interpretation and decisions which should, as far as possible, be shared, so as to confirm its nature as a collective work that is open, continuous and rich in symbolism and meanings vital to our existence.

Accordingly, following on from the Convention itself, it can be considered that the landscape is now assuming (sometimes even against our will) a key role in the fundamental relationship we maintain with our living environment.

This is the background to this report, launched with the intention of beginning to lay down some "*Methodological references*" and, based on these, to establish "*Procedural guidelines*".

In both these areas we have attempted to adhere to general concepts which may be applied in numerous cultural environments and in different operational contexts. Based on a logic of close interaction between knowledge and decisions, we have also considered it vital to go through the whole process from analysis to intervention and to juxtapose the "*Methodological references*" (focused more on theory) and the "*Procedural guidelines*" (focused more on application), while in both cases retaining the complementary distinction between the analytical and the project phases.

With these objectives in mind, I have also attempted to couch my arguments in very concise terms (while associating every development with opportunities for more in-depth analysis) and to give them more practical utility in terms of both their order (which does not rule out a partial reading thereof) and the links between them, since they lend themselves to numerous cross-references.

This report seeks to promote opportunities for collaborative and interactive approaches between "expert" bodies (top-down), whether political, technical or regulatory, and those with direct experience of analyses and decision-making at grassroots level (bottom-up). It further aspires to facilitate processes (awareness-raising, assessments, programmes, projects and verifications) which are as transparent as possible, continuous, interactive and aimed at securing conditions more conducive to self-organisation.

Given these aims, we have considered it necessary to introduce into the thinking and practice relating to the landscape the concept of "unintentionality" (that is the origins and the outcomes of the numerous random, unco-ordinated, hetero-directed and spontaneous actions which affect our landscapes), alongside forms of "expert" regulation.

I have therefore focused on active participation at every stage of the processes and the difficult interactions between intentional and spontaneous interpretations and projects.

In this context, we have deemed it useful to adopt the "legacy project" concept, and its diagnosis-project relationship, as well as the numerous forms of intervention it permits (already tested, to a large extent, with buildings and/or in an urban planning context).

In essence, we have attempted to align the methods and tools with the notions to be found in the Convention, using references which already exist but which are disparate and/or relate to other contexts (awareness-

raising, multi-criteria assessment, legacy projects, the multiple and complementary intervention options). Alongside the concept of “unintentionality”, we also propose certain forms of participation in the assessment and decision-making processes aimed at facilitating co-evolutionary hypotheses for actions and spontaneous outcomes. This is conducive to the growth of self-organised processes, which are important for establishing synergies with bottom-up processes and achieving possible, tangible improvements in the management of our landscapes, our living environments, and, more generally, our settlement systems.

Given the broad scope of the sphere being dealt with in this report, I have been unable to summarise every aspect of it here. I have therefore chosen to give priority to the “*Methodological references*, with the “*Procedural guidelines*” set out in an appendix.

Contents

VOLUME I – METHODOLOGICAL REFERENCES

Introduction

Nowadays, the landscape, as a symbol, can assume the role which perspective[1] played for the people of the Renaissance.[2] In fact, if perspective became a symbol because it expressed a conception of the world, the landscape now conveys an open, complex conception, discontinuous in terms of its signs and meanings and also unstable, but continuous in time. The landscape is coming to represent a relative "reality" and also certain cognitive interactions consistent with advances in knowledge and the languages of contemporary art.

Sixteen years after the Council of Europe's European Landscape Convention was opened for signature, the landscape is taking on a very relevant cultural and operational role.[3]

Referring to the people's perception permits the emergence of new equilibriums in terms of uses, decisions and actions involving the landscape, while opening up further prospects,[4] although we still may struggle to accept these.

Based on the extensive, varied literature available and my personal experience,[5] both directly in the field and indirectly (in educational and standard-setting contexts), the author can identify contradictions and discrepancies between various approaches, as well as between these approaches and the operational practices actually being applied in our landscapes.

This is the result of a culture of separation[6] and our dual role as landscape beneficiaries and operators. As such, we are the bearers of concepts, opinions and actions which always have an impact on the landscape. What we have therefore is a "unintentional" outcome of the cumulative actions and interactions of random processes, which are often dissipative (of energy, coherence, material and immaterial resources, etc.), and also of coherent elements which explain the positive denotations of many spontaneous, man-made landscapes and of processes from which forms of self-organisation have "emerged".[7] These preliminary remarks, together with the landscape's correspondence to the "place-based identities" of environmental psychology,[8] suggest that greater attention should be paid to the different types of unintentional processes.

Based on a logic of close interaction between knowledge and decisions, I have followed the entire operational process, from analysis to project, and propose a distinction between the "*Methodological references*" (as set out here) and the appended "*Procedural guidelines*", while maintaining within them the distinction drawn between the analytical phases and the project phases.

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[1] E. Panofsky, *Die Perspektive "Symbolischeform"* [Perspective as a symbolic form], Teubner, Leipzig-Berlin, 1927.

[2] According to Guido D. Neri, in Panofsky's view: *two essentially different conceptions have arisen.... One which corresponds to the disjointed, contradictory, "finite" objectivism of the ancient world, and one which corresponds to the homogeneous and "infinite" modern subjectivism ... which will accompany us right to the start of the 20th century.* G. D. Neri, *Il problema dello spazio figurativo e la teoria artistica di E. Panofsky* [The problem with figurative space and artistic theory of E. Panofsky], in E. Panofsky, *La prospettiva come forma simbolica* [Perspective as a symbolic form], Feltrinelli, 1961.

[3] Examples are a Territorial Plan which is assuming "*landscape value*", as in Tuscany, or the landscape concepts (European Convention Art. 1; 2), which are becoming key elements of the descriptions and strategies of the Territorial Plans in Puglia and Catalonia (see Volume II, Part I - 1.1).

[4] See Y. Lüginbuhl, *La mise en scène du monde. Construction du paysage européen* [How to manage the world. Creating the European landscape], CNRS edition, Paris, 2014.

[5] Including participation in the Coordination meetings of the Network of Observers of the Piedmont Landscape, teaching of Renovation Technology at the Polytechnic University of Milan, and participation in the work of UNI (the Italian standards agency) on standards 11150 (1-2-3-4) and 11151.

[6] See the criticism of the Cartesian paradigm (distinction between *res cogitans* and *res extensa*) in E. Morin, *Seven complex lessons in education for the future*, UNESCO, 1999.

[7] E. A. Gutkind, *Architettura e società* [Architecture and society], Comunità, Milan, 1958.
C. Norberg-Schulz, *Genius Loci*, Rizzoli International Publications, 1979.

[8] M. Bonnes, G. Secchiaroli, *Psicologia ambientale* [Environmental psychology], Carocci, Rome, 2005.

This report sets out to propose a collaborative and iterative approach between regulatory structures (top-down) and direct experience (bottom-up) and between individuals with different levels of expertise, with the aim of facilitating open, continuous, interactive procedures targeting (self-organised)[9] outcomes that constitute gradual improvements.

The body text and the appendix are linked, as far as possible, through use of the same numbering system and also contain an extensive array of cross-references.

Part I – Experiencing the landscape[10]

I - 1 The concept of landscape

The concept of landscape, as perceived by the public, involves all the cognitive references of "territory" and "environment" and supplements these with symbolic values which those references do not possess.[11] It may therefore contain both types of reference, but without being present in them.

I - 1.1 Who observes what?

Individuals, social groups, the public, their narratives, representations, etc., as well as scientific bodies and institutions are all systems engaged in observation, which describe and use landscapes and take decisions and actions affecting them. They have different levels of expertise and awareness. Some steer and manage intentional processes and projects. They are all beneficiaries and sometimes involuntary operators.

They all make observations regarding our living environments. These systems being observed[12] include abiotic systems (energy flows, climate, water, inert materials, etc.), biotic systems (ecological, plant and animal communities, etc.) and man-made systems (settlements, land use, artefacts, information flows, etc.).

Between the systems being observed and the systems doing the observing mutual influence interactions are established which modify the perception.[13]

I - 1.2 What do we observe?

The landscape is the system of signs and meanings which surrounds us. Sensory enjoyment of the landscape is total. In other words, what we see is accompanied by noises, sounds, scents, odours, etc., and is also multiscalar.[14]

We are always and only surrounded by landscapes. Their visibility is necessary to our experience.

I - 1.3 How do we observe?

The landscapes of a territory can only be observed by travelling through it. Aerial, satellite or map views, describing positions, distances, etc. that are imperceptible during direct observation, are vital operational descriptions, but are not the same as the beneficiaries' perception, as they never manage (as with architecture) to recapture the emotive and cognitive impact of direct perception.[15]

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[9] "*… there are physical conditions of formation wherein certain phenomena of interaction, taking the form of interrelations, become organizational. If there is an organizing principle, it is born from chance encounters, in the copulation of disorder and order …*". E. Morin, *Method: The Nature of Nature*, Peter Lang, 1992.

[10] The subsequent paragraphs describe in sequence the stages involved in a process which is in fact perceived as synthetic and unitarian.

[11] J. P. Changeux, *The Good, the True, and the Beautiful: A Neuronal Approach*, Yale University Press, 2012.

[12] European Landscape Convention, Art. 2 and Art. 6.c, Scope; CM/Rec(2008)3 II.2.1.

[13] See Volume II, Part I - 1.2; 3.2.

[14] The term "multiscalar" refers to the perceptual co-existence of signs which are very and/or fairly close with signs which are fairly and/or very distant. It therefore concerns the single image we construct with all these views and all the various representations available (for instance, in computerised mapping use can be made of zoom effects or of different choices of views).

[15] See Volume II, Part I - 1.3.

Territories and environments are analysed using a variety of methods by many scientific disciplines: environmental, anthropological, economic, as well as through different approaches: perceptive-visual, psychological, social, historical, cultural, etc.[16] and also many descriptions.[17] All of them provide valuable knowledge. But as this knowledge is partial and disparate, they struggle to recreate the whole system[18]. I will attempt to extrapolate possible interactions from this, in order to move towards a "public perception", describing the operational procedures involved in the Appendix.

I - 1.4 Visibility, visual perception

This is the view as observed, free of any meaning and value. Its assessment across a territory (intervisibility) is paramount for identifying the various visual weaknesses (areas visible or not visible from given points). This can be carried out by means of interpretation:

I - 1.4.1 Indirect interpretation

This is visibility assessed by means of cartographic bases and different types of representations (photos, video, etc.).[19]

I - 1.4.2 Direct interpretation

This is carried out in the field and managed by both experts and beneficiaries.[20]

I - 1.4.3 Passive view and visual sensitivity

This considers the manners and probabilities of being observed.[21]

I - 2 Beyond visibility

I - 2.1 Recognition

This is essential for a complex perception. It allows the beneficiary to identify and assign value (give a name and meaning) to the various landscapes.[22]

Recognition involves sensations and memory. It activates cognitive functions and organises complex judgments based on delimitation of the boundaries of the observation area.[23]

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[16] CM/Rec(2008)3 II.2.1. See too Volume II, Part I - 2.3.

[17]These are mostly associated with pictorial, photographic, and also literary, representations. Although intense, they mostly occur at random, in a non-systematic way.

[18]"*We may state as characteristic of modern science that this scheme of isolable units acting in one-way causality has proved to be insufficient. Hence the appearance, in all fields of science, of notions like wholeness, holistic, organismic, gestalt, etc., which all signify that, in the last resort, we must think in terms of systems of elements in mutual interaction ...*". L. von Bertalanffy, *General system theory*, Braziller, New York, 1968.
A. Farina, *Principles and methods in landscape ecology. Toward a science of landscape*, Springer, 2006. See too Volume II, Part I - 1.2.

[19] See Volume II, Part I - 1.2; 1.2.1.

[20] See Volume II, Part I - 1.3; 1.3.1; 1.3.2; 1.3.2.1/2/3/4.

[21] See Volume II, Part I - 1.3.3; 1.4; 1.4.1.

[22] See Volume II, Part I - 2.1; 2.1.1/2/3.

[23] "*The perceptual process, for example, is intimately linked to this boundary area ... another process which takes place between the boundary area is executing an action*". K. Lewin, *Field Theory in Social Sciences*, Arper, New York, 1951. See too see Volume II, Part I - 2.2.

I - 2.2 Delimitation[24]

The primary function of visual information is (as in the case of animals) to permit recognition and delimitation of a territory for the purposes of survival (food, safety, well-being, etc.). Nowadays, for humans, delimiting boundaries involves recognising the context of social, emotive and identity-related interactions.[25]

I - 2.3 Available documentation

The visual perception of a territory is not complete without taking into account the extensive information and descriptive or interpretative framework generally available.

Every place is a cultural repository of information, including immaterial information, which it would, moreover, be useful to collect and/or organise (eco-museums, territorial museums, maps, documents, etc.).[26]

I - 2.3.1 Informative or descriptive documentation

These documents are always present, but are sometimes unknown or difficult to identify. They are often discontinuous in time or in terms of their arguments, but they are still useful and can be updated.[27]

I - 2.3.2 Interpretative documentation

These include historical and literary texts and pictorial, photographic and filmed representations, and so on. The narrative and iconography, including modern ones, afford important historical and geographical points of comparison.[28]

I - 2.4 Identification

What is visible or invisible determines the identification of places and brings to mind the Gestalt laws.[29]

Occurrences, quantities, physical characteristics (features, geometries, dimensions, materials, colours, etc.) and their disposition give the system its name (primary meaning) (e.g. an agricultural, urban, marine, mountain, fluvial, etc. landscape).[30]

Visual perception does not simply permit this initial identification, but also serves to determine the singular nature of places, deriving from their characteristics - visual, temporal and associative, and contributes to the complex perception (assessments and social appreciation/public perception).[31]

[24] European Landscape Convention, Art. 6.C, Identification and assessment; CM/Rec(2008)3 II.2.1

[25] *"A context is defined with particular physical characteristics in which the participants are engaged in particular activities, in particular roles for a particular period of time. The factors of place, time, physical characteristics, activities, participants and role are elements of the context."* H. Bronfenbrenner, *The Ecology of Human development*, Harvard University Press, Cambridge, 1979. See too Volume II, Part I - 2.2.

[26] See Volume II, Part I - 2.3.

[27] See Volume II, Part I - 2.3.1.

[28] Y. Luginbühl, see footnote 4.

[29] See Volume II, Part I - 2.4.1 and Appendix, footnote 26

[30] If we consider a landscape containing the following features: a plain, a river and a hilltop bastion, the observer is assumed to be on the plain or on the hill, depending on the point from which the observation is made (*law of proximity*). However, if, for example, the observer is on a plain within a wide valley among mountains, the landscape will be identified as a mountain landscape (*law of good gestalt).* Similarly, the landscape will only be defined as fluvial if a river can be seen or if the observer has a memory of being next to it, even without seeing it (*law of past experience).* In an indirect view the same landscapes lose these denotations.

[31] See Volume II, Part I - 2.4; 3.2.

I - 2.4.1 Visual characteristics[32]

These characteristics derive from signs: shapes, figures, volumes, surfaces (flat, inclined, concave, convex, etc.), textures (thick, thin, etc.), profiles, lines, points which configure the elements (soil, water, trees, clouds, constructions, roads, buildings, etc.) under the observation conditions (directions, light, shadows, etc.) and in terms of distances, boundaries, horizons, positions, dimensions, materials, colours, etc.

I - 2.4.2 Temporal characteristics[33]

These characteristics derive from the observation periods: duration, frequency, cyclical nature of use, dynamic perceptions, seasonal conditions, diurnal cycle, etc., and also from the accumulated visual and cultural memory. The latter is determined not only by the various lifetimes within the systems being observed, but also by the different identifications made by the beneficiaries (observers).[34] Therefore, the landscape reflects a present which interacts with a mosaic of memory traces having various symbolic values.

I - 2.4.3 Associative and denotative characteristics[35]

I - 2.4.3.1 Association with other images

Views which "resemble" each other are perceived as having similar meanings (*law of similarity*).

I - 2.4.3.2 Association with situations

The views take on meaning, or vary it, in relation to particular situations or events: synchronous, diachronous, mnemonic, which have been experienced or recalled by the observer.

I - 2.4.4 Structural factors

The three characteristics – visual, temporal and associative – give rise to a number of factors: dominant components, prevalent features, elements, etc., which structure the specific nature of a place.[36] These factors seem to organise the numerous variables present and help in identifying the various landscapes.[37]

I - 2.5 Intervisibility[38]

We see spaces (open, closed, etc.) in every landscape, as well as very many "things". Their combinations change with the conditions of visual observation (relative positions, movement type, seasonal variations, brightness, etc.), interacting with the other senses, memory (emotions and knowledge) and with different intentions and information. The central importance of visual experiences suggests that any analysis of landscapes should always take into account their indirect and direct intervisibility: mapping of the views actually possible from and of the various places. In this connection, it must be said that the processing is often unsatisfactory.

Many expert approaches do not give sufficient consideration to the more common, direct perception which every beneficiary has of their landscape and living environment. This entails adverse effects:

– It diminishes the power of direct experience;
– It attaches elitist meanings to the landscape which curtail appreciation thereof;

[32] See Volume II, Part I - 2.4.1 a/b/c.
[33] See Volume II, Part I - 2.4.2 a/b/c.
[34] CM/Rec(2008)3 II.2.1.
[35] See Volume II, Part I - 3.1.3.2.
[36] C. Norberg-Schulz, op. cit. note 8.
K. Lynch, *The Image of the City*, Harvard University Press, Cambridge, 1960.
[37] See Volume II, Part I - 2.4.1 a/b/c.
[38] See Volume II, Part I - 1.2; 1.4.1.

– It creates unhelpful barriers between knowledge and experience, between enjoyment and regulation.

It is therefore necessary to apply methods of indirect intervisibility, but they should always be integrated with local, direct perceptions of intervisibility.[39]

I - 2.6 Planning visibility

Interpreting the intervisibility conditions of a territory makes it possible to regulate observation in relation to what we want to be perceived and to improve the perception of the system operating across the viewsheds[40] and across the fields of view[41] with emphases, corrections and reductions in the visibility conditions.[42]

Intervisibility (indirect and direct) is the basis required for many operations. Some examples include:
– Identifying the various landscape sensitivities of a territory;
– Selecting viewsheds with different degrees of suitability;
– Selecting active and passive fields of view as an operating basis;
– Enhancing landscapes (natural, man-made, constructed) with selected points and paths.

All these options enable us to design a project for a landscape without modifying it and to improve it, making better use of its specific characteristics and skilfully working solely on its perception.[43]

3 Complex perception

I - 3.1 Assessment[44]

When experienced directly, every landscape offers a host of primary stimuli required for survival (enjoyment, safety, etc.)[45] and information to help recognise "things" and places[46] (and ourselves). As observation systems, we gather, select, process, memorise and compare stimuli and visual information, which we use to control instinctive reactions, activate emotions and "feelings"[47] and accumulate knowledge.[48]

Interpretation of the primary interactions between positions (near/far, below/above, etc.), dominant configurations (mountain landscape, urban landscape, etc.) and prevalent characteristics (wooded hills, dense construction, open plains for cultivation, etc.) suggests forms of recognition (known/unknown) and identification, and generates the "first impressions", assessments and denotations of which the beneficiaries are often unaware (harmonious or disharmonious, coherent or incoherent; approval, indifference or disapproval; safety or danger; well-being or discomfort, etc.).

In the landscape these forms of recognition and these assessments always concern numerous observers with different degrees of expertise. The beneficiaries develop different levels of appreciation and well-being. The actors (analysts, decision-makers, operators) target their assessments to confirm or modify their intentions and, therefore, express conscious denotations. Actors and beneficiaries (often the same people) constantly

[39] See Volume II, Part I - 1.3.
[40] For example, the set of views with the same structural factors along a path.
[41] See Volume II, Part I - 1.3; 1.3.1.
[42] See Volume II, Part I - 3.3.1.
[43] See Volume II, Part I - 1.3; 1.4.
[44] See Volume II, Part I - 3.1; 3.1.1.
[45] "*It is about understanding these ambivalent relations which are woven between the elements of the landscape and the body …*" U. Galimberti, *Il corpo* [The body], Feltrinelli, Milano, 2010.
[46] "'*Place' refers … to the essential nature of the location differentiating it from all other locations. 'Place' ... is the way in which landscape dimensions combine together and are identified to produce a distinct environment and a particular sense of location.*" D. Canter, *Putting situations in their place: foundations for a bridge between social and environmental psychology*, in A. Furnham, *Social behavior in context*, Allyn and Bacon, London, 1984.
[47] "*By most definitions* (emotions), *they precede our conscious awareness of feelings … they initially code whether an environment is pleasing or not …*". H. F. Mallgrave, *Architecture and Embodiment. The Implications of the New Sciences and Humanities for Design*, Routledge, 2013.
[48] C. S. Peirce, *Semiotica. I fondamenti della semiotica cognitiva* [Semiotics. Foundations of cognitive semiotics], Einaudi, Turin, 1980.

overlap in their assessments, but come together with difficulty.[49] These unconscious and conscious denotations, which vary in their degree of intent, include processes for conserving or transforming the landscape with internal, disparate and variable consistencies or inconsistencies.

Assigning values depends on a large number of individual variables (knowledge, motivations, physical and psychological conditions, etc.) and social variables (cultural models, customs, shared appreciations, etc.).

The most common values assigned to the landscape are apparently aesthetic: approval and acceptance (beautiful, pleasant, etc.), indifference (mundane, insignificant, etc.) and disapproval and rejection (ugly, unpleasant, etc.).[50]

In actual fact, more mixed values are involved.[51] Subjective (affective, emotive, etc.)[52] and social values (naturalist, religious, linked to material and immaterial culture)[53] reflect the local consensus, prevalent cultural models[54] and together form the complex perception of a place.[55]

I - 3.2 Public perception[56]

The perception of a landscape is a cognitive process[57] and encapsulates recognition, identification and assessment. It occurs in different ways and at different levels of interaction between "knowledgeable" and social observations, and between expert and emotive perceptions.[58] In every case, it provides interpretative "readings" which are essential to exploit the landscape's signs and meanings.

Every landscape supplies a vast amount of information, the selection and deciphering of which depend on what we want to know, on what we already know, and also on the levels of emotive involvement. Many different individuals propose targeted observations made with specific motives (due to diverse ages, occupations and interests) and numerous organisations (political, administrative, scientific, etc.) having diverse experiences, competences and interests, which may even be conflicting as regards the various modes of production existing within territories.

[49] The "expert" perceptions observe the landscape (abiotic, biotic and man-made systems and subsystems) using scientific methods which "colour" the landscape based on their own specific content and terms. However, there are multidisciplinary contributions dealing with the specific problems of each territory and using a language which is mutually acceptable and which can be derived from a comparison of the assessments. See too Volume II, Part I - 3.1.1.

[50] See Volume II, Part I - 3.1.2; 3.1.2.1/2.

[51] See Volume II, Part I - 3.1.3.

[52] See Volume II, Part I - 3.1.3.1.

[53] See Volume II, Part I - 3.1.2.1.

[54] P. Donadieu, M. Périgord, Le paysage entre natures et cultures [Landscape between natures and cultures], Armand Colin, Paris, 2007.

[55] See Volume II, Part I - 3.1; 3.1.1/2; 3.1.2.1; 3.1.3; 3.1.3.1/2/3/4/5/6/7/8/9/10.

[56] An initial approach to involving the public envisages "*a joint effort among academics in the fields of natural and human sciences, planners, administrators and local populations; an effort to provide education and training, linked to field projects ...*". MAB Programme (Man and Biosphere), UNESCO, 1988. See M. Bonnes, G. Secchiaroli, op. cit. note 9. See too Volume II, Part I - 3.2.

[57] G. Bateson, *Mind and nature*, Dutton, New York, 1979.
H. Maturana, F. Varela, *Autopoiesis and cognition*, Reidel, Dordrecht, 1980.
F. Varela, J. Shear, *First-person methodologies: what, why, how?*, Journal of Consciousness Studies, 1999.
U. Neisser, *Cognitive Psychology*, Psychology Press, New York, 2014.

[58] CM/Rec(2008)3 II.2.1.
J. P. Changeux, op. cit. note 12.

Often, each of these observations has the effect of limiting the emotive relations[59] and experiences which generate cognitive processes but, taken together, they offer a composite, albeit frequently specific, perception.[60]

The social perception deriving from the various local observations and experiences is therefore always composite, uncertain and fluctuating. It is based on the different recognitions of the visual perception, while being affected by the expert identifications and tending towards general assessments which are often imprecise and sometimes biased. However, its interpretation is vital, as that is the basis for the actions which produce and modify landscapes.[61]

I - 3.3 The public and the experts[62]

We are all landscape beneficiaries/operators. Each of us manages the areas and aspects of the landscape in which we live. We look after and/or modify "our" private space (by choosing colours, objects, layouts, etc.) and interact with public areas (by planting flowers, but also by dumping rubbish etc.).

As observers we also all see ourselves as operators unequal to the landscape, as we propose descriptions which seem to us to be mutually sectoral, generic and inadequate. This perception of mutual inadequacy between beneficiaries and operators and between inhabitants and experts suggests a certain distrust and perhaps militates against the concept of the landscape as an important common good. Furthermore, the different perceptions, terminologies and motivations reflect and generate chaotic interactions in the various processes. They explain the difficulties in interpreting the content of the "*landscape as perceived by people*",[63] and comparing theoretical references. They also seem ultimately to combine to create operational imbalances between "projects" and actions managed by the public (bottom-up) and those managed by experts and institutions (top down), imbalances which the parties concerned attempt to manage using suitable structures.[64]

I- 3.4 Utilitarian enjoyment

This is always one of the reasons for interaction between the public and living areas[65] (environments, territories, landscapes) and often assumes symbolic values.

This factor's variations, in place and time, interact with all the characteristics of the landscape and have quantitative and qualitative implications with positive and/or negative symbolic values.

Utilitarian[66] and symbolic[67] enjoyments are always present and derive from individual and social motives (activities, interests, opportunities, demonstrations of belonging, wealth, power, etc.). They vary as regards their causes and levels of intensity; they are random or build up and generate habits (inertia),[68] become local customs (not always positive), highlight links and offer degrees of freedom. They produce positive encounters (shared experiences) and negative ones (rejections), social relationships conducive to cooperation, but also to conflict.[69]

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[59] The path I am following from "elementary" to "complex" and then to "interactive" perception is a simplified, but I believe usable, reflection of scientific debate in the cognitive and neurological sciences.

[60] "*The landscape provides that interchange between Man and the environment which is used to achieve the adjustment (which is also and above all psychological and mental) of Man to his own world.*" E. Turri, *Antropologia del paesaggio* [Anthropology of landscape], Comunità, Milan, 1974.

[61] All the individuals (landscape beneficiaries) describe global perceptions (sensorial, psychological, emotive, pleasurable, beneficial, economic etc.) and always mention, individually or as a community, their living environments. See too Volume II, Part I - 2; 3.2.

[62] CM/Rec(2008)3 II.2.1. See too Volume II, Part I - 3.3.

[63] European Landscape Convention, Chap. 1, Art. 1 a.

[64] See Volume II, Part I - 3.3; 3.3.1.

[65] A. Magnaghi (editor), *Il territorio degli abitanti. Società locali e autosostenibilità* [The inhabitants' territory. Local societies and self-sustainable development], Dunod, Milan, 1998.

[66] See Volume II, Part I - 3.1.3.4.

[67] See Volume II, Part I - 3.1.3.8.

[68] See Volume II, Part I - 3.1.3.6.

[69] "*The person as a social agent seeks and creates meaning in the environment … a second important process issue involves the understanding of interrelationships between the environment on the one hand and group formation and maintenance on the other.*"

I- 3.5 Levels of coherence between interactions

Within landscapes we can perceive signs and information elements with coherent meaning (generally comprehensible and well-accepted) and incoherent meaning (difficult to grasp and with a low level of acceptance).

The difficulties in achieving coherence between the intentions of the various operators, the discrepancies between expert interpretations and practical perceptions and between utilitarian values and symbolic or emotive ones associated with living areas, generate (involuntary) unintentional processes.

The perception (and the very concept) of a landscape accordingly fluctuates with the instability of interactions between systems that lack consistency. But this very state of instability could generate self-organisation.

I - 3.5.1 Conditions and levels of incoherence[70]

These concern conditions which trouble perception (visual and denotative) or the presence of signs with configurations or materials which are incompatible with the context. Visual incoherence results from signs and meanings which diminish or distort the system's values (as happens, for instance, with an element which is "out of tune" in a piece of music, literary work, etc.).

I - 3.6 Intentional/unintentional processes

Within landscapes various analysis, decision or operational processes occur which are intentional,[71] partially regulated ("implicit" effects)[72] or unintentional (spontaneous, diverse and disparate).[73]

All the above processes interact with each other in space and time, engendering a tangle of indeterminate, unpredictable and only partially controllable relationships - in other words, an essentially unintentional process.[74] This creates numerous problems and requires new concepts, new levels of interpretation and ways of organising actions. The project concept is accordingly relevant here.

Unintentional processes easily cause negative effects: banalisation, "noise", waste, neglect. They also reflect the cultural rejection and the limits of dissipative models. However, in some cases, strong interaction between the community and the natural characteristics of places has given rise to unintentional landscapes with significant coherence between architectural and landscape elements.[75]

It is therefore still possible to speculate about the potential capacity of processes developed with a greater awareness of the capacity to improve on concepts and modes of behaviour in the relationship between mankind and the territory, environment or landscape.

S. Saegert, G. Winkel, *Environmental psychology*, in *Annual review of psychology*, 1990. See too Volume II, Part I - 3.1.3.9; 3.4; 3.4.1/2.

[70] See Volume II, Part I - 3.1.2.2.

[71] Intentional projects are projects (run by institutions or operators) which are supported by planning, scheduling and design techniques with effective and efficient cause-effect relations.

[72] These are processes where the rules and programmes do not generate sure and certain relationships, but allow of probabilities (implicit effects) (see G. Dematteis, *Progetto implicito* [Implicit project], Angeli, 2007).

[73] Unintentional projects are heavily emotion-oriented and have uncertain cause-effect relations.
Social psychology defines "spontaneous" processes as those which occur: "*without any cognitive effort and without careful reflection, attitudes are automatically triggered and have a direct influence on behaviour. The more accessible the attitudes, the more foreseeable the spontaneous behaviour.*" S. Boca, P. Bocchiaro, C. Scaffidi Abbate, *Introduzione alla psicologia sociale* [Introduction to social psychology], Il Mulino, Bologna, 2010.

[74] Intentional processes can also, as a whole, cause unintentional events. This means that it is very restrictive to apply to the landscape the logic and procedures of an intentional project. No intentional project can withstand the power of the unintentional process which has a continuous effect on the landscape.
Contemporary man-made landscapes seem largely to originate from global unintentional processes, guided by cultural models (products, available techniques, customs and tastes) which are becoming increasingly homogeneous and standardised.

[75] B. Rudofsky, *Architecture without Architects*, 1964.

Part II – Legacy projects

II - 1 Issues

The landscape is always an accumulation of projects. Some of them are intentional, run by technical specialists (infrastructure, constructions, etc.), often having an impact on the surrounding landscape[76] and always on the near landscape[77], and producing, as a whole, unintentional outcomes[78].

Many projects adhere to a pervasive culture of promoting the "new", which undervalues appropriate knowledge of the physical and denotative interactions that always exist in every place. If this transition is missing, it will cause indifference or errors, even at a local level.[79] What is therefore necessary, particularly with regard to the landscape, is a project approach that draws on the legacy culture.[80]

This comprises analyses: ranging from perceptual analyses[81], to identification[82], assessment[83] and ultimately to operational diagnoses[84] and strategies for planning interventions[85] and selecting more suitable operational practices.[86]

II - 1.1 Standardised landscapes

Nowadays, many landscapes reflect a pervasive form of downgrading through standardisation, which is occurring on two parallel levels: neglect of existing landscapes and the arrogant unoriginality of new landscapes. Existing landscapes (natural or artificial) embody identity-related values, which are weakened when the forms of enjoyment and appreciation that prevail result from new types of consumption (mass tourism). The "new" is often accepted as such, even if it is aggressive in the context.[87]

II - 1.1.1 Urban landscapes

These landscapes are becoming increasingly similar throughout the world, and it is significant that this affects areas with a potential high real estate value as much as shantytowns. Only the pre-existing areas still have distinctive features; however, everywhere fairly similar transformations are taking place.

II - 1.1.2 Rural landscapes

These landscapes are marked by the invasive presence of single-crop farming, new production facilities (sheds), energy systems and dwellings (housing and small apartment blocks).

II - 1.2 Participation

The presence of unintentional processes in the landscape requires the development of public participation.

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[76] See Volume II, Part I - 1.3.2.3.
[77] See Volume II, Part I - 1.3.2.4.
[78] See Part I – 3.6.
[79] *How have we managed to reach the point of condemning the theory and practice of construction as the symbols of everything we believe as being the most destructive ... of being the worst ugliness, sordid venality ... huge projects which destroy the life of the common man, organised malice which is not mitigated by a single social value?"* P. Blake, Form follows fiasco, Little Brown & Company, Boston, 1977.
[80] V. Di Battista, *Ambiente costruito* [Built environment], Alinea, Florence, 2006. See too Volume II, Part II - 2.1/2.
[81] See Volume II, Part I - 1.2/3/4.
[82] See Volume II, Part I - 2.4.
[83] See Volume II, Part I – 3.
[84] See Volume II, Part II – 3.
[85] See Volume II, Part II - 4; 4.1/2/3/4.
[86] See Volume II, Part II – 5; 6; 7; 8; 9.
[87] See Volume I, Parte I - 1.1/2; Part II – 9.

Today this occurs mainly during the analytical phases,[88] and is scarcely present in the decision-making process. This shows the prevalence of top-down models, which seem surmountable only on a small scale, for instance in a village or a neighbourhood where it is easier to initiate shared interpretations of the existing landscape and involve users in operational decisions and processes.

But, even in these cases, participation requires the "faculties" to be as receptive as possible and a broadening of the appreciation, which in addition to visual, emotive and symbolic appreciation embraces all the other values (ownership, use, availability, efficiency, performance, economics, social relations, etc.). This enlargement encompasses decisions which are the preserve of those with political and technical mandates and alters the culture of the project.[89]

II - 2 Methods

II - 2.1 Legacy culture

In order to tackle the problems associated with a project, we always need to accept the existing situation and that every action we take affects and produces landscapes[90].

Under the legacy culture[91], we are all responsible and are beneficiaries/operators in relation to our surroundings (houses, roads, districts, villages and regions), and this changes the technical mandate.

In addition, the assessment always guides the "projectum", that is the vision of the future.[92]

II - 2.2 Legacy projects

This concept makes it possible to draw inspiration from certain established procedures in the field of architecture[93] and, therefore, the transfer into a landscape context of the following:

– The need to know and assess the conditions of use and qualities (diagnosis);
– Consideration of the multiplicity of individuals and roles involved and requirements to be met;
– The complexity of the processes (interactions, duration, instability);
– The complexity of deciding between conservation and transformation and between identity and utility;
– The iterative procedures involved in diagnosis and decision-making;
– The requirement for pragmatic, participatory, open and continuous guidelines.

In the landscape, as in the built environment, ongoing, pervasive processes come to the fore which reflect social organisations, means of production and cultural developments and which also interact with abiotic

[88] The innovative Catalonia Plan also includes participation in the analytical phase.
[89] See Volume II, Part II - 1; 1.1/2/3.
[90] W. Morris, *The prospect of architecture in civilisation*, London, 1881.
[91] In relation to the landscape the legacy culture, in terms of both analysis and assessment, requires expert knowledge and the beneficiaries' perception ("*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."* CM/Rec(2008)3 II.2.3.a).
The analyses provide the structure for assessments which define objectives. This (analytical/decision-making) process occurs via intentional (informed and expert) means and unintentional (spontaneous, ill-informed) means which co-exist, but do not collaborate.
[92] The project organises a process (intention, preparation of actions, activation, control of the outcomes and any feedback) which provides a specific context for relationships of cause and effect. This concept enables better outcomes to be achieved based on few variables and simple aims.
In the case of complex elements (an aircraft, a large-scale infrastructure, etc.), the project organises separate processes.
This procedure, when applied to cities, territories and landscapes, proves to be inadequate as a means of regulating indeterminate processes and achieving the desired results.
G. Dematteis, *Paesaggio come "codice genetico"* [Landscape as a "genetic code"], in F. Balletti (editor), *Sapere tecnico, sapere locale* [Technical knowledge, local knowledge]. *Conoscenza, identificazione, scenari per il progetto* [Knowledge, identification and scenarios for the project], Alinea, Florence, 2007.
[93] 10th Conference-Congress of the ANCSA (National Association for Historical and Artistic Centres) entitled "*Città esistente e città futura: innovare il recupero*" [City of today and city of tomorrow: how to innovate restoration], Bergamo, 1986.

systems and the self-adjustments of biotic systems. Landscape management unifies the set of political and cultural options on the ground and necessitates operational methods compatible with the long-, medium- and short-term variables present in settlement systems.

II - 3 Interactive perception and Unintentional projects

The landscape involves all the environmental conditions (climate, soil, water) and all living organisms (from bacteria to human beings) and brings to the fore, on the different scales, interactive perceptions and projects (intentional and unintentional) which function with different purposes, modes and timeframes.

In this dense network of processes, the intentional objectives cannot merely give rise to ad hoc instructions and verifications, but the aim must be to create a diffuse culture (material and immaterial) of skills and sensitivities for guiding improvement processes.

This requires gradual self-adjustment (as in politics and the programmes of large business groups) in order to identify strategies and run projects.

II - 4 Landscape strategies

The term "strategy" is used to designate a process which influences the interactions between all the individuals in their relationships (utilitarian and symbolic) with the various places (landscapes, environments and territories).

Landscape strategies require autopoietic approaches,[94] namely practices which are flexible and adaptable to the "perception" of the values and critical issues at stake in the operational context, with a view to self-adjustment and integration of intentional projects, mitigation of the adverse effects of unintentional factors and the triggering of improvement processes.

These are difficult processes, but they are simple to initiate based on the human resources most affected (almost always present in every community) and the most feasible improvement and/or enhancement objectives.

These objectives suggest proceeding in stages, each involving experts and the public.

4.1 Stage 1. Awareness-raising

The interpretations of intervisibility (expert exploration of visual perceptions) highlight indisputable values (sensitive and hidden areas, symbolic places and goods, etc.) which can trigger perceptions within the public that gradually become more complex and interactive. Approaches which create "complicity" are useful (eco-museums, training, awareness-raising in schools, etc.).[95]

II - 4.2 Stage 2. Assessment

In order to identify values and clarify strengths and weaknesses in an open and participatory manner, the following methods can be used: SWOT analysis,[96] focus groups, surveys, interviews and "parish maps".[97] Another method is the use of Post Occupancy Evaluations (POE).[98]

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[94] This can be represented, as an initial approximation, as a network of management processes (signs, meanings and uses) which reorganise/denote the system while interacting with each other.
F. Donato, *Le amministrazioni pubbliche verso logiche di governo partecipato* [Public administrations moving towards ways of thinking based on participatory governance], Giuffrè Editore.
[95] European Landscape Convention, Art. 6.B, Specific measures; CM/Rec(2014)8. See too Volume II, Part I - 3.3.1; B – 1.2/3.
[96] Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, Threats. See too Volume II, Part I - 3.4.1.
Hill, T. & R. Westbrook, *SWOT Analysis: It's Time for a Product Recall*, Long Range Planning, 1997.
[97] "Parish Maps" come from Anglo-Saxon experiences of culture mapping in the 1980s. See too Volume II, Part I - 3.3.1.
[98] Procedures can be applied which are similar to POEs that question users about the situations in the areas they utilise, and verify and rectify technical weaknesses. See too Volume II, Part I - 3.4.2.

II - 4.3 Stage 3. Devising strategies

The above analyses identify areas requiring more in-depth examination and suggest priorities and alternatives for maintaining strengths and positive values and reducing weaknesses and non-values. Multicriteria participatory assessment of such options can enable joint strategies.

II - 4.4 Stage 4. Implementation policies

It is for the public authorities in their respective territories to devise framework regulations, select quality objectives, and adopt (joint) strategies to be converted into short-, medium and long-term implementation policies (top-down).[99] At the same time, they should facilitate and initiate forms of participation (bottom-up).

This will produce direct effects (reassessments, re-use, etc. of public goods) and implicit effects (brought about by rules), which can be combined with the unintentional processes arising from the needs and the pervasive culture.[100]

II - 4.5 Stage 5. Monitoring

In this area, every institutional level can monitor over time the positive/negative outcomes, update objectives and adjust intentional actions (programmes, plans and projects). It is important to be aware that every decision or action preserves or modifies, improves or degrades the landscape's signs and meanings.[101]

II - 5 Transparent and ongoing plan and project

II - 5.1 Ongoing project

The methods already tried and tested for the built environment[102] result in iterative diagnosis/decision-making programmes which explain where and what to preserve and/or transform and identify the various types of intervention.[103]

In the various landscape systems (macro, meso, micro), each of the actors (at their level of influence) determines eventualities based on assessments of the status quo.[104] If the assessment is satisfactory, it will tend to favour conservation and, if unsatisfactory, it will tend to favour transformation.

The decisions made about the existing legacy generate processes with diverse levels of motivation and awareness (intentional and unintentional) and interact with the abiotic systems and the self-adjustments of the plant and animal communities.[105] Within the landscapes these processes reflect our identities, along with the crisis levels in our living environments. In this respect, the landscape provides a unique opportunity to adopt an integrated approach to interpreting and governing the material and immaterial interactions in our settlement systems.

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[99] CM/Rec(2008)3 II.2.2.
[100] See Volume II, Part II - 2; 3.
[101] See Volume II, Part II – 11.
[102] This is the rigorous iterative approach between knowledge and decisions, which makes it possible to determine within the strategy which processes should be promoted or restrained in order to achieve results which are compatible with the objectives.
See V. Di Battista, *Relazioni lineari e non lineari nel progetto di architettura* [Linear and non-linear relationships in architectural projects], in V. Di Battista, G. Giallocosta, G. Minati, *Architettura e approccio sistemico* [Architecture and a systemic approach], Polimetrica, Milan, 2006.
With regard to programming, refer to Italian standard UNI 10914/21; with regard to projects, refer to Italian standards UNI 11150 (1-2-3-4) and 11151.
[103] See Volume II, Part II - 4; 4.1/2/3/4.
[104] In this situation, comparison of the various assessments generates decisions which require mediation.
[105] Even where partially controlled using impact assessments (EIA, SEA, etc.).

This therefore requires:

II - 5.1.1 Enhancement of the quality and roles of

a) Institutions in the area of political responsibilities[106] and in the area of technical responsibilities (expert analysis phases, simulations and monitoring);
b) Beneficiaries/operators in the area of social responsibilities for interpreting values and requirements (social, economic, cultural, psychological etc.) and in the possible forms of self-organising modes of behaviour.[107]

II - 5.1.2 Developing a co-evolutive dialectic for both roles, which could:

a) Accumulate around the landscape all the different settlement-related policies (landscape-related, environmental and territorial);
b) Promote an open and ongoing project, with the aim of:

– interpreting the diagnoses (positive or negative),[108] simulating[109] choices and advising on alternative assumptions;
– regulating the life cycles (continuity and/or change) of the signs and meanings present in the
– landscape.[110]

Initially, the open and continuous project will be more tiresome and slow for everyone. But it is accompanied by a large number of collateral effects in terms of awareness-raising and training, which are less visible but vital all the same, as they can contribute to enhancing the quality of the pervasive cultural models, of the techniques used and of “tastes”. Therefore, these are indirect guidelines which are vital for improving unintentional processes involving our landscapes and living environments.

Conclusions

The landscape is an asset which is easy for everyone to perceive.

The evocative, symbolic and rich language used in respect of (all) our landscapes can give rise to processes that are more conscious of our interactions with “things”.

Within landscapes, numerous environmental, functional, economic, social and psychological interactions can be taken on board and explored by different operators and beneficiaries (intentional and unintentional).

The suggested procedures are intended to offer a “grammar” (interpretations, decisions and actions) permitting growing awareness and responsibility in such interactions.

Every strategy created and adapted on the basis of specific local features (expanse and nature of the territory, interaction with plans and policies already adopted, relativisation of the hierarchy of issues involved) can be initiated in a very “low-key” way and also diluted over time.

It is these distinctive strategies (for local domains, issues and opportunities) which systematically become "grammars" specific to the various landscapes.

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[106] Perceiving problems – see Volume II, Part I - 3.4.1: promoting participation – see Volume II, Part I - 3.2; B – 1.3, managing decisions – see Volume II, Part II - 3, etc.
[107] See Volume II, Part I - 3; 3.2.
[108] The operational diagnoses are regulated by the strategies, but allow retroactions. See too Volume II, Part II - 2.1/2.
[109] For example, the current rendering software programs make it possible to present environments, even those as complex as urban environments, from different viewpoints and at different levels of detail, and to simulate explorations by moving within the represented model.
[110] Assessing the likelihood of sustainability offers numerous opportunities for regulating and choosing among the various types of intervention.

Therefore, the "grammars" are (fairly expert) procedures which generate interactions and retroactions from interpretations, decisions, actions and assessments.

These iterative procedures, which must become very open and flexible, while also allowing internal structuring, could in time make possible, a gradual move towards forms of self-regulation which enhance awareness, responsibility and effectiveness. In other words, they could generate forms of self-governance and interactive democracy which also gradually reflect new beneficial relationships between territories, populations, novel methods and technical tools.

This open, continuous reflection process, enhancing the interactions between biotic, abiotic and man-made processes and between environmental, territorial – whether planning or landscape related - symbolic approaches, has already been initiated in different areas.[111]

Information[112] and more widespread awareness of the issues and the potential responses can, starting from the landscape (as stipulated in the Convention)[113], foster new forms of governance of our settlement systems which seem to be becoming increasingly necessary for managing our living environments.

[111] A. Magnaghi, *Il progetto locale. Verso la coscienza di luogo* [The local project. Towards the consciousness of place], Bollati Boringhieri, Turin, 2015.

[112] Communication. Many means of communication can be used to transmit information on the problems and results identified through monitoring, and to take decisions in a participatory manner with regard to the assumptions and options.

[113] "*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.*" CM/Rec(2008)3 II.2.3.A.

VOLUME II – APPENDICES: PROCEDURAL GUIDELINES

Introduction

Through direct experience in the field[114] and observation of local behaviours and regional policies, the author has come to realise that there is a lack of effective tools for monitoring the entire process, from analysis to project, starting from the more closely linked "grassroots" levels where the landscape is formed.[115]

For these reasons, I have deemed it appropriate to append the following procedures, drawing a distinction between that which concerns the analyses and that which is of relevance to the intervention strategies.

Part I – Analysis: visual perception and values

1 Visual perception

In order to define what we see in a landscape we use visibility analyses, whether indirect, as obtained from representations, or direct, as obtained in the field;[116] in order to determine our "perception", we consider how the landscape is valued.[117]

1.1 Indirect interpretations of visibility

Indirect interpretations of visibility are carried out based on maps, photographs and other representations, with analyses of indirect intervisibility. This form of interpretation selects observation points and identifies what can be seen from them, taking into account altitudes and land forms. Similarly, a digital terrain model (DTM)[118] can be used to calculate "lines of sight" by means of algorithms. In both cases, the viewshed is defined from the point being considered.

1.1.1 Intervisibility[119]

Theoretical intervisibility (excluding probable obstacles) can measure[120] the likelihood of the various parts of the land being seen while passing through the territory. In other words, it can measure the differences in theoretical visual sensitivity for the land's different viewsheds.

On a large scale these techniques make it possible to establish a basis for raising individuals' awareness and identifying landscape areas or territorial units (in terms of character, identity etc.) and promoting management strategies.

[114] See "Methodological references" note 5.
[115] This refers in particular to the experience the author gained through the Coordination meetings of the Network of the Observers of the Piedmont Landscape. This is a free association with a very diverse make-up, which has been operating since 2009 in various territories and maintains a variety of relations with the public and institutions. It pursues a number of policies, ranging from focused, uncompromising actions aimed at denouncing certain situations to clearly devised proposals of various types.
This experience shows how a lack of common procedures has aggravated the difficulties between experts and beneficiaries, producing unsatisfactory results.
[116] See I – 1.
[117] See I - 2; 3.
[118] Mathematical representation of altitudes, generally in the form of a rectangular grid.
[119] To cite a recent experience, as part of the 2015 Landscape Plan for the Piedmont Region a section of the area was prepared using different kinds of mapping: landscape types, intervisibility, linked cultural assets, etc., covering the whole Region (see http://www.regione.piemonte.it/territorio/pianifica/ppr.htm). See too I - 2.5.
[120] Standardised values can be obtained between 0 and 1, which can be classified into 5 intervals using the Natural Breaks method.

1.2 Three large-scale practical examples

1.2.1 Tuscany

The Territorial Policy Plan (landscape related) puts interpretation of intervisibility to three types of use: networks for dynamic use (travel by car),[121] slow use[122] and, lastly, enhanced use of assets protected by law.

The methodology applied measures how many times a part of the land is repeatedly observed from the various points in the networks, specifies the distances from the observer,[123] and considers the frequencies, the breadth of view and the angles between the lie of the land and the observer's eye so as to provide multi-criteria assessments of visibility and to produce maps offering an overview of landscape use.[124]

1.2.2 Catalonia

The Landscape Plan uses visual analysis based on both cartographic visibility studies (land configuration) and on how a community perceives the landscape.

The resulting interpretation, which is simplified and non- automatic, brings to the fore: structure and visual exposure,[125] a historical picture of the landscape,[126] observation points,[127] landscape paths[128] and visibility.[129]

1.2.3 Devon

This UK project looks at the “character” of the landscape in order to define territorial units. An initial interpretation is based on maps, documentation, land use, etc. During the second stage of analysis and awareness-raising, these characteristics are verified in the field. The third phase brings together the two previous interpretations.

The procedure determines the smallest units (of local identity), involves stakeholders and results in an online public workshop and a written profile setting out the strategies for managing the “character” and identity of each landscape area.

1.3 Visual perception, direct interpretation

This is a necessary exercise for refining and verifying the theoretical visibility obtained from the indirect interpretations. It identifies places, paths and points of differing landscape quality. It accordingly identifies and describes the landscapes visible from them: fields of view and viewsheds.[130]

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[121] The network includes roads offering panoramic views and/or passing via sites of landscape-related interest, panoramic viewpoints, historical centres and clusters, archaeological areas and UNESCO sites.
[122] This network includes CAI (Italian Alpine Club) paths, special walking routes (e.g. the Via Francigena), cycle paths and railway routes through interesting landscapes.
[123] This method identifies the following: “detailed view” (between 0 and 500 m), “structural view" (between 500 and 5,000 m), “background view” (between 5,000 and 12,000 m), “permanent visual horizons” (beyond 12,000 m).
[124] See notes 6 and 7.
[125] Landscapes are defined in terms of visual expanse, coherence, compartmentalisation of the territory, visual connectivity with other spaces. Visual units are also identified (generally concave areas) and their connections (with major or minor permeability). The visual structure highlights the most sensitive areas.
[126] Literary descriptions or pictures, photographs, etc. The more representative points and characteristics.
[127] Points and paths most frequently visited.
[128] Knowledge of the views from the most common pathways makes it possible to identify the areas of greater relevance or showing visual fragility.
[129] While indicating the observation points, mapping shows the areas of high, medium and low visibility, as well as the areas which are not visible.
[130] The field of view is an important parameter for indicating active sensitivity and can be measured using standard Natural Breaks values (see note 5).

1.3.1 Field of view

The field of view defines what is located in front of us, to the right and the left, and up and down, in respect of a directrix (optical cone).[131] This allows us to interpret distances, positions and conditions of movement. It is unidirectional and selects the views of interest from every point.

The field of view of a landscape from every point can be used to determine different levels of visual enjoyment using such parameters as:

– Expanse, which indicates the entire distance the view extends across the horizon (possibly measured in degrees);
– Depth, which is the distance from the most distant profile (in defined conditions of clarity and possibly measured in miles or kilometres, verified by mapping).

1.3.2 Viewsheds[132]

Viewsheds are places delimited by points with two-way intervisibility. They are useful for verifying different visibilities (i.e. the different probabilities of an area being observed). But landscapes are not qualitatively reciprocal (the landscape which I see from point A while looking at B is not equivalent to that which I see from point B while looking at A).

For this reason, in direct intervisibility it is useful to distinguish between active and passive visibility.

1.3.3 Active visibility[133]

The "active view" creates our interaction with things (the landscape).

1.3.4 Multiscalarity

An "active view" places us in a space defined by different dimensions, each contained inside the other. It can give access to landscapes of varying extents and can focus on sections of space placed in different positions and with varying characteristics.[134]

1.3.4.1 Background landscapes

They are determined by the last visible profile, which may coincide with the successive limits but may also, with high mountainous systems and good visibility, be beyond 150 km distant.

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[131] On the vertical and horizontal planes an optical cone has a generatrix at an angle of 30° to the main straight line directrix.

[132] "*In other words, the brain in its sensorial processing and image making must operate through a process of pattern recognition, for which, as G. Edelman* (in *Second Nature. Brain Science and Human Knowledge*, Yale University Press, 2007) *suggested, metaphors seem to be one of the ordering principles. Up/down, front/back, stasis/movement, all are metaphoric or existential categories emanating from the body and through which we read the events of the world*". H. F. Mallgrave, *Architecture and Embodiment. The Implications of the New Sciences and Humanities for Design*, Routledge, 2013.

[133] Active views. A view can be experienced directly by individuals with differing levels of expertise. In order to organise observation, the following points should be noted:
– The area concerned (which may or may not correspond to a landscape unit);
– Means of transport (by car, on foot etc.) and recording (photo, audio, video, notes, drawings, etc.);
– Identification points on a map indicating the path followed and the observation points;
– Identification of the observer;
– Direction of the fields of view, characteristics of and problems with the landscapes at different distances (see Volume II, Part I - 1.3.2);
– Various notes (e.g. season and time of observation, light conditions, clarity, etc.)

NB: If observation is being carried out by several individuals, the composition of the sample should be specified.

The notes can be used to record relevant additional conditions (sounds, odours, etc.), which may be positive or negative, permanent, occasional. Observations always require pictorial documents (photos, video, etc.) and can be supported by measurements (breadth and depth values), maps (on paper or digital) and relevant symbols, as well as by specific protocols where the intention is to be able to carry out comparison and monitoring operations.

[134] See Volume II, part 1 - 2.4.1.

1.3.4.2 Wide-area landscapes

They have very distant horizons (between 5 and 15 km away) and include extended territories which sometimes have heterogeneous characteristics. The public can recognise them as identity-related.[135]

1.3.4.3 Contextual landscapes

They allow visual recognition of the signs present, which diminishes with distance. The following distinctions are made: near (0.5-1.2 km); intermediate (1.2-2.5 km); distant (2.5-5 km).[136]

1.3.4.4 Near landscapes

These are landscapes which are very close and can be reached by touch (a few metres - see the concept of proxemics)[137] and those which offer the best interpretations of the details (0-0.5 km). They all influence the perception of the above landscapes. In each of these landscapes, the differing distances lead the observer to mark positions and distinguish signs using different definitions, features and visual characteristics.[138]

1.3.5 Visual perception, passive view

A “passive view” corresponds to the way a place looks when observed from outside it. Every system of signs can be seen (with different probabilities) only from certain positions. It will not be visible from others, as if it did not exist (with this in mind, for instance, more attention is given to street fronts than to inner courtyards, etc.). A passive view makes it possible to identify passive sensitivities. For example, a historical village may have street fronts which are particularly visible (and therefore need to be looked after with particular care and attention), or, conversely, a territory can include areas which are barely visible (where objects with a negative visual impact are concentrated).

1.4 Visual sensitivity

Greater visual sensitivity is associated with those places (elements, fronts or portions of them) which are easier to observe and more likely to be observed. This means places which are visible from more paths, for more time and by more people.

1.5 Using intervisibility

When interpreting the landscape, we take into account the interactions between the system being observed (distance, recognisability of configurations and profiles, etc.) and the observers (positions, means, probability, etc.). As a result of this interpretation, a first map (networks or sequences of points and paths) can be produced with areas of varying visual sensitivities, making it possible to verify with other individuals whether the visible elements indicated are significant in terms of the character and identity of the relevant territory.

In essence, this initial exploration[139] discovers and often denotes the territory and constitute an indispensible foundation for getting administrations and the public to start focusing attention, even if very slowly, but at an

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[135] The delimitation of a landscape differs depending on whether it is considered in terms of its visibility (see Volume II, Part I - 2.2) or of its perception as an identity-related area (see Volume II, Part I - 3.1.3).

[136] See Volume II, Part I - 2.1; 2.1.1/2/3.

[137] Proxemics studies behaviours in an unstable equilibrium between processes of affiliation (drawing closer) and processes of reservedness (distancing). In proxemics territory is a geographical area which assumes psychological implications and meanings in the course of communications; a distinction is drawn between public and home territory**.**
M. Argyle, *Bodily Communication*, Italian translation published by Zanichelli, Bologna, 1988.
R. B. Bechtel, *Environment and Behavior*, Sage, London, 1997.
P. A. Bell, T. C. Greene, J. D. Fisher, A. Baum, *Environmental psychology*, Harcourt Brace, New York, 1996.

[138] See Volume II, Part I - 2.4.1 a/b/c.

[139] During this phase indirect expert observations can be used.

increasing rate, on their own landscape and for establishing conservation or transformation programmes on this basis.

2 Complex perception[140]

2.1 Recognition

Orientational recognition is the first approach, which processes information about the observer's position and movement. It involves limbic functions which trigger instinctive reactions and emotive assessments and activate the senses of safety or fear, well-being and pleasure or discomfort. It can derive from the roles of key landmarks and dominant elements[141] and be modified by distances.[142]

2.1.1 Primary non-intentional and involuntary recognition

This type of recognition arises from emotive interactions which maintain unchanged the shared meanings linked to recognition (the names of "things"), but assign to them adjectives and values which have variable meanings attributed by the observers.

2.1.2 Comparative recognition

This type of recognition compares systems of signs; it is both voluntary and involuntary, and may depend on the reasons for observation, on memory and on the cultural models applied.

2.1.3 Intentional recognition

This type of recognition is voluntary and conscious. It generally uses highly structured cultural models (scientific, philosophical, religious, etc.) and functions through selective observations geared towards gleaning specific knowledge.[143]

2.2 Visual delimitation of boundaries

This can be the first record of an area comprising active views (fields of view and viewsheds).

Areas under observation often do not have clear-cut boundaries; they may change as the observer changes position.[144] Furthermore, their borders are characterised by overlaps, permeability and attributes structured by connections (more or less perceptible) with nearby places (sometimes distinct from direct visual perceptions) and by social perceptions.

2.3 Information material

Every landscape unit, however defined (which may, for convenience's sake, coincide with administratively delimited areas), is concerned by a huge quantity of information. Nevertheless, a large proportion of this information is very often scarcely known and used.

Every landscape study necessitates information. This information can be found at general levels (geographical, historical, anthropological, etc.) and also at very specific levels (e.g. pedagogical, typological, repositories of local material culture: thematic collections, finds, various documents, targeted interviews, etc.).

[140] See I - 2; 3.
[141] See Volume II, Part I - 2.4.1.
[142] See Volume II, Part I - 1.3.4.1/2/3/4.
[143] See Volume II, Part I - 3.3.
[144] Boundary delimitation may be open or closed, depending on the types of movement involved, such as linear or circular.

The task of collecting and organising the material can be carried out and hosted by local libraries, schools, etc. and can help with training and awareness-raising[145] within the local community concerning the characteristics and issues of its own territory.

2.3.1 Available documentation

This includes urban planning documents (general and sector-specific), studies and reports (including grey literature produced by institutions, research centres, universities, etc.), statistics, basic and thematic maps, archives, descriptions, literature, consultable sources, etc.

It may be useful to start organising a cartographic database (with maps, historical property registers, surveys, etc.) and a bibliographical database (history, climate, geology, etc.) including titles and sources of general and specific findings concerning the observation area. It is also useful to have a historical and current picture repository for pictorial representations, photographic documentation, videos, film clips, etc.

2.4 Identification, qualitative sensitivity

The "character" of a landscape is due to dominant elements/key landmarks and to the physical presence of the elements[146] which identify it.[147]

2.4.1 Visual characteristics[148]

Every view provides a whole host of information: positions (front, side, above, below, alignments, etc.), dimensions (large, small, etc.), distances (near, far, etc.), signs (shapes, figures, masses, volumes, areas, profiles, lines, points, etc.), elements and materials (soils: rock, earth, sand, gravel, etc.; water: still, slow- and rapid-moving, steam, ice, etc.; trees, bushes, meadows, etc.; roads, buildings, paths, facilities, etc.; everything with "textures", "grains", surface colours, etc.), light conditions (direction, intensity, reflections, etc.) and so on.

The direct visual perception of the landscape[149] depends on the openings/barriers (compact, semi-transparent, etc.) which permit and structure the view from a point or a path.

This brings together information,[150] pinpoints interpretations relevant to certain points or paths, allows areas with different sensitivities to be defined[151] (which can then be associated with beneficial, semantic and aesthetic values of different kinds)[152] and highlights:

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[145] Recommendation CM/Rec(2014) 8 on promoting landscape awareness through education.
[146] See Volume II, Part I - 2.4.1 c.
[147] See Volume II, Part I - 2.1.
[148] K. Lynch, *The Image of the City*, Harvard University Press, Cambridge, 1960. See note 28.
G. Cullen, *The architectural press*, London, 1961. See too I - 2.4.1.
I. D. Bishop, E. Lange, *Visualization in landscape and environmental planning*, Taylor & Francis, New York, 2005.
E.H. Gombrich, *The Visual Image: its Place in Communication*, in *The Image and the Eye*, Italian edition, Turin, 1985.
E. Fiorani, *Grammatica della comunicazione* [Grammar of communication], Lupetti, Milan, 1998.
R. Arnheim, *Art and Visual Perception*, University of California Press, Berkeley, 1954.
[149] CM/Rec(2008)3 I.1.2
[150] Gestalt psychology:
1) Law of proximity: elements which are in "close proximity" are perceived and seen as a single figure;
2) Law of similarity: elements which are "similar" to each other (in terms of shape, colour, etc.) are perceived and seen as a single figure;
3) Law of common fate: elements with the same characteristics in terms of direction, movement, rhythm (common fate) are perceived and seen as a single figure;
4) Law of closure: elements which tend to form whole recognisable shapes are perceived as figures (the brain reconstructs the missing parts by memory);
5) Law of continuity: elements placed one after the other are integrated into forms based on their continuity;
6) Law of good gestalt: elements having the simplest forms (the most meaningful), and therefore the easiest to recognise, tend to be perceived as a single figure, with the others as a background;
7) Law of past experience: the elements which are usually associated with each other in our past experience tend to be grouped together as figures.

2.4.1 a Dominant characteristics and key landmarks[153]

Components with a strong visual "intensity" (major backdrops, contours of the land, prominences and landmarks) which assume functions of providing direction, polarity and/or identity.

2.4.1 b Prevalent features

These are components with the most widespread layouts, textures, materials, colours, etc. in terms of continuity and homogeneity. They perform important denotative functions (wild, cultivated, urban landscapes, etc.).

2.4.1 c Elements

These are the distinct "objects" which define dominant characteristics and prevalent features and assume diverse combinations for every type of landscape. They necessitate different analytical and sub-divided descriptions for every group of similar elements. All these factors facilitate the interpretation of the landscape's structures.[154]

2.4.2 Temporal characteristics[155]

Every landscape includes physical elements with varying durations over time (life cycles). The interpretation of the related factors and the monitoring of developments (if necessary, mapping of timespans is feasible) are particularly important because they make possible operational strategies (assessments, projects and updates). In every landscape the various groups of components (abiotic, biotic, man-made) have different time cycles.

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[151] See Volume II, Part 1 - 1.4.

[152] See Volume II, Part I – 3.

[153] The key landmarks are guiding components, visual stimuli at various distances, which provide basic information for establishing the position and direction of movement. Since they permit adaptation with a view to achieving greater reliability, resulting in fewer problems (choice of paths, directions, stationary points, etc.), they are easier to memorise (adaptation of the actions must distinguish the distances of elements from which we receive information. This explains the different meanings and imbrications of the distance relationships).

One important dominant contextual element is always the orographical structure of the land (flat, undulating, steep, the structures of the ridges, aclivities, aspects, etc.), the presence of bodies of water or large built-up areas.

[154]The first and best known is that proposed by K. Lynch, who makes a distinction in the case of large-scale urban landscapes between: paths, edges, districts, nodes and landmarks (*inserted by the author).

Paths are the areas where the observer moves around (customarily, occasionally or potentially.)* They are streets, walkways, canals, railways, etc. People observe the landscape while moving within it. The landscape's elements are arranged and linked along the paths.

Edges are linear elements which define boundaries: shores, railway embankments, walls, ridges, etc. Edges separate different physical components (water, land)* or form vertical closures (constructed or green) along a street.

Districts (and contextual landscapes)* are extensions which the observer moves within, enters into or departs from. They are recognisable from a few easily identifiable characteristics (dominant and prevalent elements).* Urban areas are predominantly identifiable from the inside.

Nodes are the focal points towards and away from which observers are moving. They are accessible and are strategic points of a city or a territory. They may be points where paths cross or converge between different contexts or districts. But they are also concentrations of activity, places of denser use or high-profile places (open or constructed elements),* playing a dominant role.

Key landmarks are external, high-profile point references (dominant).* They are defined as such when selected from among other elements.

K. Lynch, op. cit. note 24.

[155] "*Examination of their developmental processes and highlighting the past, present and foreseeable time-related forces due to either human or natural factors and the possible pressures and risks facing landscapes.*" CM/Rec(2008)3 II.2.1. See too I - 2.4.2.

2.4.2 a Time cycles for abiotic components[156]

The tectonic conditions of territories reveal the seismic and orogenic activities that have taken place over a long period. Lithological systems show erosion processes of varying duration and frequency. Climate conditions and hydrogeological phenomena follow periodic cycles with variable phenomena and interdependencies. Land, water and the atmosphere reveal major local forms of fragility (landslides, floods, pollution, etc.).

2.4.2 b Time cycles for biotic components

Flora and fauna have diverse open ecosystems involving exchanges of materials and energy. The life cycles are extremely diverse (ranging from hours to centuries), as are the reproductive rates and intensity. The various existences are interdependent[157] and are affected by anthropic actions. They may reveal degenerative processes going as far as extinction.

It is always of paramount importance to observe the ecosystems, a particularly vital task in natural and agricultural areas.[158]

2.4.2 c Time cycles for man-made components

Land uses and human artefacts bring with them components corresponding to materials, signs, meanings and values of varying durations: short-term (seasonal in agriculture), medium-term (buildings) and long-term (routes, sub-divisions of land, particular buildings). The dating of these components reflects the social systems and cultures (material and immaterial) which have produced them.

These life cycles depend on the decay of the various materials and, above all, on the human uses, which vary over time and according to the different methods employed.[159]

3 Assessment and perception (individual and social)[160]

3.1 Assessment

This involves assigning adjectives which supplement identification.[161]

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[156]L. Scesi, M. Papini, P. Gattinoni, *Fenomeni di erosione superficiale dei versanti in Geologia Applicata* [Occurrences of superficial erosion of the slopes in Applied Geology], Casa Editrice Ambrosiana, Milan, February 2003.
M. J. Selby, *Earth's Changing Surface*, Oxford University Press, 1985.
R. Chorley, S. Schumm, D. Sugden, *Geomorphology*, Edition Methuen, 1984.
A. E. Scheidegger, *Morphotectonics*, Springer-Verlag, Berlin 2004.
G. B. Barry, R. J. Chorley, *Atmosphere, Weather and Climate* (7th ed.), Routledge, London, 1998.
F. Elías, F. Castellvi, *Agrometeorología* [Agrometeorology], Mundi-Prensa, Madrid, 1996.
G. Guyot, *Climatologie de l'environnement. Cours et exercices corrigés* [Climatology of the environment. Lessons and corrected exercises], Dunod, Paris, 1999.
G.B. Castiglioni, *Geomorfologia* [Geomorphology], Utet, 1982.
D. Persicani, *Elementi di Scienza del Suolo* [Elements of soil science], CEA, 1989.
[157] Organisms: autotrophs (green plants and some bacteria) which produce organic substances from inorganic substances; heterotrophic consumers (animals, parasitic and saprophytic plants) which feed on other organisms or organic substances produced by them; heterotrophic decomposers (bacteria, fungi, other saprobic organisms) which degrade organic molecules and release simpler substances used by producers.
[158] N. J. Rosenberg, B. L. Blad, S.B. Verma, *Microclimate. The biological environment*, John Wiley & Sons, New York, 1983.
A.H. Strahler, *Physical Geography* (3rd ed.), Wiley, 1997.
R. Bras, *Hydrology, An introduction to hydrologic science*, Wesley Pub., 1990.
Cunningham Saigo, *Environmental Science: A Global Concern*, McGraw Hill, 2003.
J. Alcock, *Animal Behavior*, Sinauer.
[159] B. Lepetit, D. Pumain, *Temporalités urbaines* [Urban timescales], Anthropos, Paris, 1993.
L. Balbo (editor), *I tempi di vita* [Lifetimes], Feltrinelli Editore, January 1991.
S. Bonfiglioli (editor), *Il Tempo nello spazio* [Time in space], Franco Angeli, 1990.
[160] See I - 3.2/2/5/6.
[161] CM/Rec(2008)3 II.2.1.b.

3.1.1 General overview

Every time a landscape is observed, a voluntary and/or involuntary process of assigning meanings and forming judgments takes place. The assessment process is conscious to varying degrees, but it is at the same time very important as it attributes values, and structures the entire perception. Assessments (emotive and/or reflective) recognise positive or negative conditions. They result from the dominant cultural models, motivations, tastes, etc. inherent in the observer systems.

The place being observed, in turn, has an influence on the observer in defining the field of observation (viewing direction and technique, delimitation of boundaries, dominant features, most relevant interpretations, etc.) and suggests an initial assignment of common values.

3.1.2 Basic common values

In the case of landscapes the emotive impact triggers an intuitive appreciation, which comes to the fore in the different types of values assigned by individuals and communities.
Coherent interactions and explicit assignments contribute to the emergence of unambiguous and clear denotations of the entire system (agricultural, urban, marine, limnic, etc.). On the other hand, incoherent and unclear interactions produce denotations which are vague and uncertain, often causing discomfort (peri-urban landscapes).

3.1.2.1 Positive views

The following views are appreciated: natural landscapes (rated more highly than urban landscapes, perhaps because they evoke ancestral relations with nature), expansive and deep views from a height (they evoke feelings of control and possession of extensive territories), varied views (expanses of water which reflect the light of the sky, hilly landscapes with different features, etc.).[162] Monotonous, mundane views arouse scant interest, or indifference.

3.1.2.2 Negative views[163]

Dark, menacing places, which arouse a sense of the unknown and of risk, are regarded as unpleasant. Places which are sullied evoke a lack of care, decline, abandonment and insecurity. The assignment of negative values to some elements and to their meanings is also a result of a lack of visual coherence between the various components present in the landscape system's setting.[164]

The levels of visual incoherence depend on the visibility and significance (dimension, distance) of the discordant element in this context.[165] Where elements produce contrasting interactions with the dominant meaning in a given context, we regard this as incoherent (as coherence is what we are expecting). But the discordance caused is not always negative. A strong, contradictory sign in a mundane context can make it more meaningful and interesting. The sense of annoyance, or possibly pleasure, derived from incoherence originates from different individual interpretations, but can bring with it possibilities of finding a common ground (positive or negative), which need to be considered as the conservation or transformation processes affecting the landscape depend on them, in every place and on every scale.

[162] See Volume II, Part I - 2.4.1.
[163] See I - 3.5.1.
[164] For example, a refinery located on a coast is a sign and a meaning creating disorder in the marine landscape. When I enter its industrial landscape, the latter assumes its own coherence and arouses different reactions in me.
[165] A dead tree among blossoming trees and a very small building among skyscrapers are discordant features, yet in keeping with the contexts. On the other hand, a shed with an industrial denotation in an agricultural context seems out of place and incompatible. A waste disposal facility is more out of place in a prestigious historical centre than in an abandoned area.

3.1.3 Complementary values

These are assessments (positive or negative) which are additional to the basic assessments.[166] They depend on individual and/or social factors, as well as on psychological and/or phenomenal factors.[167] These values (individual and social) vary considerably and interact with each other. Their presence, intensity and combinations often determine the "spirit" of places.[168]

3.1.3.1 Emotional values

These are assigned to places where we live and to those relating to family memories, work and important events. They lead to self-recognition and the sense of identity. They also reinforce symbolic, historical and other values. They are interpreted from shared local points of recognition through surveys, interviews, etc.

3.1.3.2 Associative values

They consist in the assignment of adjectives to the landscape (on an individual or group basis) which serve as a reminder of images (e.g. of places, "resembles Provence", etc.), situations (places associated with everyday events, holidays, welcomes, dangers, etc.) and references (pictorial, historical, literary, religious, military, etc.).

3.1.3.3 Documentary values

All man-made elements and signs are material cultural assets. Any transformation entails losses of the information capable of providing knowledge. They are assets which can assume a rare documentary value (if one bears in mind archaeological assets), but are valuable only if recognised as such. If that is not the case, they are at risk of destruction. Therefore, these are values which need to be managed carefully.[169] The landscape accumulates material cultural components which only acquire value over time.[170]

3.1.3.4 Long-term values

Signs which are more long-lasting acquire value because they confirm and pass on our sense of recognition and our identity. Immobilism over time becomes a value which favours the conservation and care of existing elements, but also generates wariness in respect of new and diverse signs and meanings[171].

3.1.3.5 Economic values

The landscape is also always a system of economic assets with values which depend on the opportunities for and/or limits on using the land (mineral resources, possibility of growing crops, urbanised areas, etc.).

Values of and trends in respect of real estate (land, buildings, etc.) depend on the market and the facilities and services available and reflect expectations and variations triggered by rules and regulations[172] and their political management.

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[166] See Volume II, Part I - 3.1.2.
[167] These values are listed in no particular order, as their relevance differs on a case-by-case basis.
[168] C. Norberg-Shultz, *Genius Loci*, Rizzoli International Publications, 1979.
[169] H. De Varine, *Radici del futuro. Il patrimonio culturale al servizio dello sviluppo locale* [Roots of the future. Cultural heritage at the service of local development].
[170] See Volume II, Part I - 3.1.3.4/6/10.
[171] In the event of a change in identity conditions and the requirements for conveying a different, more valued social status (e.g. a switch from agricultural work to industry or the services sector), the signs and meanings of the previous condition become non-values and give rise to transformational processes (see Volume II, Part I - 3.1.3.9). See too Volume II, Part I - 3.1.3.3/10.
[172]All the legislation relating to and governing the rights and duties pertaining to the ownership of land and connected assets.

Economic values are significant indicators of the processes operating within a territory.[173] A study of locational changes and trends in real estate values over time can explain many of the dynamic processes affecting landscapes.

3.1.3.6 Aesthetic values[174]

Landscapes, like the systems of signs corresponding to their pictorial representations, can arouse emotions in us in the same way as sounds (music) and words (poetry). Landscapes can give rise to harmonious, coherent and moving combinations of configurations, materials and colours,[175] as well as of extraordinary human abilities. Aesthetic values (the "beautiful" and the "ugly") can also derive from translations of other heterogeneous values. Something which appears healthy, in good condition and in "order" gives us pleasure and becomes "beautiful", whereas something which is degraded, run down, or in ruins, causes us concern, does not give us pleasure and becomes "ugly".

The assessments which can be applied to the landscape[176] have their origin in the emotive, cognitive/cultural, personal or collective filters which we use to identify the differing degrees of pleasure we gain from our surroundings.

Aesthetic values are also affected by:

– iconic cultures (historical and modern), a broad range of scenic languages that we appreciate based on elitist or common models of taste,[177] which frequently vary in terms of their duration, distribution and intensity;[178]
– material cultures which structure the configurations of man-made landscapes with knowledge, intentions and capabilities, in intentional and random combinations and with varying degrees of coherence, which can be interpreted more easily when laid down by history.

3.1.3.7 Naturalist values[179]

Such values are assigned to wilderness and unspoilt landscapes (desert, volcanic, alpine, river, marine, forest and similar areas), but also to protected natural areas (parks, etc.), agricultural landscapes and the natural characteristics of man-made landscapes (lake shores, marine coastlines, etc.) or parts of urban landscapes (parks, gardens, etc.).

Naturalist values derive from the characteristics (and also the rarity) of abiotic systems (rocks, earth, water etc.) and biotic systems, and in particular from plant ecosystems and the presence of wildlife.

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[173] R. Roscelli (editor), *Misurare l'incertezza* [Measuring uncertainty], Celid, Turin, 2005.
J. Jacobs, *The Economy of Cities*, Random House, 1969.

[174] Reference to aesthetics in relation to the landscape (which started with Baumgarten in his book *Aesthetica* – 1750 – which defines it as the "science of sensible knowledge – cognitio inferior (inferior cognition) – which is achieved through sensation") can nowadays bring to mind either the world's tendency to transform itself into art, as suggested by W. Morris (see note 45), or E. Garroni's definition of aesthetics as "looking through" something, borrowing from M. Heiddeger and L. J. Wittgenstein.

[175] "*The waves of the sea, the little ripples on the shore, the sweeping curve of the sandy bay between the headlands, the outline of the hills, the shape of the clouds, all these are so many riddles of form, so many problems of morphology …*". R. Thom, *Structural Stability and Morphogenesis*, W.A. Benjamin, Inc., 1975.

[176] "*And first I must ask you to extend the word 'art' beyond those matters which are consciously works of art, to take in not only painting and sculpture, and architecture, but the shapes and colours of all household goods, nay, even the arrangement of the fields for tillage and pasture, the management of towns and of our highways of all kinds; in a word, to extend it to the aspect of the externals of our life …*". W. Morris, *Art under plutocracy*, 1883.

[177] The "pervasive taste" of the common cultural model (the sense of "propriety" of public places) is the filter we use to invest emotions with personal and/or socially shared values or non-values.

[178] P. Klee, *Writings on Form and Design Theory*, 1921-1931. Christof Hertel: "*Klee spoke to us about expressive values and told us that things must have form and meaning and that the image's function is to express something."*

[179] They include both the long-standing tradition of the artificial landscape made up of gardens, which made a return during the Renaissance as a geometric structure, and then in the 19th century with a romantic flavour, and the ecological culture prevalent today, which affirms the value of the wilderness. This is attracting particular scientific and political interest (sustainable development), but is also seen as a consumer good for tourism and as a concept to replace the previous "naturalist" character of the agricultural landscape. It should be noted to what extent the concept of landscape is strongly linked to naturalist values, as compared, for example, with urban landscapes.

3.1.3.8 Symbolic values[180]

All landscapes have strong symbolic values: the relationship between man and nature, dwelling places, work etc. The landscape, as a polysemous outcome of material and immaterial cultures of the past and the present, always conveys positive and negative metaphors[181] for belonging, the community and identity. They may be consolidated or contingent,[182] conscious (places relating to everyday life, places of worship, power, suffering, sports fanaticism, etc.) or unconscious (values of non-institutional social relations, shared to differing degrees, crowd effects: places for meeting and getting together with people, but also those associated with unpleasant experiences, abandonment and the effect of broken windows[183] etc.).[184]

Awareness and consideration of local symbolic values (to be obtained through participation in assessments) is of paramount importance in providing guidance for projects, including in terms of their detailed definition. [185]

3.1.3.9 Social values

Landscapes reflect social differences and levels of well-being or malaise across the whole planet, in countries, regions, areas, villages or districts. Areas with high and/or low population concentrations generate landscapes which are run down due to overpopulation or abandonment. The contrasting images of opulent areas and shantytowns are becoming strong social symbols. These imbalances in terms of dwellings, even if played down, occur in every territory and are evident in the care or neglect, affection or lack of affection shown regarding such places, which often evolves into social well-being or malaise. For these reasons, people's perception of their own landscapes and living environments interacts with the forms of democracy and feeds into collective demands for the assessment and governance of landscapes, which set aside the now often obsolete models, in order to seek more suitable responses to territories' emotive and symbolic values, and not just their utilitarian values, in a way that is still confused but is growing in importance.

3.1.3.10 Historical values

These values are assigned to recognised components from the past, whose current meanings are also very different to their original meanings (archaeological sites, castles, etc.).[186] These are identity anchors essential to each settlement system. Confirmation of their social value over time is conducive to the preservation of the corresponding signs.[187]

3.2 Public perception[188]

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[180] " *…the content of the collective unconscious is made up essentially of 'archetypes'. The concept of the archetype, which is an indispensable correlate to the idea of the collective unconscious, indicates the existence of definite forms in the psyche which seem to be present always and everywhere."* C.G. Jung, *Man and His Symbols* (Der Mensch und seine Symbole, 1964, with Joseph L. Henderson, Marie-Louise von Franz, Aniela Jaffé and Jolande Jacobi), edited by John Freeman.

[181] P. Ricœur, *La sfida semiologica* [Semiological challenge], Armando, Rome, 2006.

[182] U. Galimberti, *La terra senza il male. Jung. Dall'inconscio al simbolo* [Land without evil. Jung. From the Unconscious to the Symbol], Feltrinelli, Milan, 1984.

[183] According to this theory (1962) disrepair, such as a broken window, generates non-values, which can give rise to emulation, causing someone else to break or neglect other things, thereby triggering potential spirals of urban and social decay.
K. Keizer, S. Lindenberg, L. Steg, *The spreading of disorder* in *Science*, vol. 322, no. 5908, December 2008.

[184] See Volume II, Part II – 1.1.

[185] See Volume II, Part I – 3.3.1.

[186] See Volume II, Part II – 8.

[187] "*The concept of 'operating history' applied to the territory (Muratori, 1967) in affirming consiquentiality between territorial functions and the morphotypological development of settlements (Cataldi, 1977) poses a risk of generating deterministic interpretations …*". A. Magnaghi, *Il progetto locale. Verso la coscienza di luogo* [The local project. Towards the consciousness of place], Bollati Boringhieri, Turin, 2015. See too Volume II, Part I – 3.1.3.6/8.

[188] European Landscape Convention, Chap. 1, Art. 1 a; c.

This is a fundamental factor, interdependent on every action carried out on the landscape. It necessitates consideration of the conditions of visual perception,[189] those of recognition[190] and, lastly, those of assessment.[191]
Public involvement can be achieved in various ways, depending on a host of factors: operators, skills, resources and documentation available, sizes and characteristics of the population, etc.

The initial visibility interpretations (and places of interest) allow the public to be involved in numerous ways, in particular through visual appreciation and a survey or interview. The first can be obtained through direct visits and gathering of appropriate photographic images (representative of the place's diversity and taken according to appropriate standards) to be classified and assessed (including the use of scoring). The second (carried out separately or in parallel) comprises questionnaires and/or open interviews.[192] Both these interpretations make it possible to draw up maps (showing places and paths of major value and/or critical significance) in order to initiate attention processes. The above stages can be prioritised by considering the values (positive and negative) at stake.[193]

In essence, this is about activating forms of awareness-raising, using suitable methods on a case-by-case basis, in order to improve the perception and increase, broaden and maintain the public and administrative attention focusing on the landscape.

To this end, it is particularly important to have stakeholders and those actively involved in this task available on site. Their identification, training and involvement is a strategic objective which should be envisaged.

It is important to note that these interpretations do not have to be complete, perfect and in-depth. Their role is rather to launch a process which can be improved and continued over time.

3.3 The public and experts

It falls to the “experts” and stakeholders to raise awareness among and involve schools and local associations via interpretations and community ("parish") maps, which indicate values and non-values perceived across the territory.[194]

These maps (showing places, assessments and possible actions) are presented at public meetings (beneficiaries/operators) and their scope is extended to include issues of particular local attention (private utilitarian enjoyment, public services, etc.).

3.3.1 Landscape laboratories

Laboratories are conducted with a significant sample of local people (also those with opinions and expectations opposed to the development of the territory), which cooperates with the experts (having technical knowledge of the place) to explain the local character of the landscape in relation to how it is used and its meanings,[195] as interpreted by the public.

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[189] See Volume II, Part I – 1.
[190] See Volume II, Part I – 2.
[191] See Volume II, Part I – 3.
[192] The first method brings to the fore categories and trends, while the second explains the reasons for appreciation.
[193] See Volume II, Part I – 3.1.2/3.
[194] See Volume II, Part 3.4.1.
[195]For example, the “Methodological guide to landscape studies” drawn up in Catalonia provides for a "participation plan” which allows the public to join in technical activities and initiates consultations in order to find out about the public’s aspirations for the landscape, with the aim of “*increasing the transparency of the Administration’s activities in respect of the landscape, making the project more efficient by involving the stakeholders from the start, obtaining valuable information reported by citizens about the landscape, which might not otherwise be taken into account, giving citizens a say in decisions concerning the landscapes which affect them*”.
The procedures provide for the establishment of stakeholder groups (local authorities, non-governmental associations, scientific groups, etc.), which can contribute to the whole range of tasks, and opinion groups (residents, visitors) with particular local interests. The Plan provides for ongoing interchanges of information and feedback between technical staff and ordinary citizens, taking into account the main consensus views of the public.

Maps and images are conducive to the exchange of information.

3.4 Interpretation of utilitarian enjoyment

This is important so as to interpret the interactions with the landscape and involve the operators concerned. It is possible to utilise reports linked to Territorial Plans, the targeted analyses available and appropriate working meetings.

3.4.1 *SWOT* analyses *(Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, Threats)*[196]

These analyses are highly flexible assessment tools which can be used at different times and in different ways.[197] They can be carried out with stakeholders, associations, citizens' groups, etc. and are aimed at gathering information about current strengths and weakness, as well as about future opportunities and threats.[198] The results obtained from SWOT analyses can indicate: problems, conditions, objectives and priorities, to be juxtaposed with the mapping of municipalities with a view to devising strategies.

3.4.2 Interpretation of use of public goods (*POE – Post-Occupancy Evaluation*)

This provides an assessment of the state and operation of public heritage assets (areas, roads, installations, buildings, etc.). It offers a condensed interpretation of the technical conditions[199] and an assessment of the beneficiaries' opinions (e.g. in the case of a school, this means pupils, parents and all the staff, both teaching and non-teaching). This interpretation is useful for considering the needs and opportunities for different types of intervention (maintenance, upgrading, etc.) in order to assess programming priorities.

NB: A similar interpretation could also be recommended for private assets, starting with premises open to the public and areas or frontages located in public spaces of particular importance.[200]

4 Conclusions

The interpretation and assessment of the landscape are a prerequisite for any potential programme or strategy. As indicated in II-4 and II–5 under "Methodological references", the above operational guidelines take on significance where the analyses (gradually) foster awareness-raising and public involvement (perceptions). The three phases under consideration (visual perceptions, complex perceptions and assessments) can be activated both in series and in parallel, as required, with a view to devising subsequent intervention strategies.

Part II – Intervention strategies

In the case of landscapes, analysis guides the project, which orientates the analysis, with every stage requiring the use of specific methodologies. Taking into account the potential and the limits already considered in part II under “Methodological references”, the “Procedural guidelines” which follow adopt general concepts and methodologies which can be used for any type of landscape, on any scale and with different forms of participation.

[196] SWOT analyses have been used for some time for assessing businesses and have more recently been applied to evaluate the territory. In our case, they can also be used to produce summary or analytical interpretations (for each of the values being examined). Hill, T. & R. Westbrook, *SWOT Analysis: It’s Time for a Product Recall*, Long Range Planning, 1997.
[197] See Volume II, Part I – 3.2/3; 3.3.1; 3.4.
[198] Different periods of time can be considered depending on the issues. 10-year forecasts are generally used for territories.
[199] Different countries use different methods of interpretation for assessing the technical conditions of buildings.
[200] See I - 3.5/6.

They are open indications which can be applied separately or together, in series or in parallel, during a single period of time or every now and then, etc.[201] They are likewise operational strategies and practices which can be adapted to every country and/or territory, and whatever the relevant legal framework.[202]

1 Strategy by stages. General overview

1.1 Hermeneutic

A landscape project (preparation of actions) is always a project involving what already exists.[203] As such it has to be interpreted. The hermeneutic of a landscape involves a complex deciphering process. It must bring together territorial, urbanistic and environmental analyses and refer to anthropological, sociological, and social and environmental psychology analyses, with the aim of reconnecting places and populations, bringing to the fore the "social detachment" which gives rise to negative forms of behaviour and increasing awareness of the close, vital ties which exist with places.

Nowadays, there are some initial operational indicators that are of interest here,[204] but they represent focuses and approaches which still require research and sharing.

1.1.1 Delimitation

The first interpretation determines the area of interest. This task can take into account visually delimited zones,[205] landscape areas,[206] administrative boundaries and shared identity-related perceptions.[207]

1.2 Training

Caring for the landscape can pervade the entire training process, as called for by the Convention.[208] Mention can be made of the inadequate nature of many of the pedagogic methods currently used,[209] in particular those based on approaches and techniques relating to our settlement system (environment, territory and landscape). Specialisation and refresher courses for public authorities' technical staff and for professionals are therefore useful.

1.3 Participation

Public participation,[210] starting from "perception", is a complex process, which is different every time[211] and relates to a delimited area.[212] The presence of local observers and the support provided by university research and pedagogic activities in the field have an important role here. Participation may be increased through the following actions:[213]

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[201] It is suggested that use be made of those which can be applied with a strong likelihood of success (it is pointless bothering with unmanageable experiences). The results achieved then suggest extensions and more in-depth analyses.

[202] The European Landscape Convention (Chapter1 and Articles 1; 4; 5 and 9) points out the advisability of also updating laws and regulations which must take into account landscape-related processes.

[203] See part II of the "Methodological references".

[204] A. Magnaghi, op. cit. note 53.

[205] See Volume II, Part I - 2.2.

[206] As defined by landscape plans, generally based on indirect methods.

[207] See Volume II, Part I - 3.2/4.

[208] See note 23.

[209] E. Morin, *Seven complex lessons in education for the future*, UNESCO, 1999.

[210] "*It implies recognition of the rights and responsibilities of populations to play an active role in the processes of acquiring knowledge, taking decisions and managing the quality of the places where they live.*" CM/Rec(2008)3 I.2

[211] See Volume II, Part I - 3.2.

[212] In small villages, where active associations cooperate with the authorities, the opportunities to participate in the entire process are greater, but depend to a large extent on the "powers" being available. In medium-sized and large centres bodies representing beneficial interests and associations which are better organised seem to predominate. See too Volume II, Part 2 - 1.1.1.

[213] Participation in the stages of analysing and assessing the maps and subsequent strategies may: focus policies (intentional) through better informed management, launch actions, improve behaviours (unintentional) and allow continuous interpretation of the processes under way.

1.3.1 Awareness-raising

With groups active on the ground, this is a prerequisite for increasing the attention paid to and interest in landscape issues. It is a stage which admits of many participants and multiple approaches (local observers, schools which involve parents, various events presenting the landscape as a resource and/or opportunity). This stage can be initiated by local observers and "experts".[214]

1.3.2 Implementation

To launch this process it is advisable to start from activities for gathering knowledge about the territory, which can be followed by assessments and documents, for instance community maps, collection and collation of documentation, public presentations, etc. School pupils and senior citizens are generally the groups most readily available. The "experts" and observers can promote and support implementation.[215]

1.3.3 Development

This involves more in-depth study and an extension of the approach to include the various issues present in the territory which have an impact on the landscape (state and use of public areas, problems with production activities, private behaviour, etc.). SWOT analysis[216] is a useful tool for this activity (on a general basis, first, and then by theme), which includes stakeholders and permits the active participation of public authorities.[217]

1.3.4 Routine management

This consists in updating knowledge and documentation and carrying out SWOT analyses at regular intervals (every 1 to 2 years) so as to interpret positive and negative transformations and understand the reasons for them.

2 Diagnostic practices

The awareness-raising and assessment stages provide initial indications for considering other options, identifying priorities and devising operational strategies. The first stage of such operational development may require further studies[218] and sectoral analyses: territorial, environmental, technical, economic, etc., that is to say the diagnostic practices necessary to focus on the issues and opportunities.

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[214] See Volume II, Part 1 - 3.3.

[215] See Volume II, Part I - 3.3; 3.3.1.

[216] SWOT analyses can be used to interpret the displacement across the territory of concentrations/dispersions of positive and negative assessments arising from different interpretations (the following scores can be used: 5 and 4 positive; 3 immaterial; 2 and 1 negative).

[217] See Volume II, Part I - 3.4.1.

[218] For example, different kinds of expert visual analyses: inspections, geo-referenced maps, orthophotos, *"Streetview"* shots, etc.
Taking stock of material and immaterial cultural assets. Location and documentation of material assets and immaterial cultural assets located on the territory.
Social analyses (sample surveys, interviews, community maps, etc.) aimed at understanding the levels of equivalence between values (strengths and weaknesses) perceived and/or already known (assessment opinions and justification for actions).
Interpretation of levels of pervasive social perception, which vary over time due to interaction with many conditions both inside and outside the system. See too Volume II, Part I - 2.3; 2.3.1.

2.1 Specialist diagnoses

These are clearly defined diagnoses aimed at tackling the issues brought to the fore. They can be used to interpret causes and status conditions,[219] the values' relevance[220] and life expectancies (positive or negative)[221] which may be established with varying levels of accuracy. The responses obtained suggest conservative or transformative actions to be applied to the various systems (abiotic, biotic, man-made).

They require co-operation with the public authorities and may have different technical characteristics. If necessary, they are begun during the development stages and updated during the management stage. They should be carried out in respect of the most important decisions, by consulting "experts".[222]

B – 2.2 System diagnoses

This operation involves collecting all the specialist diagnoses and assessments carried out (at the appropriate level of completeness and approximation) and devising and assessing interactions (where considered useful) between interpretations, even those which are diverse. They form a flexible, open basic structure, to be organised according to the specificities noted from the previous interpretations in order to identify the most appropriate options. Analyses and assessments have to be periodically integrated so that adjustments can be made in the interactive relations between knowledge and decisions, and the processes can be updated.

B – 3 Local programming and planning

The operational diagnosis of the system summarises all the places identified within the delimited area and the assessments produced during the analytical stage. It facilitates "bottom-up" re-interpretation, on a local scale, of the general indications deriving from the general landscape (or territorial) plan.[223] It therefore highlights emergency situations, needs and opportunities in relation to the landscape, which can be perceived only on the spot. It forms a basis for providing indications, which integrates or supports updating of the various levels of local planning and which can contribute to programme policy decisions.

In this way it is possible to achieve, through the landscape, a form of active participation in interpretation and the establishment of guidelines for people's own living environments (in the interactions between the various systems: abiotic, biotic and man-made, on a local scale), as well as a point of encounter between bottom-up and top-down decisions which could, theoretically, extend to every scale within the entire territory and continue throughout all the processes.

The operational diagnosis accordingly guides the programming on a local scale. This includes the definition of the purposes, timing and methods of public works, and it is the policy decisions arising from this and the subsequent technical projects which suggest and implement the intervention measures.

Knowledge gaps, implementation problems and technical or policy errors may be encountered in the methods deployed to develop and implement the programme. It is the successes and failures and their causes and effects which are used to measure the effectiveness of the processes carried out.

[219] See Volume II, Part II - 2.2/3/4.
[220] See Volume II, Part I - 3.1.2/3.
[221] See Volume II, Part I - 2.4.2 a/b/c.
[222] See Volume II, Part II – 11.
[223] See Volume II, Part I - 1.2.

It is this measurement which indicates the scope for improvement and enhanced interactions between the integrated bottom-up and top-down management activities, but with variable thresholds managed empirically to deal with the infinite variety of landscapes, territories and environments.

B – 4 Intervention practices

The wide variety of objectives and practices inherent in man-made actions carried out on the landscape can always be summed up in the dialectics between the two fundamental approaches: conservation and transformation.[224] Operational practices involve all those concerned (some beneficiaries also propose actions), but are managed by experts from public administrative agencies, by professionals, and by external "experts". Awareness of the interactions and the possibility of assessing alternative options have a considerable role to play here. The purpose of the following paragraphs is to make it easier to explore and choose among the various options available.

4.1 Conservation[225]

This consists in preserving the existing elements (materials, signs) with actions targeted at prolonging their life cycles.[226]

4.2 Transformation[227]

This relates to material or immaterial modifications of the existing elements, interactions and meanings. Everything is subject to change in the long run. A distinction then has to be made between modifications which improve or degrade the system (based on the internal and external interactions considered)[228] and the combination of the various life cycle durations has to be managed.[229]

4.3 Conservation and transformation

These actions always co-exist. Their combinations involve the whole system of signs and meanings, with varying rates of inertia and acceleration. They display very different relative speeds. Within a landscape it is useful to recognise the places and times of conservative and/or transformational actions and their reasons: intentional, implicit and unintentional[230].

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[224] "*Landscape action is a combination of protection, management and planning conducted over one and the same territory: certain parts and features can be protected, others, particularly processes, should be managed and still others should be intentionally adapted.*" CM/Rec(2008)3 I.5.
V. Di Battista, *Relazioni lineari e non lineari nil progetto di architettura* [Linear and non-linear relationships in the architecture project], in *Architettura e approccio sistemico* [Architecture and systemic approach], various authors, Polimetrica, Milan, 2006.
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[225] "*Conservation and upkeep of quality features (morphology, constituent elements, colours, etc., also taking account of construction methods and materials and symbolic characteristics and places, etc.).*" CM/Rec(2008)3 Appendix 1.2.
"*Measures should ensure the conservation and upkeep of significant or characteristic aspects of a landscape; protection should be accompanied by a phased management plan.*" CM/Rec(2008)3 II.3.1. See too Volume II, Part II - 5; 6.

[226] See Volume II, Part I - 2.4.2; 2.4.2 c.

[227] See Volume II, Part II – 7.

[228] "*The concept of protection includes the idea that landscape is subject to changes which, within certain limits, have to be accepted. Protective measures, which are currently being widely trialled, should not be designed to stop time or to restore natural or human-influenced characteristics that no longer exist; however, they may guide changes in sites in order to pass on their specific, material and immaterial features to future generations.*" CM/Rec(2008)3 I.5.
"*Provision for hubs of development in accordance with the various recognised landscape features, ensuring that development does not degrade landscape quality; … Reassessment and/or rehabilitation of degraded or problematic areas in order to restore their qualities or create new ones.*" CM/Rec(2008)3 Appendix 1.2.

[229] See Volume II, Part I - 2.4.2.

[230] G. Dematteis, *Progetto implicito* [Implicit project], Angeli, Milan, 1995). V. Di Battista, see note 72. See too Volume II, Part II - 5; 6; 7.1/2; 8.1/2.

4.4 Abandonment

This corresponds to intentional and/or unintentional practices in relation to ecosystems (even those possibly self-regulating), man-made environments (with frequent irreversible losses of material and information) and settlements.

5 Intentional conservation

This activity takes up elements, conditions and intervention methods from the diagnosis. It encompasses various types of actions which are more or less continuous and arduous,[231] along with the following conservative interventions:

5.1 Occasional maintenance

This refers to discontinuous actions which involve resetting functions, repairing damage, reintegrating material, etc.

5.2 Preventive maintenance – programmed

This refers to regular, ongoing activities, which are intended to avoid damage and maintain or prolong life cycles. They are intended to prevent problems, impairments or losses (existing objects, material, information, etc.). They can be arranged at any point in the life cycles. They entail the timing and scheduling of preventive intervention operations, involve arduous and generally costly organisational and operational stages (made easier if arranged during the project stage). In the context of the landscape they can be applied so as to preserve conditions and/or elements which reduce the likelihood of a threat's occurrence (planting of shrubs and trees to counter hydrogeological instability, clearing of river beds, etc.).[232]

6 Unintentional conservation

This relates to everything which remains in place due to inertia and out of habit[233] and to actions, no matter why they are carried out, which contribute to preserving in their entirety, on different scales, in different ways and at different times, the condition and spirit of places.

Examples of such actions are forestry and irrigation activities (clearing and cleaning practices, stripping, appropriate pruning and drainage activities, etc.), agricultural activities (ploughing, sowing, harvesting, etc.), urban activities (cleaning, painting, paving), both public and private sector.

These practices do not always have a positive impact.[234]

7 Transformation (redevelopment and downgrading)

This refers to all the intentional and/or Unintentional practices which modify, improve or degrade ecosystems and man-made environments in terms of their elements, conditions, interactions and denotations.

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[231] Various authors, *La qualità edilizia nel tempo* [Building quality over time], Milan, Hoepli, 2003.
S.B. Blanchard, *Design and Manage to Life Cycle Cost*, Forest Grove, Weber System, 1978.
F. Boucly, A. Ogus, *La gestione della manutenzione* [Management of maintenance], Franco Angeli, Milan, 1995.
G. Ferracuti, *Tempo Qualità Manutenzione. Scritti sulla manutenzione edilizia, urbana e ambientale (1982-1992)* [Time, quality, maintenance. Writings on building, urban and environmental maintenance], Alinea Editrice, Florence, 1994.
[232] See note 76.
[233] See Volume II, Part 1 - 3.1.3.4.
[234] Positive meanings and values entail conservative actions (for instance, concerning the most characteristic places in terms of their frequentation and symbolic and emotive relevance). Some conservative approaches lead to the rejection of high-quality innovative actions, while commonplace modifications are more easily accepted.

7.1 Intentional redevelopment

Based on diagnostic assessments this determines what should be improved (materials, configurations, performances, meanings, etc.) and how to intervene based on criteria of benefit, scope, intensity, feasibility and convenience. This can give rise to the following different types of actions:

7.1.1 Restoration

This restores the system to the configurations and performance levels which applied at earlier stages of the life cycle (in the case of meanings and values, the variations in terms of information and meaningfulness brought about by the intervention should be assessed).

7.1.2 Performance-based redevelopment

The aim here is to enhance deficient service levels (due to reduced operation and/or the emergence of new requirements) or ensure that services which are lacking are put in place.

7.1.3 Aesthetic redevelopment

This boosts the beneficiaries' approval and appreciation. It may take the form of rehabilitation, correction or a complete makeover. This can be achieved through reorganisation, removal, addition, integration, or the replacement of components, materials, colours, etc.

7.1.4 Enhancement

This concerns enhancement of the value and/or perceived quality by means of material (conservation/redevelopment) and/or immaterial (knowledge, awareness-raising, promotion, communication, etc.) interventions.

7.2 Unintentional redevelopment

This concerns the random outcome of various intentional practices (such as those referred to above), which jointly contribute to improving the state and/or perception of places without any intentionality or complex controls.[235]

7.3 Downgrading

7.3.1 Intentional downgrading

This arises from transport needs and/or plans regarding reconversion, a more lucrative use, and so on, which bring about actions of disposal, abandonment and neglect.[236]

7.3.2 Unintentional downgrading

This corresponds to outcomes generated by transformation processes or mixed processes, which bring about reductions in the quality of an existing system. It can arise, for instance, from conditions outside or inside the system (reduction in revenue, discontinuation of activities, etc.), which are not intended to cause abandonment or decline, but reduce the upkeep given to places.

[235] For example: individual agricultural, forestry and irrigation activities, which jointly bring about unforeseen improvements in the system's state; individual intentional urban activities, public and/or private, which jointly contribute, at differing scales and times and in different ways, to improving the state, meaning and social perception of places. See too Volume II, Part II – 10.
[236] See Volume II, Part II - 4.4.

8 Re-use

This is a variation on the use[237] of elements and/or interactions. All systems (abiotic, biotic, man-made) in a landscape are subject, in different places, at different times and in different ways, to processes involving re-use on a more or less intensive and/or extensive scale. These always transform the meanings, with increases and/or reductions in values.

8.1 Intentional re-use

Based on diagnoses this entails identifying opportunities, elements, suitabilities and the feasibility of modifying activities being implemented (or their interactions and/or combinations) within a system, generating variations in value and in social perceptions.

8.1.1 Value increments

New activities boost values in terms of use, exchanges and social perception (for instance, transformation from a warehouse to a dwelling, etc.); such increments sometimes originate from dilapidation processes with the survival of rare items of information and high documentary values (archaeological areas).

8.1.2 Value reductions

New activities generate reduced values in terms of use, exchanges and social perception (for instance, a decommissioned production site, etc.).

8.2 Unintentional re-use

This arises either from the random accumulation of intentional interventions which bring about unforeseen use interactions or from variations in use (type of users) which produce additional values[238] that can vary over time.[239] In these cases too, the variation in meanings and social perceptions can be either positive (enhancement) or negative (downgrading).[240]

8.3 Removal and substitution[241]

This applies to the re-use of urban areas or complexes (decommissioned land, buildings, industrial areas, rail terminals, military areas, etc.).

8.3.1 Removal

This entails removing the elements which, at the end of the life cycle, do not lend themselves to any form of survival. It causes irreversible loss, but can also generate new potential benefits and/or values.[242]

8.3.2 Substitution

This offers scope for new configurations and meanings with positive or negative impacts (economic, social, emotive, etc.) on different scales (decommissioned areas, buildings, etc.).

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[237] Variations in extraction, energy and tourist activities, land use, types of crops, manufactured goods, various buildings, urban areas, etc.
[238] See Volume II, Part 1 - 3.1.3.
[239] See note 40.
[240] An element, while maintaining the same uses, may have constant meanings for some users and changed meanings for others.
[241] See Volume II, Part II - 4.4; 7; 9.
[242] See Volume II, Part II - 4.4.

9 New elements[243]

Human activities transform configurations, interactions and values already existing in landscapes by constantly adding new elements (roads, bridges, railways, dams, canals, installations, different kinds of infrastructure; production, commercial and residential settlements, etc.). Each of these, on every scale, is planned and fulfils specific intentions. However, it is difficult to control all the interactions which come about. Even in optimum circumstances (SEA, EIA, etc.) many of them escape control.

In general, the new elements are confined to providing functional coherence and to producing an impact on their direct surroundings or in a local neighbourhood context. They produce unintentional effects not only cumulatively, but also often individually.

10 Indeterminate outcomes

All the actions involving conservation/transformation examined above have configured our landscapes in the past and continue to do so today. Every project of which they are part involves intentions limited to its specific objective. The chaotic accumulation of these diverse projects produces unintentional effects which are constantly visible and present in our landscapes.

Furthermore, in any landscape the unceasing combination of the various abiotic, biotic and man-made processes produces continuous changes in configuration and meaning. These changes, which differ from place to place and over time, interact in different ways with the populations and generate new perceptions, which, in turn, trigger conservation and transformation activities with indeterminate outcomes.

11 Monitoring and feedback

Monitoring carried out on a regular basis can be used to verify the expected processes against those which actually occur and help ensure continuous and appropriate adjustments to programmes and projects.
Monitoring (for example, on thematic maps with online access) can allow all public and private operators to verify over time the interactions and the outcomes of the various intentional and unintentional processes.

This assessment possibility (outcomes and causes) can help us improve our decisions and actions.

Today, documentation, simulations and monitoring are already possible via IT networks. In future increasingly efficient and simple tools will become more readily available for devising open, joint strategies which are broader and more extensive.

The overall analysis and decision-making practices described permit the development of strategies which can be devised from the bottom up and in a simple manner and can be considered conductive to bringing about improved management of our settlement systems.

A simple, but growing, awareness of the landscape as an outcome of the choices made by many individuals can be achieved through the perception of its numerous values and opportunities. To this end, participants' involvement in the process, even if it requires more laborious procedures, makes it possible to compare alternatives and gradually improve the relationship between settled populations and their living environments.

[243] See Volume II, Part II – 7.

Conclusions

These analyses and strategies build upon the ideas set out in the “Methodological references”.
I have attempted to reconcile the various analysis and assessment procedures and the decision and project strategies at the different intentional and “unintentional” levels and to propose possible sequences of interactions between expert and public interpretations.

The aim is to suggest possible courses of action which may encourage:

– growing awareness;
– dialectic networks, open in place and time between the various processes;
– new diagnostic and project concepts;
– possible forms of self-organisation which facilitate positive “developments”.

Finally, these “Procedural guidelines” are proposed with the aim of encouraging practical experiments and in-depth analyses so as to produce, in the various contexts, through the different interactions between bottom-up and top-down processes and within the necessary timeframe, “grammars" more suited to the diverse specific configurations.

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LANDSCAPE REPRESENTS A CHALLENGE
MUCH BIGGER THAN WE USUALLY THINK

LANDSCAPE CAN BE REPRESENTED AS THE
***SYMBOLIC FORM* OF A TOTALLY INTERACTED WORLDVIEW**

IT OFFERS MANY NEW OPPORTUNITIES
IT DEMANDS A DIFFERENT APPROACH

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LANDSCAPE REPRESENTS A CHALLENGE
MUCH BIGGER THAN WE USUALLY THINK

A *LANDSCAPE GRAMMAR* IS A CHALLENGE WITHIN A CHALLENGE!

DIFFERENT LANDSCAPES, DIFFERENT PEOPLE
DIFFERENT CULTURE – TRADITIONS USES – REGULATIONS ...

COMMON GOAL:
IMPROVING THE QUALITY OF OUR LIVING ENVIRONMENTS

COMMON PROBLEMS:
- HOW TO READ AND TO ASSESS THE **PEOPLE'S PERCEPTIONS?**
- HOW TO **IMPROVE** THE INTERACTION BETWEEN **BOTTOM-UP** AND **TOP-DOWN** DECISION PROCESSES?

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Landscape AS *PERCEIVED BY PEOPLE*

Careful **consideration** of

- **VALUES** THAT **INHABITANTS** ATTRIBUTE TO THE **PLACES WHERE THEY LIVE**
- ALL **ACTIONS** - EVEN THE **SMALLEST ONES** – THAT **SHAPE** THE LANDSCAPE, **EVERYDAY** AND **EVERYWHERE**

USUALLY, WE HAVE **MUCH INFORMATION** BUT **NOT ENOUGH INFORMATION...**

Raising the **inhabitants' awareness** is necessary but in general **awareness alone does not promote any improvement**

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- IN GENERAL, THERE IS A **GAP** BETWEEN **INHABITANTS** AND **INSTITUTIONS**, OFTEN LEADING TO **MISTRUST**
- LANDSCAPE **ALWAYS** REPRESENTS ALL THE **PROBLEMS** AND THE **VALUES** OF A **LIVING ENVIRONMENT**

LANDSCAPE ITSELF SAYS IT ALL, EVERYWHERE!

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AT THE SAME TIME, THERE IS OFTEN A **WIDE DISTANCE** BETWEEN THE **INSTITUTIONS'** ANALYSIS AND ACTIONS, AND THE **INHABITANTS'** ACTIONS




LANDSCAPE IS DIFFICULT BECAUSE:

IT IS A **COMPLEX SYSTEM** ENTAILING A HUGE AMOUNT OF DEEP-ROOTED AND **OFTEN CONFLICTING VALUES**

IT IS DEFINED AND SHAPED BY A VARIETY PROCESSES - BOTH NATURAL AND ANTHROPIC ONES

ANTHROPIC PROCESSES MAY BE INTENTIONAL, IMPLICIT OR UNINTENTIONAL



SUCH PROCESSES OFTEN PRODUCE **INHOSPITABLE LANDSCAPES**

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FOCUSING UPON THE INHABITANT PERCEPTION OF LANDSCAPE:

- HELPS STIMULATE **ATTENTION** TOWARDS **ASPECTS** AND **RELATIONS** WHICH ARE USUALLY **UNDERESTIMATED**
- PROMOTES THE **IMPROVEMENT** OF **UNDERRATED CORRELATIONS**

A NEW APPROACH FOCUSED ON THE COGNITIVE AND SYMBOLIC ROLE OF LANDSCAPE AND THE UNINTENTIONAL PROCESSES TRIGGERED BY MULTIPLE ACTORS



STR V. Di Battista 2017 9

- A PROCEDURE AIMED TO **COLLECT AND VOICE** THE **INHABITANTS' VALUES, NEEDS AND DESIRES**
- ***BOTTOM-UP*** DEVELOPMENT OF **COMMUNITY PROGRAMS**

SIMPLE CONDITIONS AND TOOLS

- EXISTENCE OF **GRASS-ROOTS ASSOCIATIONS** (LIKE THE OBSERVATORY) AS **GO-BETWEEN THE INHABITANTS AND THE INSTITUTIONS**
- **EASY CONCEPTS** TO BE **MEASURED, COMPARED AND MANAGED** BY THE INHABITANTS THEMSELVES

ASSESSMENT OF PLACES: A COHERENT **SYNTHESIS OF MULTIPLE VALUES** THAT CAN BE EXPRESSED AS «VERY BAD», «BAD», «GOOD», «VERY GOOD»

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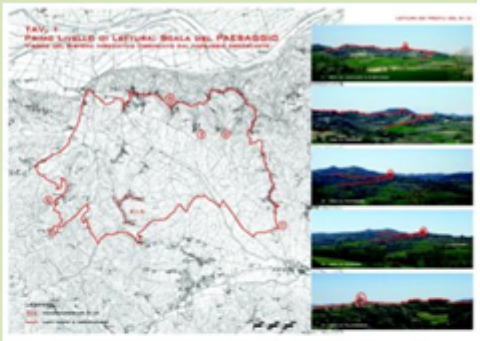
EASY TOOLS FOR ANALYSIS

- **LOCAL HISTORY** AND **MATERIAL CULTURE**
- **EVALUATION** OF PLACES BY **DIFFERENT OBSERVERS** : INHABITANTS, SCHOOLS, VISITORS etc – **ACKNOWLEDGED VALUES – COMMUNITY PLAN**
- **VISUAL EVALUATION** OF PLACES BY «**EXPERTS**» (VISUAL SENSITIVITY)



EASY TOOL FOR DECISION

A **SWOT-BASED** ACTIVITY TO PROMOTE AND FACILITATE DECISION ABOUT **WHAT TO DO**, EXAMINING THE ACKNOWLEDGED VALUES AND ASSESSING THEIR STRENGTH AND WEAKNESS

THE PROCEDURE CAN BE CARRIED OUT BY LOCAL, INDEPENDENT OBSERVATORIES

IT CAN BE DEVELOPED IN SIX PHASES:

1° phase: GATHERING PRELIMINARY INFORMATION

- COLLECT TECHNICAL DATA
- CARRY OUT STRUCTURED, OPEN INTERVIEWS THAT SHOULD BE RESERVED AND WELL TARGETED TO AVOID ANY MISTRUST
- GATHER MANY POINTS OF VIEWS ON THE PLACE FROM DIFFERENT EXTERNAL TESTIMONIALS
- CARRY OUT EXPERT ANALYSIS BASED ON VISIBILITY

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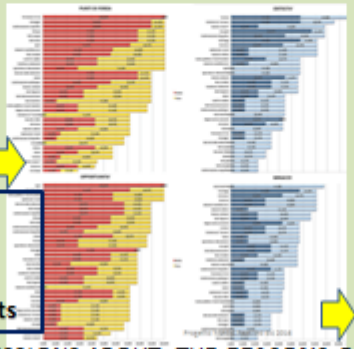
2° phase: STEERING DECISION BY MEANS OF EVALUATION

- A **LIST OF QUESTIONS**
- **DISCUSSION TABLES**: ALL PARTECIPANTS GIVE THEIR **ANSWERS** TO THE **SAME QUESTIONS** AND **DISCUSS** THEM
- A **FACILITATOR** GATHERS THE ANSWERS, PROPOSES **CONCLUSIONS** AND INVITES **ALL** PARTECIPANTS TO DEVELOP A **PROGRAM**



a **SWOT** analysis can be carried out to evaluate **strengths, weaknesses, opportunities** and **threats**

THIS PROMOTES A DISCUSSIONS ABOUT THE **REASONS** OF ALL THINGS THAT HAVE BEEN **RECOGNISED** IN THE LANDSCAPE ASSESSMENT, AS WELL AS ON THE **IMPROVEMENT OPPORTUNITIES** AND **POSSIBILITIES**

A SHARED PROGRAM OUTLINE

3° phase: BUILDING A COMMUNITY PROGRAM

PRESERVING WHAT IS **GOOD / CHANGING** WHAT IS **BAD:**
A PRELIMINARY COMMUNITY PROGRAM

NOW WE HAVE **INTERPRETATIONS, EVALUATIONS, PROGRAMS** DERIVED FROM THE **PEOPLE'S PERCEPTION**

A COMMUNITY PROGRAM IS **NOT** AN **INSTITUTIONAL** PARTICIPATION PROGRAM
IT IS A **BOTTOM–UP** PROGRAM, **DIRECTLY PRODUCED** BY THE INHABITANTS

- IT BECOMES AN OPEN, CONTINUOUS TOOL OVER TIME
- IT REQUIRES **TIME** AND **PATIENCE!!**
- **IT IMPROVES WITH USE OVER TIME**

(Saul Steinberg, detail from *La Galleria di Milano*)

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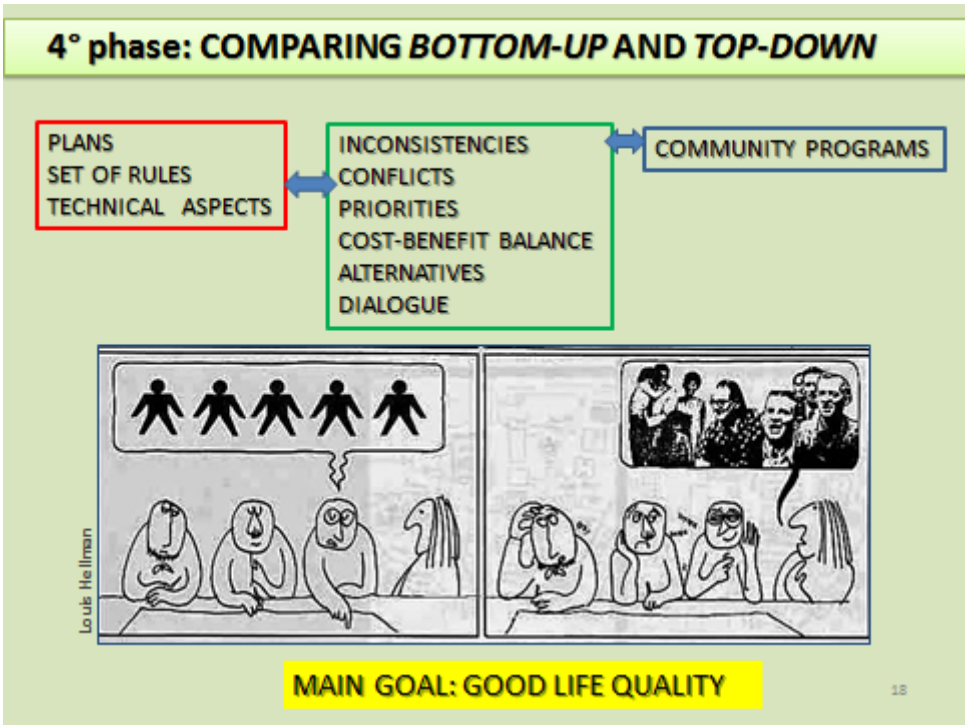
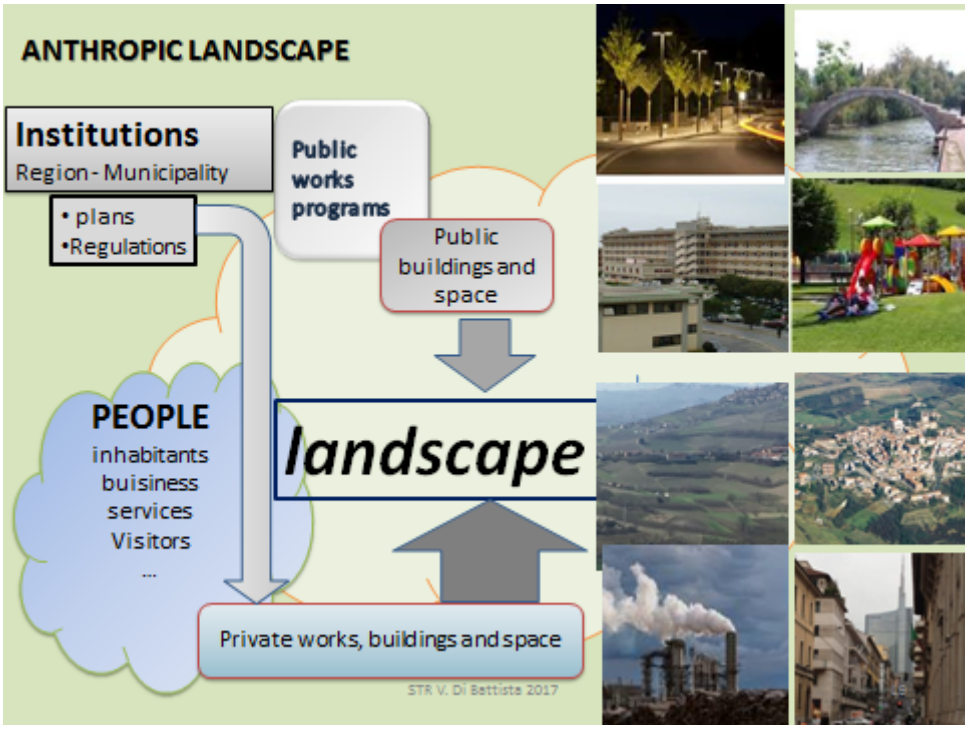

4° phase: COMPARING BOTTOM-UP AND TOP-DOWN
PLANS
SET OF RULES
TECHNICAL ASPECTS
INCONSISTENCIES
CONFLICTS
PRIORITIES
COST-BENEFIT BALANCE
ALTERNATIVES
DIALOGUE
COMMUNITY PROGRAMS
Louis Hellman
MAIN GOAL: GOOD LIFE QUALITY
18


ANTHROPIC LANDSCAPE
Institutions
Region - Municipality
• plans
•Regulations
Public works programs
Public buildings and space
PEOPLE
inhabitants
buisiness
services
Visitors
...
landscape
Private works, buildings and space
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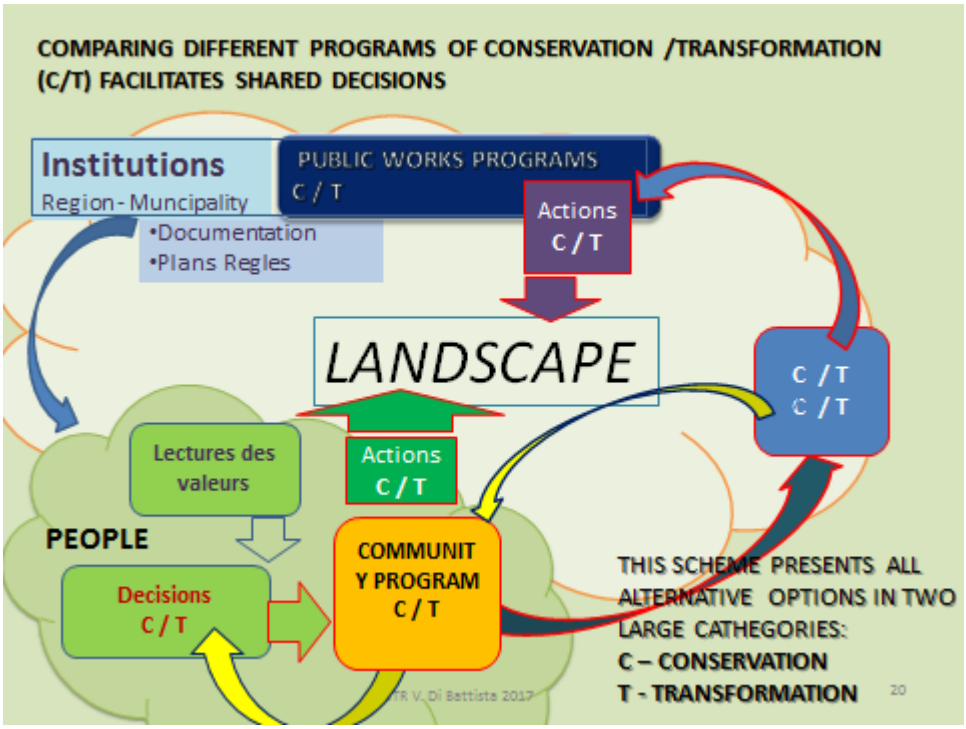
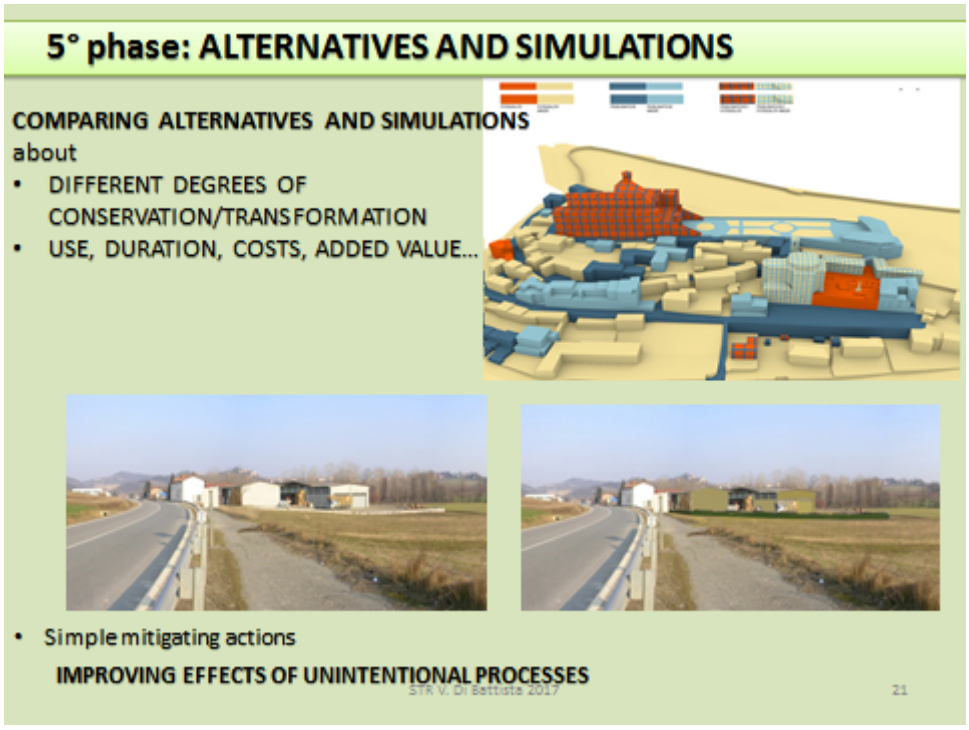

COMPARING DIFFERENT PROGRAMS OF CONSERVATION /TRANSFORMATION (C/T) FACILITATES SHARED DECISIONS
Institutions
Region - Muncipality
•Documentation
•Plans Regles
PUBLIC WORKS PROGRAMS
C / T
Actions
C / T
LANDSCAPE
C / T
C / T
Actions
C / T
Lectures des valeurs
PEOPLE
Decisions
C / T
COMMUNIT Y PROGRAM
C / T
THIS SCHEME PRESENTS ALL ALTERNATIVE OPTIONS IN TWO LARGE CATHEGORIES:
C – CONSERVATION
T - TRANSFORMATION
20


5° phase: ALTERNATIVES AND SIMULATIONS
COMPARING ALTERNATIVES AND SIMULATIONS
about
• DIFFERENT DEGREES OF CONSERVATION/TRANSFORMATION
• USE, DURATION, COSTS, ADDED VALUE...
• Simple mitigating actions
IMPROVING EFFECTS OF UNINTENTIONAL PROCESSES
21

6° phase: ACTION DURING TIME

CONTINUOUS **UPKEEPING** OF COMMUNITY PROGRAMS ALLOWS

- CONTINUOUS RECORDING OF ALL PUBLIC AND PRIVATE ACTIONS AND BEHAVIOURS
- ASSESSMENT OF RESULTS AGAINST EXPECTATIONS AND EVALUATION OF REASONS
- LEARNING FROM EXPERIENCE FOR FURTHER IMPROVEMENT

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DEVELOPMENTS

LANDSCAPE – ENTHRALLING AND DIFFICULT

IT NEEDS - EXPERIMENTATION
- ADJUSTING BOTTOM-UP AND TOP- DOWN PROCESSES

WE NEED MANY **MORE BOTTOM-UP** PROCESSES AND EXPERIENCE
BOTTOM-UP PROCESSES SHOULD BE **ENHANCED**

TOP-DOWN PROCESSES: DISCIPLINES, SPECIALISED EDUCATION, EXPERTS

BOTTOM-UP PROCESSES: SELF-ORGANISATION, DIRECT DEMOCRACY

Images of an experiment we are conducting in Vignale Monferrato (UNESCO) Italy

2017 23

A CONCLUSION

THE FIELD IS **COMPLEX** BUT THE **TOOLS** MUST BE **SIMPLE**

ASK A FEW QUESTIONS:
WHAT SHOULD BE **PRESERVED**, **WHAT** SHOULD BE **MODIFIED** IN OUR **LANDSCAPE**?
HOW TO INTERPRET ***? WHO*** SHOULD DO IT? ***WHY***? ***WHERE***? ***HOW***? ***WHEN***?



THE REPORT SEEKS **ANSWERS** BY MEANS OF A PROCEDURE SHARED BETWEEN **MANY DIFFERENT ACTORS**, FOR DIFFERENT **CONDITIONS**
TOWARDS A GRAMMAR

THANK YOU FOR YOUR ATTENTION!
For any questions please write to:
dibattista_valerio@libero.it

STR V. Di Battista 2017 24