



Strasbourg, 27 April 2021

CEP-CDCPP (2021) 6E

COUNCIL OF EUROPE EUROPEAN LANDSCAPE CONVENTION

11th COUNCIL OF EUROPE CONFERENCE ON THE EUROPEAN LANDSCAPE CONVENTION

Report
"Urbanisation, town planning and landscape"
and draft recommendation

Council of Europe Palais de l'Europe, Strasbourg 26-27 May 2021

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."

*

The conceptual reference Report "Urbanisation, urbanism and landscape" was prepared by Mr Jean Noël Consalès, in the capacity of Expert of the Council of Europe, in the framework of the Council of Europe activities for the implementation of the European Landscape Convention.

Mr Consalès is a senior lecturer in Spatial Planning, Urbanism and Geography at the University of Aix-Marseille, France. As a researcher, he jointly heads a research group on "Landscapes, public policies and development projects" in the joint research unit (UMR) on Time, Spaces, Languages, Southern Europe – Mediterranean (TELEME) at the Mediterranean Human Sciences Research Centre (MMSH) in Aix-en-Provence. He lectures at the Urban Planning and Regional Development Institute (IUAR) of the University of Aix-Marseille and the National Higher Institute for Landscape (ENSP) of Versailles-Marseille. He is also joint head of a master's course on "Landscape planning, development and urbanism".

*

The Report begins with an overview of the urbanisation mechanisms currently at play. To that end, it draws on an economic, social and environmental analysis of the recent history of urban development. It then assesses the resulting consequences for landscape, highlighting the rapid spatial changes which are undermining landscapes that have developed and become established over the long term. Moving on, it looks at more balanced relationships between urbanism and landscape. It highlights urban planning theories that promote landscape as the foundation, means and purpose of projects, citing a number of examples to show that urbanism can give rise to landscape amenities. On the basis of this juxtaposition of the actual situation and what is possible, the report makes recommendations calling for closer links between urbanism and landscape, underlining the environmental benefits of a process of that kind.

In respect of the provisions of the European Landscape Convention on the integration of landscape into regional and town planning policies (Article 5, d.), and the Lausanne Declaration of 20 October 2000 on "Landscape integration in sectoral policies", the Conference is invited:

- to take note of the conceptual reference Report on "Urbanisation, town planning and landscape",
 prepared by Mr Jean Noël Consalès, in the capacity of Expert of the Council of Europe, in the framework of the Council of Europe activities for the implementation of the European Landscape Convention (Part I)
- to examine the draft recommendation "Town planning and landscape", prepared by the
 Secretariat of the Council of Europe in consultation with the expert, to make any proposals for
 amendments and, if it considers it appropriate, to decide to transmit it to the Steering Committee

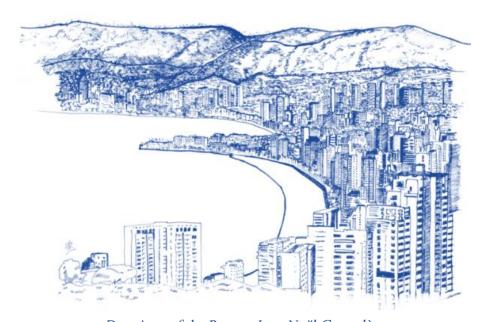
for Culture, Heritage and Landscape (CDCPP) with a view to its submission for adoption to the Committee of Ministers (Part II)

PART I

Report "Urbanisation, town planning and landscape"

prepared in the framework of the Work Programme of the Council of Europe for the implementation of the European Landscape Convention

by Mr Jean Noël Consalès, in the capacity of Expert of the Council of Europe, Senior lecturer in Spatial Development, Urbanism and Geography, University of Aix-Marseille, France



Drawings of the Report: Jean Noël Consalès

Contents

Introduction	7
Context	7
Issues	7
Aim and premise	7
Structure of the report	8
1-Urbanisation, urbanism and landscape: the elements of a complex equation	9
1.1- Development of suburbs	9
1.2- The advent of peri-urbanisation	9
1.3- The era of metropolisation	11
1.4- From sustainable development to densification	11
1.5- Urbanisation and tourism	12
1.6- Urbanisation without urbanism?	12
2- The negative effects of urbanisation and contemporary urbanism on landscape	14
2.1- Privatisation of landscape	
2.2- From decontextualisation to standardisation: degradation of landscape	15
Decontextualisation of urbanism	
Standardisation of landscape	17
2.3- From negation to destruction of landscape	18
2.4- Degradation of urban landscapes as an indicator of environmental problems	19
3-Landscape as the foundation, means and purpose of a new type of urbanism	20
3.1-The pioneers of dialogue between urbanism and landscape	20
3.2-The garden metropolis: landscape as the foundation, means and purpose of planning.	
3.3- Ecological planning: knowledge of landscape as a basis for effecting change within territories	22
3.4-From sociotopes to bio-sociotopes: the importance of natural areas as a basis for lands planning	_
3.5- The urban bioregion: the territorialist approach as a method of landscape planning	23
3.6-Landscape urbanism: landscape as a driving force in urban design	23
4-Ten principles for a new, landscape-based urbanism	24
4.1-Landscape as a way of thinking and acting beyond nature and culture	24
4.2-Engage with the history and geography of a territory: landscape as the basis for a new type of urbanism	
4.3-Develop/manage landscape in a way that supports urban nature	
4.4-Discover and recognise the ecological value of urban landscapes	
4.5- Discover and recognise the agronomic value of urban landscapes	
4.6- Develop transdisciplinary approaches to landscape	
4.7-Posit landscape as a link between planning and design	28

CEP-CDCPP (2021) 6E

3- Encourage the emergence, through landscape, of new urban forms based on the bridisation of city and nature	29
4.9-Engage with everyday landscapes in order to include those who live there in town planning decisions	30
4.10-Recognise land and landscape stewardship as a political project	30
Conclusion	31
Bibliography	32

Introduction

Context

Since the mid-20th century, the process of urbanisation, which now affects the whole planet, has been marked by sustained and continuous growth (averaging 3% a year worldwide). In spite of disparities in its pace and forms (formal/informal urbanisation), in particular between developed and developing countries (for instance, the urbanisation rate in Europe is over 75%, as against the global average of only 55%), it is therefore tending radically to alter human societies' relationships with the world and create more and more environmental, climate and ecological problems.

As the concrete, perceptible and palpable local and regional expressions of these relationships which human societies maintain with the parts of Earth's surface which they inhabit, landscapes suffer just as much from the effects of urbanisation. Nevertheless, for reasons which are hard to define, these farreaching changes in landscape do not receive much media coverage. According to the meaning ascribed to it by the Council of Europe, however, landscape clearly does play a key part in revealing the territorial processes under way, above all urbanisation. For the purposes of the European Landscape Convention, landscape means an area, as perceived by people, whose character is the result of the action and interaction of natural and/or human factors. In this connection, there are rural and urban landscapes, built and natural landscapes, and they all now have to cope with the effects of contemporary urbanisation.

In spite of major differences in approaches and concepts between countries, this process is usually also covered everywhere by a corpus of sciences, techniques and skills relating to the organisation and development of urban areas: urban development or urbanism. Behind the latter generic term are many types of approach, among which two complementary ones nevertheless stand out:

- urban planning, which on a broad geographical scale (region, built-up area, town/city, neighbourhood, district) devises, plans, organises, manages and regulates the layout and the use made of urban areas, usually on the basis of regulatory instruments which govern land use and building.
- urban design, which on a narrower scale (neighbourhood, district, block, public space, etc.) devises, designs, forms, implements and backs up the physical layout and the use made of urban areas on the basis of various urban design tools.

Issues

It therefore seems obvious that the operating methods of contemporary urbanism, in terms both of urban planning and urban design, are responsible for the current forms of urbanisation and their consequences for landscape. What then are the real relationships between contemporary urbanism and landscape? Are they antagonistic, ambiguous or merely distant? In any case, in which way do the urban development mechanisms currently at play contribute to the degradation of landscapes? Is this a structural or cyclical process? Has it been going on for a long time or is it relatively recent? Above all, what can be done to alter this situation and give thought to the conditions for bringing urbanism and landscape closer together in a constructive manner?

Aim and premise

These are all issues which this report seeks to address by pursuing the key aim of shedding light on the loose yet vital relationships between urbanism and landscape. Rather than on an assumption, it is based on a premise which it nevertheless seeks to demonstrate fully: while urbanism and the ways it currently operates pose a threat today to landscape balance, landscape can form the foundation, means and purpose

CEP-CDCPP (2021) 6E

of a new type of urbanism, in phase with the challenges of its time. In this connection, landscape must now be seen as a link between manmade and ecological issues. It is therefore necessary to promote theoretical and practical approaches involving landscape planning and landscape design so as to ensure balanced urbanisation that respects all forms of life.

Structure of the report

The report is divided into four sections. It begins with an incisive overview of the urbanisation mechanisms currently at play. To that end, it draws on an economic, social and environmental analysis of the recent history of urban development. It then assesses the resulting consequences for landscape, highlighting the rapid spatial changes which are undermining landscapes that have developed and become established over the long term. Thirdly, it looks at more balanced relationships between urbanism and landscape, not only highlighting urban planning theories that promote landscape as the foundation, means and purpose of projects but also showing, with a number of examples, that urbanism can give rise to landscape amenities. On the basis of this juxtaposition of the actual situation and what is possible, it lastly makes recommendations calling for closer links between urbanism and landscape, underlining the environmental benefits of a process of that kind.

1-Urbanisation, urbanism and landscape: the elements of a complex equation

To understand the relationships between urbanism and landscape, it is necessary to consider the forms and mechanisms of urbanisation currently at play. To that end, we must begin by analysing the centrifugal processes of urban sprawl, as well as the centripetal processes of densification affecting all parts of numerous European countries, by looking at the recent history of their territories. It is also necessary to understand the urban development impact of growth in tourism before, lastly, looking in depth at the ways the contemporary urban development process operates.

1.1- Development of suburbs

As reconstruction progressed in the aftermath of the Second World War, Europe's rural areas were regarded as places of country folk and cultivated nature, which were expected to meet nations' needs, whereas urban areas were densely populated and focused on the production of consumer goods and services. Town and country were governed by power relations in which the urban influence prevailed. Under that model, the countryside not only provided food for urban areas but also supplied labour on account of a rural exodus that varied in intensity between countries. In practice, this process involved a kind of agriculturalisation of rural areas and landscapes, i.e. intensification of their productive features.

These post-war years also saw population growth, which was reflected firstly in the rebuilding and then in the growth of towns and cities. As they expanded spatially, the latter began taking over nearby natural and agricultural areas and affecting their landscapes. For Europe, in particular western Europe, experienced a period of unprecedented economic growth. Whether in terms of jobs, living standards or consumption, nothing was left untouched by the growth of the years after the end of the Second World War. All societies were transformed, caught up in this spiral of development. New needs emerged, in particular with regard to economic activities, travel and housing. As they combined all the factors of dynamism (innovations, industries, new services), only towns and cities seemed to be able to meet these expectations. They therefore very quickly became the spatial symbol of progress and the whole of Europe embarked upon a powerful process of urbanisation. This involved not only the growth of towns and cities, the areas they occupied and the populations that made them up, but also the invention of a way of life set to become universal. The advent of private travel by car allowed dedensification of urban areas in suburbs that were henceforth much more residential than agricultural. Urban areas therefore became less densely built up than before. On the outskirts of cities, large housing schemes were developed in a somewhat lax manner following functionalist town planning models which either reduced nature to the rank of mere décor or gave rise to new types of urban landscapes thanks to the work of talented landscape architects. Again on the outskirts of cities, new commercial and industrial activities also began to be established, needing space for growth.

These beginnings of contemporary centrifugal urbanisation were largely fostered and regulated by key planning policies adopted by European states, in both the western and the eastern blocs. During that period, all countries adopted tools for planning and regulating land use and building.

1.2- The advent of peri-urbanisation

The mid-1970s marked the end of a period of growth, however. The social discontent expressed at the end of the 1960s, the successive oil crises in 1973 and 1979 and the difficulties affecting the industrial sector were all problems that plunged Europe into a widespread crisis, against the backdrop of economic recession and rising unemployment. In countries experiencing complete breaks with their recent pasts, previous models and approaches were widely called into question. In territorial terms, the preponderance and domination of urban areas seemed no longer to apply. The rural exodus, which had been a major trend since the 19th century, slowed down and even stopped completely in some countries.

In western Europe, first of all, this situation paved the way for a new process of urbanisation: periurbanisation. Under the combined effects of counter-urbanisation and the emergence of environmental ideals, urban society attached new value to rural areas. Better still, they became attractive again. Isolated rural areas attracted new flows of tourists, while country areas near to towns turned into residential zones for relatively well-off groups seeking to find alternatives to the urban lifestyle. This renewed appeal of rural life and the countryside revealed the crisis of the traditional city, a trend set to continue. The dominance of the urban model no longer satisfied urban residents seeking quality and authenticity in their living environments. Against this background, natural areas and farmland became more important again and new considerations emerged regarding their landscapes. City dwellers wanted to live in contact with them, while taking advantage of the benefits of urban areas. To that end, they devised a lifestyle based on individual, private housing and transport. Unlike previous decades, their aspirations no longer focused on the collective housing model but on houses with gardens. With the development of roads and motorways, more and more new rural residents were able to achieve their housing dreams by taking advantage of land and property prices that were much lower than close to city centres. That meant they were able to work in cities while living far from them. In particular with their commuting, they came up with other ways of living in and using space, thereby restoring the landscape values of the countryside which had come to be forgotten over the previous decades.

Conventional urbanisation models were overturned as a result. Cities no longer grew outward seamlessly with existing urban areas but, rather, in a piecemeal fashion, in the form of small built-up areas (housing estates) or individual houses (scattered urban sprawl) spread around the cores of old rural villages. New peripheral rings with low building densities developed at varying distances from city centres. They became the focus of a new form of spatial combination between the urban and the rural, known as the peri-urban, underpinned by the process of peri-urbanisation. This developed at the expense of natural areas and farmland, which nevertheless continued to dominate increasingly mixed landscapes. In this context, farmland was usually the main victim of this trend. It was seen as a real reserve of building land (less expensive, less strictly protected and more easily developed), often leaving farmers with two options: give up or suffer the consequences of increasing pressure on land resulting from speculation.

In these peri-urban areas, the standardisation and urbanisation of lifestyles also went hand in hand with other needs and developments. Gradually, residents there were no longer content with the appeal of the landscape and the living environment alone. Residential peri-urbanisation therefore led to peri-urbanisation of activities and, in particular, of commercial activities. Supermarkets and then hypermarkets came to dominate peri-urban consumption patterns based on car travel. Likewise, business parks and collective amenities developed in these areas, with much building of roads and motorways. This process gave rise to a very standardised urban scene: approaches to towns all over Europe marked by the same simplistic architectural styles serving the same commercial brands.

From the mid-1970s, the process of peri-urbanisation took hold in all European countries, on a gradual but lasting basis. Starting in western Europe, it spread to southern European countries in the 1980s and then central and eastern European countries in the 1990s. In the latter, it should be noted that the relatively brutal transition from planned economies to market economies after 1989 went hand in hand with the swift liberalisation and privatisation of land and land use. This was reflected in the adoption of the peri-urban lifestyle by a growing share of the population of those countries and hence the centrifugal spread of their towns and cities.

Peri-urbanisation clearly is now a major trend that has spread across the whole of Europe. In spite of some scattered and mostly cosmetic measures to combat this form of urban sprawl, it is not declining and probably therefore responds to some very widespread social aspirations. It is certainly also the result of a shift in the strategies pursued by governments. Instead of continuing to organise the provision of collective housing, they are more or less directly encouraging home ownership, in particular through tax incentives. Moreover, against a background of decentralisation, liberalisation and/or financial disengagement, central governments are increasingly delegating planning powers to local and regional authorities, thereby fostering centrifugal trends. This is because at the lower territorial level, urbanisation is devised on the basis of geographically delimited and hence limited interests. For demographic and economic reasons, local authorities on the edge of cities tend to encourage urbanisation. It therefore has to be said that the lower the tier the more peri-urbanisation is muddled and poorly controlled. Those

countries which anticipated this process at a very early stage by establishing governance entities of the right size and with the right powers therefore seem to have managed peri-urbanisation more effectively. Conversely, in many cases, urban growth continues to take place spontaneously, illegally and anarchically, completely disregarding the relevant planning documents and standards.

1.3- The era of metropolisation

Since the 1990s, in tandem with globalisation, there has also been a trend towards the concentration of inhabitants, economic activities and wealth within very large urban areas, a process known as metropolisation. The increasing competition between territories at global and regional level has led to both economic and demographic polarisation and intensification around certain existing conurbations. This process also results in the networking of urban entities of varying sizes, usually arranged around a core entity and several secondary entities. In this way, metropolisation can produce megalopolises (huge conurbations of global significance), metropolises (large conurbations of lesser significance) or metropolitan areas (networks of disparate urban entities operating as a whole). In any event, the attractiveness of such territories involves an increase in travel and greater urban sprawl. The dispersal of economic activities, residential areas and recreational areas, which depends on the availability of land and the distribution of communication routes, results in high levels of travel from the central areas to the peripheral areas, as well as from some peripheral areas to others. With their diverse commercial complexes and huge business parks, the latter form real peripheral centres, or fully-fledged entities, these being types of urban areas that are now becoming well established. This trend towards the dispersal of activities is reflected, in particular, in problematic growth in private travel by car and its corollary, namely the expansion of road and motorway networks.

The establishment of peri-urban rings at increasing distances from city centres is therefore one of the main consequences of metropolisation. Rather than disappearing, the dream of owning one's own detached home is spreading to wider sections of the population and can only be achieved with relatively cheap land or properties, which are further from city centres. Initially, peri-urbanisation developed on the initiative of relatively well-off groups (middle and upper classes) with the building of individual houses on large plots (several hectares). Subsequently, the trend was much more towards new housing estates with small plots of a few ares designed for the middle and working classes. Now there is even a trend towards at least partial self-builds by less well-off groups on very small plots (a few ares) where the land value is the main investment given the low cost of the buildings.

Lastly, the establishment and operation of major metropolitan areas produces hyper-urban territories comprising not only densely built-up cities and much less dense peri-urban rings but also natural areas and farmland interspersed between them. Nature is therefore fully involved in the process of metropolisation but in an ambivalent manner, providing much appreciated landscapes on the one hand while generating attractiveness, speculation and urbanisation on the other. In this connection, while outstanding landscapes made up of nature that is deemed to be exceptional continue to be protected on the whole, in the surrounding areas they generate land pressure that is detrimental to more ordinary landscapes made up of nature deemed to be unexceptional.

1.4- From sustainable development to densification

Metropolisation is not only reflected in centrifugal processes. It also triggers centripetal urbanisation processes involving densification of existing urban areas. Apart from the consequences of the concentration of inhabitants, economic activities and wealth in the existing core cities, this also stems from the implementation of the concept of sustainable development since the famous Rio de Janeiro Earth Summit in 1992. To address the ecological and climate challenges of the 21st century, urban development must now be environmentally friendly. In this connection, combating urban sprawl, the high levels of travel it involves and the resulting greenhouse gases is an increasingly significant imperative for spatial planning.

One of the key solutions put forward to tackle this thorny issue is the densification of the existing urban fabric. This involves intensifying what already exists and further urbanising urban areas, even if that means disregarding or breaking with the rules that governed how they were built. For instance, it includes building upwards to meet the growing needs in terms of surface area for housing and economic activities while adapting to the lack of available land. For the time being, this principle of densification applies primarily to central areas. Some residual empty spaces and some buildings, blocks or districts inherited from the past that are falling into disuse become the focus of vast urbanisation schemes. In some cases, this involves the construction of new business districts modelled on North American CBDs and, in others, the development of new eco-neighbourhoods in line with contemporary environmental standards. In both cases, this trend requires co-operation between a great range of stakeholders, primarily local authorities themselves. Above all, it brings about changes in the appearances of the old city centres. It very often entails a new urban aesthetic based on verticality (expressions of the architectural form of the tower) or sustainability (expressions of environmental architecture: solar panels, environmentally friendly materials, greening, etc.) or indeed both.

To a lesser extent, densification also applies in inner suburban areas. In such areas, it is based much more on private initiatives and the building of small blocks of flats, new housing estates and detached houses, sited on the basis of the availability of land. In some countries, this process may take place completely unlawfully and give rise to the development of neighbourhoods or blocks of informal housing.

1.5- Urbanisation and tourism

Urbanisation has also gone hand in hand with a process that is just as globalised: tourism. Since the 1960s, tourism has expanded and become a mass pursuit in most European countries, giving rise to a real leisure culture, one of the obvious consequences of which is the increase in recreational travel, trips and visits away from people's own regions by an ever-larger share of the population. The resulting business activity has now acquired such dimensions that it is rightly regarded as a fully-fledged industry that generates flows, travel and needs of all kinds and, more specifically, demand in terms of building.

Tourism is a factor in urbanisation that takes place in different regional contexts and therefore affects several types of landscapes. In coastal areas, first of all, seaside tourism is a relatively long-established spatial trend that has expanded constantly since the late 19th century. It entails intensive urbanisation, which is also compounded by processes involving the movement of people and activities to sunnier and coastal regions. Along some coastlines, there is therefore a kind of urban continuum of built-up areas, laid out either as conurbations or on a multipolar basis, whose influence is tending to extend into the relevant hinterlands. In this case, the massive urbanisation of these coasts gives them a clearly metropolitan feel. In mountainous regions, winter sports tourism is also relatively well established. It has led to massive developments designed to cater for and satisfy visitors who are less and less confined to the winter sports season. Lastly, in the countryside, in spite of increasingly ethical or ecological requirements, the development of green tourism is still often accompanied by some types of urbanisation. It is not therefore unusual for the latter to be combined with some processes of periurbanisation, including in rural areas that are among the most isolated.

1.6- Urbanisation without urbanism?

Urbanisation in Europe is therefore intensifying on the basis of processes that are essentially centrifugal, but sometimes centripetal, which are due to favourable combinations of sociological, economic and environmental factors.

It has to be said that this trend is taking place alongside a deliberate withdrawal of public stakeholders from the urban development process. For the sake of controlling public finances, central governments, first of all, followed by local and regional authorities, have been tending to drop socialist interventionist models in the East and their Keynesian equivalents in the West. They are replacing them with neoliberal

models that advocate a degree of deregulation of the urban development system and greater private sector involvement in it. This is leading to a change in approaches. Public stakeholders are no longer the sole guarantors of the common good in urban development. They have to compromise with the economic and financial imperatives of private stakeholders who are fully involved in the process and, if necessary, they must negotiate or arbitrate to ensure the collective interest. They are therefore no longer the sole initiators of the construction of neighbourhoods, blocks or buildings. They are also no longer fully in control of the formal and functional ins and outs of urban development projects, as their influence at the level of real-estate projects has become too indirect. It is only exercised upstream, through planning tools and documents that on the whole continue to be governed more by approaches based on zoning of land for building or other purposes than by project-based approaches.

In practice, there is very often very poor co-ordination between urban planning as conducted by public bodies and urban design as carried out by private stakeholders. While there seems to be some consensus when it comes to major projects built from scratch or redevelopment in central or peri-central neighbourhoods, the diffuse type of urbanisation found in peripheral areas seems to be affected by this lack of co-ordination. In these peri-urban metropolitan-like areas, private stakeholders have much greater leeway. Property developers in particular stand out as the driving forces of urbanisation. Depending on the real-estate opportunities determined by land-use law, they design, produce and sell their commercial goods, i.e. real-estate projects, with an eye to maximised and immediate returns. Lying between the needs of the building market and the cost of production and development, it is these returns which actually dictate the rules for urban building. The resulting urbanisation consequently depends much more on technical than on aesthetic factors and its architectural and urban planning dimensions are reduced to their simplest expressions, i.e. solely the engineering, economic and financial approaches to the programmes. In property developments of this kind, the ultimately limited part played by the true professionals (architects, urban planners and landscape architects) compared to the leading role assigned to engineers probably bears witness to this problematic situation. The urbanisation here therefore often takes place without any real concern for urban planning or design (i.e. high-quality urban development) and actually only generates very little urban ethos. It just meets the demands of its customers and ensures returns on investment for the developers, without giving any thought to the landscape impact it has in the areas concerned. Its consequences are just as worrying when it is based on private self-build initiatives of varying degrees of lawfulness and formality.

~

2- The negative effects of urbanisation and contemporary urbanism on landscape

The mass urbanisation trends currently at play are closely tied up with the oft brutal operating methods of contemporary urbanism. Their combined effects tend to impact very swiftly on landscapes that have taken a very long time to develop. This change in pace lies behind significant transformations in landscapes which it is hard to consider positively. These all create imbalances in the profound defining characteristics of individual regions as reflected in landscapes at local level. Without seeking to be exhaustive, it is therefore necessary to discuss these principal negative effects, while bearing in mind that they are never unambiguous and may be combined with one another. They may also be classified on a graduated scale, from those with the least impact to those most harmful for landscapes. Each effect is illustrated here with an anonymised case study, in other words, the description of a kind of archetypal situation that could probably be observed in many regions.

2.1- Privatisation of landscape

Privatisation of landscape occurs when the urbanisation of a district, neighbourhood, block or plot confines views of all or part of a landscape to the beneficiaries of the relevant development alone. In such cases, the landscape is neither negated nor necessarily spoiled. Rather it serves as the driving force for the construction process and the sales argument for the urban development project around the landscape unit. The idea here is to sell privileged access to agreeable views and a high-quality living environment. Apart from the questionable commoditisation of these amenities, this type of urban development leads, above all, to the gradual closing or blocking off of landscapes. For, in order to ensure the best views for their occupants, the buildings are laid out in such a way that they partially or totally obstruct views of the landscape for the majority, in particular from public areas. Landscape therefore no longer seems to be a common good but, rather, the property of a few. In the regions concerned, this poses problems in terms both of fairness and of liveability. Firstly, in terms of fairness, such privatisation of landscape for and by a privileged few compounds the environmental inequalities that seem to be features of most European cities, which do continue to be marked by real socio-spatial differences in terms of access to natural resources and ecosystem services. Secondly, in terms of liveability, this confiscation of landscape amenities can lead to a kind of reduction in esteem for their living space on the part of population groups who are materially and symbolically dispossessed of the positive aspects of the environment they live in.

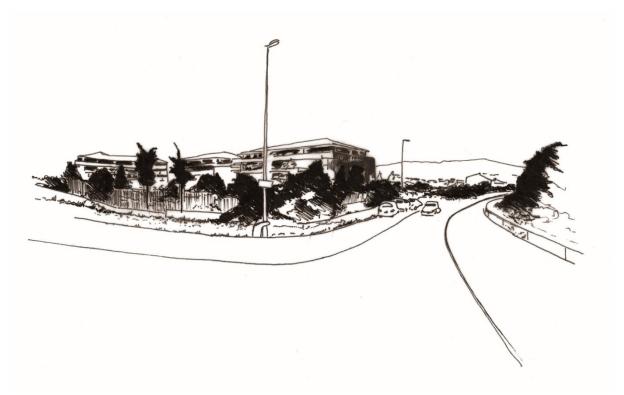


Figure 1 - Privatisation of landscape

Figure 1 shows this possible privatisation of landscape resulting from contemporary urban development and the urbanisation it underpins. It shows a characteristic view of the outskirts of a major city. In this case, the densification of the suburb takes the form of new housing estates and small gated blocks of flats. The latter are particularly visible in the foreground and are superimposed on an almost rural landscape dominated by the limestone ranges that can be seen in the background. With their unusual geomorphology and garrigue vegetation, these hills are key factors in attractiveness and therefore one of the reasons for the urbanisation of the district. However, this process taking place is playing a part in gradually hiding the attractive landscape from the street, not only because of the position of the buildings but also because of the addition of elements protecting the premises (gates, railings, shrubs, etc.). However, the hills remain fully visible and can be appreciated by the occupants from inside the flats. Lastly, the landscape does a lot more to enhance the real-estate developments than the neighbourhood where they are located. While it does add value to the urbanisation taking place here, unfortunately, it does not increase the value of the urban planning that regulates it.

2.2- From decontextualisation to standardisation: degradation of landscape

Deterioration of landscape occurs when the urbanisation of a district, neighbourhood, block or plot undermines the appearance of all or part of a landscape to varying degrees. Although the landscape is not necessarily negated, it gives rise to urban development interpretations that are seriously at odds with its intrinsic features and hence with the deeper meaning of the setting. Being very subjective, as it tends to involve tension between individual and collective representations that are often contradictory, this process may be measured objectively both by a decline in the consistency, clarity and harmony of the landscape and by the disintegration of the population's collective understanding of it. With this process, the landscape acts much less as a factor in territorial unity. Worse still, it may be the subject of controversy. Its deterioration therefore involves a combination of temporal and spatial changes. The temporal changes stem from the very quick way in which contemporary urbanisation affects landscapes that have built up over a long time. It therefore imposes its pace and its immediacy. The spatial changes stem from the fact that contemporary urbanism is tending to deconstruct landscapes as it imposes its own signature or uses urban planning styles that fit in very poorly with what already exists. It involves either real decontextualisation or far-reaching standardisation of landscape.

Decontextualisation of urbanism

The decontextualisation of contemporary urbanism occurs when the urbanisation patterns of a district, neighbourhood, block or plot take little or no account of the features of the local landscape, thereby leading to its degradation. This process stems from urban planning choices in terms of building forms, materials and colours, types of layout and uses of developments that do not fit in well with the existing environment and make little positive contribution to established landscape balance. These choices may be entirely intentional and involve urban planning and architectural techniques that seek deliberately to break with the relevant context. This applies, for instance, to the implementation of certain projects in urban landscapes that already exist (central areas, in particular). These give rise to designs with outcomes that may or may not be successful. Sometimes the urban and architectural projects are a complete success and trigger a new landscape dynamic. Sometimes they are mediocre and spoil the urban landscape to a greater or lesser extent. Nevertheless, these decontextualised urban development choices mostly stem from contemporary urban development players' lack of concern for, disregard for or total ignorance of landscape matters. Their approaches are dictated by primarily economic considerations, the aim being to carry out projects at limited cost, even if this means employing models, set-ups, techniques and materials that are in conflict with local features. This situation is all the more worrying since it actually does not leave much room for input from urban design professionals (architects, urban planners and landscape architects) who are more capable of ensuring landscape integration in the programmes. The latter are designed to operate as well as possible within their immediate boundaries. However, their landscape impacts on a broader scale are only rarely assessed before construction. The effects of this type of decontextualised urbanism are seen most frequently on the outskirts of urban areas, in the form both of new housing estates and of the establishment of business and/or retail parks at the entrances to towns. On account of low-quality production methods, the former are increasingly developed without the involvement of urban designers, on the basis of ill-assorted individualised strategies. For economic and commercial reasons which involve building functional and identifiable premises at low cost, the latter lead to developments that seem particularly out of place.



Figure 2 - Decontextualisation of urbanism

Figure 2 shows this possible decontextualisation of contemporary urbanism, with a view of the entrance to a town. In this case, a typical small medieval town has developed in harmony with beautiful surrounding farmland. This is a semi-open hedged landscape, with natural grassland that is mown or grazed, crisscrossed by hedgerows of walnut and plum trees. Oak woodlands can be seen on the slopes. However, because of the location of a very specialised small industry, the town is experiencing quite significant peri-urbanisation. The construction of very low-cost self-build houses across the countryside has been accompanied by growth in several business and retail parks on the town's outskirts. The landscape is spoiled as a result and town entrances, which lend themselves particularly to urbanisation, have become real landscape blackspots that can be seen from all over the area. Around roundabouts in the developments concerned, there is a concentration of retail warehouses, whose shape (boxlike), cheap building materials (breezeblock or metal) and colours (garish to attract customers) absolutely do not fit into the landscape. Figure 2 therefore shows a glaring difference in landscape between the retail area in the foreground and the farmland in the background, in other words, between buildings put up quickly, if not on a fleeting basis, and centuries-old farming.

Standardisation of landscape

Standardisation of landscape occurs when the urbanisation of a district, neighbourhood, block or plot employs standardised building methods involving, in particular, the use of forms, techniques and materials that are not only very widely used but are also very much at odds with the local and landscape context. This process is one of the most striking consequences of the globalisation of urban building. The ways people inhabit and live in urban areas are becoming increasingly standardised and widespread. They are therefore expressed through types of developments that are tending to become equally standardised. To ensure that building costs are controlled, urbanisation follows very well-established and often standard models. Traditional forms of housing are, for example, giving way to very common

CEP-CDCPP (2021) 6E

designs. The use of regional or local materials, which used to ensure a kind of landscape harmony between the physical and cultural features of a region, is being replaced by the use of standardised goods which are mass produced in various locations around the world and marketed by major international distributors. As a result, the specific features of the landscape are gradually being erased, even though some local features are sometimes conserved and reinterpreted with varying degrees of success. The increasing repetition of the same urban motifs with low landscape qualities is standardising the areas concerned, making them lose their identities. This trend is particularly noticeable in suburban areas where there is growth in detached housing.

This is shown in Figure 3. It depicts a peri-urban fragment resulting from a process of peripheral urbanisation of a region, the landscape matrix of which is a rich agricultural plain interspersed with wooded areas. The demographic and economic growth of core towns is very often reflected in diffuse centrifugal urbanisation. A loose mesh of detached houses gradually develops, transforming fields into a land reserve used for the expansion of access roads, private gardens and, above all, detached houses. These are built under property development programmes based on standardised planning principles: the schemes are reduced to very simple forms and laid out in a contiguous manner to reduce costs and built using common materials (breezeblocks for exteriors, plasterboard for interiors and imitation-slate PVC tiles for roofs). The spread of this urban model throughout the region concerned plays a major part in standardising its landscape.

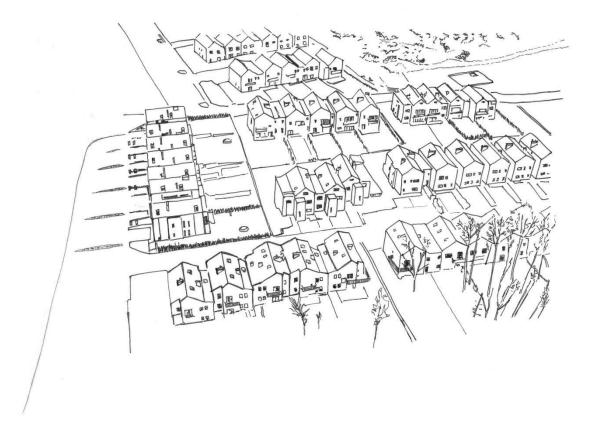


Figure 3 - Standardisation of landscape

2.3- From negation to destruction of landscape

Destruction is the final stage in the degradation of landscape. It occurs when the urbanisation of a district, neighbourhood, block or plot eliminates on a medium to long-term basis the intrinsic features of a landscape, which is completely negated by the urban planning choices made. Those choices are not based on endogenous specific features of the regions concerned or on the meaning of the places but

purely on separate exogenous factors that depend, in particular, on economic parameters. The aim of the advocates of this type of urbanism is usually to make the maximum profit from an area being available as building land and put up buildings there that claim to respond to local needs in terms of growth and development. The result is therefore a massive and brutal process which leaves its mark on the area concerned while imposing its timeframes. In so doing, the urbanisation in progress not only fails to fit into the existing overall landscape but also further contributes to the gradual and final erasure of its visible defining characteristics. It may, admittedly, give rise to an entirely different urban landscape with its own effects, amenities and impressions, but this takes place with disregard for the existence and perpetuation of another landscape that has already been formed. This process therefore raises real questions in heritage terms. For in order to satisfy expectations which in many respects may seem cyclical or perhaps even fleeting, it erases for good inherited regional structures reflected in landscapes that serve as links between places' pasts and presents. This total negation of landscape that can lead to its disappearance continues to be associated with tourism-related urbanisation, especially the kind found in coastal areas. In those areas, the tourist industry generates such great added value that it continues to be the driving force behind aggressive artificialisation of shorelines and surrounding landscapes.

Figure 4 shows this with a view of a coastal town. In this case, a small traditional fishing port has been completely transformed into a leading seaside resort. On the basis of permissive local development plans, a town of high-rise buildings geared entirely towards mass tourism has therefore sprung up. Its orthogonal urban layout perpendicular to the shoreline has been completely superimposed on the local landscape matrix. After much excavation work, a whole host of towers has been built along the coastline, not only erasing the heritage features of the site but also further restricting its links with the overall surrounding landscape. The town is focused on its tourist industry and has only very few landscape links with the mountains in its hinterland. Worse still, the beach and the sea seem to be confined to their functional and pleasure dimensions alone.

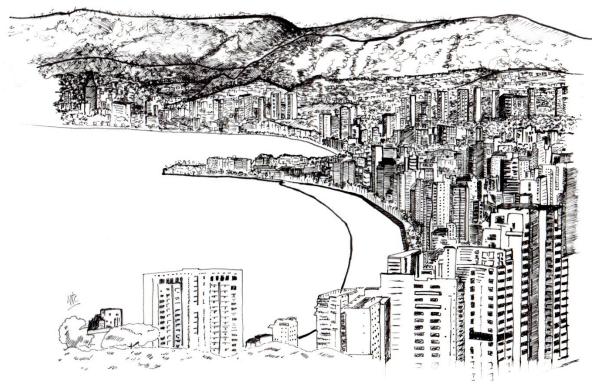


Figure 4 - Destruction of landscape

2.4- Degradation of urban landscapes as an indicator of environmental problems

The operating methods of contemporary urbanism, which therefore lie behind several types of landscape degradation, also cause serious environmental problems, in particular the dramatic erosion of the various forms of urban nature and the related biodiversity. Urbanisation therefore clearly poses the same difficulties and the same threats to landscape and the environment. Although the two belong to separate conceptual fields, they may accordingly be looked at together. What is more, the deterioration of landscapes within different urban areas may, in many respects, be regarded as indicative of a decline of varying degrees in their ecological functionalities and wealth. For instance, the privatisation of an urban natural landscape clearly involves the closing off of an environment which may ultimately lead to the formation of an ecological isolate that is threatened by its confinement. Similarly, the debasement of an urban landscape made up in part of various natural spaces clearly demonstrates the fragmentation of the environment and hence the undermining of its ecological functionality. Lastly, it goes without saying that the destruction of a natural landscape as a result of urbanisation inevitably entails the disappearance of the related habitats. Conversely, public policies and planning and design strategies to promote landscape are often guarantors for improved biodiversity. Against a background of environmental crises, landscape and ecology therefore involve common approaches which need to be dealt with jointly under new kinds of urban development practices.

~

3- Landscape as the foundation, means and purpose of a new type of urbanism

The ways in which contemporary urbanism operates have negative effects on landscapes, therefore. Worrying though it is, this fact alone is no justification or defence for the futile notion that all urbanisation should come to a grinding and permanent halt. Confining landscape, in the name of protecting it, to a vision that is not only overly static (because landscape is a dynamic space, in a perpetual state of flux) but also excessively naïve about urban realities (because landscape cannot be considered in opposition to the growing needs of populations in terms of housing and activities) is not the answer. What might be conceivable, however, are urban development approaches that are more respectful of landscape. The notion is not outlandish. Particularly as, in the past, a few leading figures in the world of design have worked hard to bring about just such a rapprochement. A long way from the schools of thought that, to a large extent, still dominate planning and design, a handful of theoretical propositions, some more recent than others, continue, moreover, to influence what could be described as consciously landscape-oriented experiments in urbanism. It is only fitting, therefore, that we should examine at least some of these here. The aim is first and foremost to shine a light on new modi operandi that are friendly to landscape, with the latter now being seen as the interface between anthropic and ecological issues.

3.1- The pioneers of dialogue between urbanism and landscape

Although the dialogue between urbanism and landscape is of particular relevance today, it does not stem from a way of thinking set exclusively in the present. Over the course of the history of urban development, various prominent theorists and practitioners of urban and landscape architecture have erected bridges between these two areas of application, transcending sterile disciplinary boundaries and contributing to the rapprochement in question through their projects. With the construction in the 17th century of the gardens of Versailles and the promenade known today as the Champs-Élysées, the landscape gardener André Le Nôtre is credited by some with having ushered in a "greener" kind of urbanism. It was not until the 19th century, however, that this type of landscape design became mainstream and spawned multiple applications throughout Europe. In Spain, for example, the pioneer of contemporary urbanism, Ildefonso Cerdà, with his holistic view of the city, introduced the motto "ruralise what is urban, urbanise what is rural", on which his 1859 plan for the expansion of Barcelona (Ensanche) was based. In the Paris of the Second Empire and Haussmann, meanwhile, Alphand and Barillet-Deschamps were devising innovative landscaping projects. The public spaces they created, including numerous parks (the Bois de Boulogne and the Bois de Vincennes, Parc Monceau, Parc des Buttes-Chaumont), established an urban archetype that was exported throughout Europe. It endured in

various forms throughout the first half of the 20th century, notably through the major town planning schemes implemented by the Englishman Raymond Unwin or France's Jean Claude Nicolas Forestier and Henri Prost, whose work on park systems was inspired by the parkways of the American Frederick Law Olmsted. Around the same time, in England, Ebenezer Howard came up with an original scheme to create veritable "garden cities", combining the benefits of town and countryside, based on his "Three Magnets" diagram. Published in 1898, the latter became popular in Europe, influencing the construction of neighbourhoods and towns where built and non-built spaces tended to fuse together in equilibrium. In a way, this experience foreshadowed the work of designers who, after the Second World War, would help to build or redevelop suburban housing estates, using landscape as the blueprint for creating a high-quality living environment. Bernard Lassus, Michel Corajoud and Jacques Simon were just some of the great French landscape designers who worked on projects of this kind. Today, various theories of urbanism are once again looking to the landscape for answers to the challenges of peri-urbanisation and metropolisation.

3.2- The garden metropolis: landscape as the foundation, means and purpose of planning

Among the various promising ideas that framed the emergence of landscape planning is that of the "garden metropolis", an almost forgotten concept from the French spatial planning of the "Trente Glorieuses" (the 30-year period from 1945 to 1975). Although formulated 50 years ago by the Organisation d'Etudes d'Aménagement de la Loire Moyenne (OREALM) in the specific context of the development of the mid-Loire area, and although relatively unsuccessful in terms of its implementation, this concept has real relevance today. As an oxymoron, it dares to bring together two terms that refer to ostensibly contradictory territorial realities: the metropolis on the one hand, understood as a vast urban network characterised by complexity, speed and flows, and the garden on the other hand, understood as a narrowly circumscribed place, the defining features of which are simplicity, slowness and intimacy. As a project, the garden metropolis concept offered, from the outset, a way to combine the possibilities afforded by the infinitely large with the comfort implicit in the infinitely small. From 1968 onwards, the cities of Orléans, Blois and Tours thus expanded within an interdependent metropolitan network known as the Paris Basin, because it was linked to the capital by a high-speed mode of transport: Jean Bertin's aerotrain. At the same time, the principle of green belts began to find its way into spatial planning, thus heralding the notion of "strategic gaps". The garden metropolis experiment was also among the first spatial projects to formally embrace landscape as a design opportunity on such a vast scale, devising landscape planning responses tailored to local conditions and drawing on the services of a new breed of professional: the landscaper-cum-planner.

In retrospect, therefore, the concept of the garden-metropolis can be seen as forward-looking, stimulating and wholly suited to the spatial and environmental challenges of our era. Reinterpreting it in the current context, then, requires us to create a link between design processes that are now metropolitan in scale and environmentally-friendly ways of thinking about spatial development. In this respect, the garden metropolis posits landscape not only as a means of questioning, or even transcending, traditional relationships with nature, but also as the foundation, means and purpose of planning and urbanism. The garden metropolis accordingly makes landscape the matrix of the everyday metropolitan environment but also uses the garden as a hallmark of the "liveability" of complex and composite urban spaces. Indeed, in the garden metropolis, landscape is embodied in the garden. The latter then becomes the reflection of a desire for change in the way we think about and manage nature, in general, and the living, in particular, within metropolitan areas. For metropolisation as we know it today produces, incorporates and adds built and non-built spaces of very different types and functions. This diversity typically results in piecemeal and partial approaches as well as sectoral policies that prevent all aspects of nature and biodiversity from being treated in a coherent and joined-up fashion. Building on this observation, the garden metropolis project invites us to take an overarching view of nature and biodiversity, through the prism of the garden. Whatever their scale or situation, these elements of nature are, in effect, fully-fledged components of the vast metropolitan garden: they function as a network on the ecological level and interact with one another on the landscape level. It makes sense to treat them, therefore, with the same gentle care one would bestow on a garden, respecting their distinctiveness but also considering them as part of the territorial whole. To do that, it is necessary to reconnect with a development-oriented landscaping based on the transdisciplinarity of landscape sciences.

3.3- Ecological planning: knowledge of landscape as a basis for effecting change within territories

Ecological planning is a method of developing spatial planning projects that was invented in the 1960s. It was first articulated in Design with Nature (1969) by the teacher and practitioner Ian McHarg, who founded the Department of Landscape Architecture at the University of Pennsylvania.

The ecological planning approach marks a turning point in the history of planning, in that it substituted, very early on, the values associated with a certain ethic of care for the environment for the traditional aesthetic principles of urban and spatial development. It accordingly advocates a thorough knowledge of nature and, indeed, a real recognition of the functions that nature performs within the urbanisation process. To do this, it uses mapping not only as an element in the analysis of any given territory (prerequisite for action) but also as a tool for producing a design (purpose of the action). In terms of spatial analysis, the map becomes, in effect, an instrument for cross-referencing different layers of information gleaned from expert evaluations spanning a range of scientific disciplines (geography, sociology, economics, ecology, hydrology, pedology, etc.). In this respect, ecological planning prefigured the landscape studies that are carried out today using Geographic Information Systems (GIS). These layers of data are thus superimposed to produce a multi-criteria spatial analysis from which decisions about land-use can then flow. The principal advantage of the latter is that they make it possible to blend, or even balance, within the same territorial framework, human needs and ecological considerations. In terms of design, this method has a profoundly deductive character that sets it apart from more traditionally inductive landscape approaches.

The ecological planning approach has been applied in numerous projects in the United States and has attracted the interest of European planners, particularly in France, at the Société du Canal de Provence, where it has directly inspired the development of Toulon-Est and the new town of Vitrolles.

3.4- From sociotopes to bio-sociotopes: the importance of natural areas as a basis for landscape planning

In reference to the biotope, the sociotope is defined as "a place as it is used by people". This concept is a result of the joint work of two Swedish landscape architects: Alexander Ståhle and Anders Sandberg. It was first trialled from 1996 to 2002, as part of the Stockholm planning process. The sociotope method thus seeks to encourage the development of parks and natural spaces, while at the same time allowing for urban densification and growth. The first step involves compiling an inventory of all the natural areas within a given territory (inter-municipality, municipality, districts, etc.). The second step is to consult experts who, using a standardised observation protocol, determine the ways in which each place identified in the inventory, each sociotope, is used and, most importantly, the social value placed on those spaces. The third step is to carry out a survey of users in an effort to determine the real value of the areas in question, whether tangible (practices) or intangible (perceptions). Building on this, the fourth stage in the sociotope method involves producing a synthesis in the form of a map: a map of the sociotopes. This map can then help to reveal landscapes and urban places through the uses that are made of them. Above all, it enables the relevant local actors to make planning decisions: to increase density in areas that have low social value or, conversely, to create, protect and improve the functioning of natural areas that users cherish.

Since its early days in Stockholm, the sociotope method has influenced the development of various urban areas, particularly in France with the adoption of town planning documents. It has proved an effective way to give social meaning to the spatial imperatives of schemes involving ecological corridors

or "green and blue" belts, helping to highlight the practices and perceptions associated with natural areas that contribute to the ecological functioning of the territory. In this respect, the sociotope method can, in principle, be seen as a way to balance nature and culture within the planning process. By placing the use value at the centre of the spatial decision-making process, however, it can also appear to derive from a somewhat anthropocentric viewpoint. For that reason, some recommend supplementing this approach with a more fine-grained analysis of the ecological functioning of the natural areas identified. Between use values and ecological values, the bio-sociotope method thus created would pave the way for landscape planning choices that satisfy both natural and human imperatives.

3.5- The urban bioregion: the territorialist approach as a method of landscape planning

The bioregion, as originally conceived by Peter Berg and Raymond Dasmann, refers to an area defined not by policy choices but by its own natural characteristics and inhabited, with profound respect for ecological balances, by communities both human and non-human. The product of a 1970s American eco-anarchist movement (bio-regionalism), the concept tends to emphasise ways of life that are fully attuned and attentive to the natural wealth of the places where they are pursued.

Neither these origins nor this meaning are usually associated with bioregionalism, however. The publication of "A Biorregião Urbana — Pequeno Tratado sobre o Território, Bem Comum" (The urban bioregion. A short treatise on the territory as a common good) by the Italian architect, urban planner and researcher Alberto Magnaghi (Magnaghi, 2014), left its imprint on the concept, without, however, following on directly from the early writings of American bioregionalists. The resulting definition, indeed, owes far more to a vision influenced by the Italian territorialist school. As a new type of approach to planning, the latter considers territory as the basic unit of development that is firmly anchored in the local (Magnaghi, 2003). It is thus based on highlighting and utilising its specific resources, whether social, cultural, political, economic or natural. Viewed from a territorialist perspective, therefore, the region becomes a reference scale, a common good which, through its size, ensures positive and dynamic interactions between the urban and rural components of the space lived in. In this sense, it is held up as an alternative to the metropolis and its generalised urbanisation model. By creating within its midst the necessary conditions for balance between its component environments, furthermore, the region defended by the territorialist approach is a bioregion. Its functioning and development are enhanced by respect for local ecological diversity and landscapes.

In concrete terms, the concept of the urban bioregion has already influenced the planning of certain metropolitan areas where polycentrism and polyculture feature prominently. It provides an opportunity to draw on multidisciplinary territorial diagnoses and to make planning choices appropriate to the scale of the territory, which can then be translated into urban planning documents. Local stakeholders generally display an interest in landscape issues in discussions about creating ecological corridors or "green and blue" belts.

3.6- Landscape urbanism: landscape as a driving force in urban design

Heavily influenced by the thinking of Ian McHarg, landscape urbanism is closely linked to the theoretical work of Charles Waldheim, James Corner and Mohsen Mostafavi, American instructors, practitioners and theorists. It is also associated with the publication of a collective reference work: the Landscape Urbanism Reader (2000). Compared to previous offerings, the landscape urbanism approach is far more design- than planning-oriented. By replacing architecture with landscape as the basic building block of towns and cities, it offers a more radically ecological vision of development. Although its boundaries are still fluid, landscape urbanism is a new form of urbanism, therefore, one characterised by the close attention paid, at the design stage, to the inherent features of the sites and the landscape systems already in place. An attempt to provide joined-up responses to the anthropic and environmental imperatives of our age, it requires us to think and act in ways that reach across the nature/culture divide.

To that end, it draws on a few basic tenets:

- Better suited to today's environmental context, landscape is replacing architecture as the basic building block for towns and cities.
- Landscape is a source of potential and opportunities.
- Landscape is a context which contains architecture and engineering.
- Landscape makes a connection between its various components.
- Landscape urbanism is a response to complex territorial, urban and ecological situations.
- Spilling over the perimeter of the site to encompass the landscape as a whole, landscape urbanism works for projects of any scale, from the smallest to the largest.
- Far from being nostalgic or backward-looking, landscape urbanism rejects the dichotomy between city and landscape and treats them as one.
- Landscape urbanism provides opportunities for social interaction.
- Landscape urbanism promotes interaction, or even hybridisation, between natural and engineered systems.
- Landscape urbanism is concerned with both the functioning and the appearance of a project.
- Landscape urbanism is concerned with revealing the invisible, especially infrastructure.

Although still not widely used by urban development actors, landscape urbanism echoes ways of thinking and doing that have long been part of landscaping practice and has its roots in an "urbanism of revelation", meaning approaches which tap into the substratum and the reality of the site to allow the project to emerge, and to establish the principles by which it will evolve over time. In this respect, some consider that the work of prominent French figures in international landscape architecture, such as Bernard Lassus, Michel Corajoud or Michel Desvigne, springs directly from landscape urbanism.

N

4- Ten principles for a new, landscape-based urbanism

Contrary to what is actually happening on the ground, the few theoretical and practical propositions discussed above thus testify to the possible marriage between urbanism and landscape. Better still, quite apart from their illustrative value, these examples show that landscape is indeed the foundation, means and purpose of a new kind of urbanism, that is to say, one capable of integrating both the human needs and the ecological imperatives of the time. Building on the lessons that they offer, it then becomes possible to identify ten organising principles for this new, landscape-based urbanism.

4.1- Landscape as a way of thinking and acting beyond nature and culture

Amid environmental emergencies such as the dramatic erosion of biodiversity, it is becoming necessary to rethink the relationship between humans and nature. This imperative is particularly acute in the disciplines that go into making territories and towns, where the built-in obsolescence of the corpus of conceptual and design-related knowledge surely calls for a major ecological update. After all, urbanisation is still unfolding in ways that are greatly to the detriment of environmental balance or, worse, sustainability. This state of affairs is undoubtedly the result of distinctly western considerations that draw a sharp line between nature and culture and put humans at the centre of the universe. Recent reflective advances, most notably by the eminent anthropologist Philippe Descola, invite us to temper these notions, however. First and foremost, they urge us to regard the distinction between nature and culture as a simple cultural and social construct that must be overcome in order to create a more balanced relationship with the environment. Liberated from the excessive anthropocentrism that still too often permeates current thinking, such an assertion requires us to cast off traditional patterns of thought that pit, for example, human interests against environmental ones, good species against bad species, or extraordinary nature against ordinary nature. It makes sense, in that context, to proceed with humility

and to seek to create a genuine ethic in urban planning and design that embraces all living things, i.e. to invent ways of thinking about and "doing" urbanisation that meet the needs of humans without totally compromising those of other species in the process. The right channel for expressing this kind of approach which, today, too often meets with doubts and hesitations on the part of stakeholders trapped in outmoded conceptions, still remains to be found, however.

Certainly, landscape has the potential to provide such a channel. Based as it is on a system of perceptions both individual and collective, it can be the instrument that individuals, social groups and societies turn to in order not only to think about these needs on a global scale, but also to understand and undertake ecological changes within their local area. The growing interest evinced by urban societies in nature, biodiversity and ecology cannot, therefore, be divorced from concern for the landscape. On that basis, public policies and planning or urban development strategies that seek to maintain and develop urban biodiversity (such as ecological corridors or "green and blue" belts) should gain in effectiveness from being approached from the integrative perspective of landscape. At local level, strictly ecological approaches to development are still too often perceived, by those involved in spatial development, as veritable injunctions that prioritise natural balances over human needs. Landscape approaches, on the other hand, command far greater consensus, as landscape is perceived in a sufficiently diverse way to be grasped by everyone and to ultimately emerge as a mediator between ecological imperatives and the anthropic needs of a particular territory. Embodying the interactions between natural and human factors, landscape cannot now simply be about schemes where the only considerations are aesthetic, when it has economic, social, cultural, environmental, ecological, political and ethical dimensions as well. In matters of urban planning and design, it thus calls for a radically new kind of urbanism, one that thinks and acts beyond the nature/culture divide.

4.2- Engage with the history and geography of a territory: landscape as the basis for a new type of urbanism

On the territorial and local level, landscape is the visible and tangible result of how each local community has, throughout history, interpreted the geography it inhabits. For a long time, humans have known how to care for the physical characteristics of their environment (climate, soil, altitude, vegetation, etc.) in order to derive maximum benefit from it, and to maintain landscapes that reflect their attachment to their particular piece of Earth. The new type of urbanism that is proposed here must rekindle this sense of dwelling and of symbiosis. For, because they are happening at speed in landscapes that were formed only slowly, the forms of urbanisation that we are seeing today are very often at odds with the territorial dynamics that went before them. They seek to graft on to the local level globalised approaches to urban development that tend not only to erase the distinctive features of a place, but also to impose bland urban compositions that obscure the area's trajectories and legacies of the past and smooth its rough edges.

In order to put an end to these pernicious ways, what is needed is an urbanism based on relationships that are always set in the context of the landscape. This can be achieved through a series of highly practical measures, such as, for example, combating the homogenisation of buildings by supporting local suppliers of materials. First and foremost, it can be accomplished through new ways of thinking and doing. In this respect, landscape needs to be considered as the foundation, means and end of a new approach to urban development. The latter should thus create a link between the geography and history of territories and places. That does not mean slavishly copying that which already exists, producing cartoonish replicas of local and regional features while at the same time employing standardised means of construction. On the contrary, it means coming up with an innovative type of urbanism that, in both style and substance, follows on from what is already there, in keeping with the territory's dynamics, yet in harmony with its landscapes. For that to happen, there clearly has to be a re-evaluation of current ways of "doing" urban development, which, little by little is being turned over to private operators who are far more concerned about profitability and returns than they are about integrating and contextualising their work. Without necessarily doing away with these mechanisms, it is important to give public stakeholders greater control by inventing forms of urbanism that rethink landscape planning and design. It seems sensible, in that context, to refocus attention on the part played by craftsmen such as architects, town planners and landscapers in contemporary urban development, amid the growing dominance of engineering, technology and finance. While evidence of this planning and design culture can still be seen in major operations carried out in city centres, it remains all too rare in peripheral urbanisation, despite the many landscape issues that the latter throws up. In this particular context, the challenge is to put intelligence, sensitivity and creativity back into the spatial development process as it relates not only to major landscapes, but also to everyday ones, for greater quality of life.

4.3- Develop/manage landscape in a way that supports urban nature

In order to counteract the excesses of contemporary urbanism, spatial development approaches will in future need to be supplemented, or even replaced, by others based on genuine landscape stewardship. This is particularly imperative where urban ecology is concerned. For while some planning methods conducive to the ecological functioning of urban areas (such as, for example, schemes involving ecological corridors or "green and blue" belts) have slowly begun to emerge, all too often these merely revolve around identifying, protecting and networking large tracts of remarkable, or even extraordinary nature. Urban planners, too, increasingly factor nature into town planning schemes. Various projects for rewilding the city are thus beginning to appear, including even in highly urbanised areas. The tendency in those cases is to seek to recreate nature and natural dynamics, including in places where before there were none. Such projects can be very costly and are apt to be highly horticultural in their approach. The focus is still on creating aesthetic effects with the help of a selection of plants rather than on setting in motion genuine ecological dynamics. At the same time, however, within the same areas, the same spatial development and town planning tools are being used to eliminate more ordinary examples of nature, for the purposes of human and urban development. These more ordinary examples include notably open spaces made up of "tiers paysage" (wasteland and overgrown areas) but also gardens. Within the same urban areas and often under the banner of sustainable development, we thus find ourselves in a paradoxical situation where nature is being artificially recreated in places where it did not exist before and "artificialised" in places where it was already alive and well.

The answer to this paradox produced by outdated attitudes to spatial planning lies in landscape stewardship, therefore. Gone are the days when space, land and nature could be treated as infinite resources, or goods to be consumed in unlimited quantities. There needs to be an awareness not merely of their usefulness but also of their great preciousness. The shift from spatial planning to landscape stewardship requires us to probe deeply into existing paradigms, even where these are regarded as practical solutions to the problem of sustainable territories. Consider, for example, densification, which is forever being held up as an urban solution to hypermobility and hence greenhouse gas emissions, but which is effectively a death sentence for urban open spaces, land that supports a wealth of ordinary nature with obvious ecological benefits. There also needs to be a change in how we view spaces and "ordinary" biodiversity of this type because, low-cost and low-maintenance, they provide multiple ecosystem services in the highly constrained setting that is the urban environment.

4.4- Discover and recognise the ecological value of urban landscapes

The processes of peri-urbanisation and metropolisation produce, incorporate and add not only "solids" (built spaces) but also "voids" (non-built spaces) of very different types and functions. These differences lead to piecemeal and partial approaches as well as sectoral policies that prevent all the features of a territory from being treated in a comprehensive and joined-up fashion. Mindful of this fact, the new kind of urbanism envisaged here proposes viewing them as a single entity, through the prism of landscape. Whatever their scale or situation, these features are, after all, a fully-fledged part of the territorial complexity: they function as a network and interact with one another in terms of landscape. It is important therefore to approach them with equal care, and without any preconceptions. In particular,

that means looking beyond the hierarchy that exists between the different elements of nature, distinguishing between "remarkable" nature and the more ordinary variety. For nature cannot serve a territory unless that territory, in turn, serves nature. Far from having a merely decorative function, then, nature should be considered in terms of its ecological functions, and in particular the mobility of its flora and fauna. Each natural feature, however small or mundane, thus needs to be understood, resituated and managed with due regard to its situation and role within the ecological network of the territory concerned. In urban planning, therefore, it is essential to challenge any preconceived hierarchies of space so that genuine ecological continuities can be established within the urban matrix.

To that end, landscape stewardship must be based on a full inventory of all natural phenomena and a better understanding of their characteristics, in order to devise planning and design responses that are thoroughly contextualised, i.e. wholly suited to the specific socio-ecological features of individual territories. These efforts to discover, and secure recognition of the value of, landscape must be undertaken without regard to the usual distinctions that are still made between the beautiful and the ugly, the useful and the useless, or the extraordinary and the ordinary. For example, it is important to map all wild areas, including open spaces such as wastelands, neglected areas, private gardens, etc. Resources (water, air, land) and their potential ecosystem services must be mapped too. In every instance, the aim is to increase understanding of these natural phenomena and their ecological functions at the territorial level, as they offer practical solutions to contemporary urban planning issues. Urban land, for example, is intimately bound up with the agricultural and food challenges of our era.

4.5- Discover and recognise the agronomic value of urban landscapes

Contrary to received ideas that pit them squarely against one another, cities and agriculture have, from the start, enjoyed a relationship based on reciprocity. This reciprocity has been more in evidence at certain times in history than at others, however. In Europe, poor transport links meant that, until around the time of the Second World War, the primary function of the agricultural suburbs was to supply city dwellers with fresh produce. In return, the areas in question benefited from inflows of capital and organic material from the city. After the Second World War, however, these interdependencies dwindled. The development of transport links paved the way for the arrival, on urban markets, of foodstuffs from specialised production areas, located further and further afield. As a result, cities and agriculture drifted apart, physically and symbolically speaking. In this context, intra- and peri-urban agricultural areas quickly came to be seen as land banks, destined for urban development. With the health and farming crises of the 1990s, however (most notably "mad cow" disease), agriculture once again became not only a societal but also very much an urban issue. Since then, in the eyes of a growing band of city dwellers, it has acquired new roles beyond simply production. Ensuring quality merchandise, promoting food and drink, focusing attention on the land and traditional know-how, maintaining quality of life and the environment – these are some of the tasks which many urban dwellers look to agriculture to perform. Expectations are particularly high when it comes to the cultivated areas they know best and frequent the most: intra-urban, peri-urban and metropolitan agricultural areas. Echoing this trend, many eminently urban local authorities are attempting to implement policies for the maintenance, management and development of these areas, mainly for food-related purposes.

Commendable though these policies are, they still tend to address agriculture in a sectoral and piecemeal way. In the absence of a generic approach to the issue, they lead to approaches that are either economic, or social or environmental, and so create divisions between stakeholders. Here again, though, landscape can be leveraged for its capacity to be a factor in integration, including spatial integration. For the urbanisation process that is happening today encompasses different sorts of agricultural areas. Those responsible for managing urban landscapes should use this opportunity, therefore, to develop a genuinely local agriculture that addresses various food-related challenges. That includes, for example, reducing the carbon footprint of supply chains while at the same time reducing big cities' dependence (they currently store enough only for a few days) on far-flung sources. It also includes satisfying growing

social expectations, both in terms of local agricultural produce, identified as healthy and superior in quality, and in terms of providing an opportunity to reconnect directly with the soil. Any effort to manage urban landscape responsibly should focus, therefore, on maintaining and developing existing farms by putting them back in touch with local consumers (short, localised supply chains) and by encouraging them to embrace ever more environmentally friendly practices. At the same time, new forms of appropriation by businesses and local residents in intra-urban areas should be encouraged, by setting aside space for experimentation with urban farming. Above all, attention should be paid to protecting the land, a territorial common good in the true sense of the term. All too often, the tendency among those involved in town planning is still to treat land merely as plots capable of hosting urbanisation, whereas in reality it is a resource and a place that supports multiple ecosystem services, not least biomass production and biodiversity maintenance. Understood as an efficient means of reinventing urbanism, urban landscape stewardship thus calls for the development of transdisciplinary approaches to the different forms of nature in towns and cities, including the land.

4.6- Develop transdisciplinary approaches to landscape

Understood as a factor in the integration and interlinkage of anthropic and ecological issues, in favour of a new type of urbanism, landscape should be seen as a generic response to various spatial challenges. Having to contend not only with the complexity of the urban phenomenon, but also with that of a multifaceted nature, which provides numerous ecosystem services, it calls for diverse skills and approaches that span both scientific (life sciences as well as human and social sciences) and operational and technical fields (project-related specialities). What are required, then, are decompartmentalised, multi- or interdisciplinary initiatives, that combine various perspectives on urban reality but also, and perhaps above all, transdisciplinary approaches capable of hybridising knowledge and know-how, in order to think across traditional boundaries and have a structural impact within territories.

Landscape, therefore, must cease to be the purview of a small number of specialists and instead become the common basis for reflection and action by the various stakeholders involved in making towns and cities. For this to happen, the scientific and professional disciplines called upon to participate in the development of a new approach to urban planning and design must be encouraged to embrace a genuine landscape culture. That in turn requires efforts in terms of education and training. Landscape should thus become a cross-cutting subject capable of generating interest among architects, town planners and landscapers in urban ecology and, conversely, of sensitising environmental experts to the mechanics of urbanisation. Drawing on this shared culture, both sides must be able to respond to the current challenges of spatial development and land stewardship. It would seem vital that such disciplinary cross-fertilisation be fostered within the framework of research and training programmes in higher education. In particular, efforts should be made to run joint courses on landscape, but also workshops that look at how landscape fits into urbanism in practice. For example, urban ecology and agronomy should be developed as an integral part of planning and design. It is also important that this transdisciplinary landscape culture move out of the realm of theory and be tested against local and regional realities. It thus needs to become a genuine requirement in town planning schemes, including notably those commissioned by public authorities, but also in development projects involving private operators. To this end, the process of acculturation to landscape, synonymous with an updating of existing practices, should be available to those in the business of making towns and cities throughout their careers, whether they work on the commissioning side or on the project management side. Landscape, indeed, should build on the closer relationship between these two hemispheres of contemporary urbanism and, consequently, make for greater reciprocity between planning and design.

4.7- Posit landscape as a link between planning and design

One notable cause of the adverse landscape effects arising from contemporary urbanisation lies in the disconnect that exists to a certain extent between urban planning, organised around the public sector,

and urban design, organised around private firms. The preserve of local authorities which are gradually stepping back from the hands-on business of building towns and cities, urban planning is still apt to appear incongruous or out of place, not least because it imposes, at local level, ways of enforcing laws, rules and measures that were designed with a larger scale in mind. It continues, moreover, to be expressed through town planning documents which, despite some changes, are typically still guided by zoning considerations about what can and cannot be built on, far more so than by considerations relating to design. At the same time, urban design is increasingly dominated by private businesses, primarily developers, who have to attend to their own economic and financial needs while also serving the interests of the community. In effect, the process by which towns and cities are currently formed is torn between different imperatives which are not only expressed in a disordered manner but also tend to accentuate the gap between those who commission projects and those who implement them.

In this context, landscape can be the common thread in an innovative approach to design that transcends scales and actors. As a tool that operates on every scale, from the territorial to the local, landscape effectively channels complementary positions that need careful co-ordinating. As such, it must be based on a proper linkage between urban planning and urban design. For without this complementarity, it is not possible to involve each element of the landscape in the workings of the territory and the natural environment. As a transversal tool, landscape also calls for more dialogue between enlightened contracting authorities and project managers willing to enlighten. In matters such as these, development/stewardship projects cannot truly succeed unless they are properly commissioned in the first place. Because of the territorial and ecological complexities involved in landscapes today, therefore, we are seeing a return to the practice of development-oriented landscaping, where landscape is addressed on a territorial scale, especially within contracting authorities, in order to plan and create conditions for projects that respect the balance between human needs and the ecological requirements of our age. The revival of development-oriented landscaping, which is to be welcomed, should thus give rise to landscape planning which, by working with and for landscape, creates a real bridge between top-down regulatory approaches and bottom-up territorial ones. In other words, landscape planning should help to give tangible form and context, according to local features, to the main tenets of land stewardship. It should also create conditions for the emergence and oversight of development operations which, far from spoiling the landscape, enhance it.

4.8- Encourage the emergence, through landscape, of new urban forms based on the hybridisation of city and nature

Calling for a new kind of urbanism, one that ensures a degree of equity between all living things, and, consequently, is concerned with landscape balance, does not mean advocating a static view of territories, however. Ever evolving, the latter require dynamic development/stewardship approaches that are forever adapting to human and ecological needs. It is not a case of denying, under the guise of protecting landscapes and the ecosystems they contain, the real urbanisation needs generated by steady growth of the urban population. But nor is it a question of abandoning those landscapes and ecosystems to anthropocentric demands alone. Clearly what is required, then, is to forge urban planning approaches that seek to reconcile urbanisation and land stewardship, including at the level of individual projects and operations.

To this end, landscape can be harnessed as the foundation, means and purpose of a new kind of urbanism. It should thus serve as a permanent reference point in the process of designing and executing operations. Once again, it is not a matter of imposing stunted, nostalgic or retrograde visions of development. On the contrary, it is about trawling the geography and history of the territory for ideas for compositions and construction that follow on from, and are in harmony with, that which already exists, while at the same time responding effectively to the ecological imperatives of our age. As the common thread running through the project, landscape must respond to the needs of the population in terms of activities, housing and mobility, while fully respecting local natural resources. The days of sacrificing spaces and species on the altar of supposedly sustainable development are over. Looking after the land requires radical paradigm shifts in terms of growth and how we achieve it. Protecting natural areas is not enough on its own. A sort of rewilding of the existing built fabric is also required. Land stewardship accordingly

calls for innovative urban regeneration projects that define new forms of hybridisation between city and nature. In effect, the process by which towns and cities are formed must be fully informed by the ecological workings of the territories that host them. It must also meet social expectations in terms of quality of life and surroundings, a quality that is now inextricably bound up with the quality of the landscape.

4.9- Engage with everyday landscapes in order to include those who live there in town planning decisions

Fraught with negative consequences for the landscape, the urbanisation process happening today is not solely a reflection of the priorities of local authorities or private businesses involved in urban development. It also owes a great deal to social aspirations about how territories are inhabited. In many respects, these aspirations can appear paradoxical, increasingly seeking contact with a glorified nature yet at the same time contributing to its destruction, through the ways in which they are expressed in urban development, especially the centrifugal kind. In this context, land stewardship unquestionably offers a way to improve residents' awareness of the environmental and ecological issues at stake. And once again, landscape can be an excellent vehicle for this. The kind of landscapes that are envisaged here, however, are not outstanding, consisting of remarkable or even extraordinary features, but rather the far more mundane landscapes that form the backdrop to residents' everyday lives, and indeed define their sensitive relationship with the land.

These ordinary, everyday landscapes are, after all, the prism through which residents' attachment to the environment, as perceived and experienced, is determined. And it is through them, therefore, that potential levers for mobilising and training citizens to be good stewards of the land can begin to emerge. On that basis, these ordinary, everyday landscapes should ultimately come to be seen as a spatialised reflection of the willingness to look after nature in general and living things in particular. In a new-style urban planning/design project, that implies that, despite their diversity, all those with a stake in the territory should be able to engage symbolically or physically with the different elements that make up local landscapes. Symbolically, that means generating attachment and empathy for these different components. Physically, it means introducing design and management methods and practices that are more respectful of all types of landscapes among those who have a direct stake in them: urban and regional development actors, managers, local residents, etc. It also means supporting or encouraging wider social appropriation. For that to happen, a genuine landscape culture needs to be fostered among the general public. And the way to achieve such democratisation is through education. Landscape education thus needs to be available from the earliest age and continue throughout life. Because, for citizens, studying the landscape is undoubtedly a key to understanding the world they live in and the piece of Earth they call home. At a time when the tendency in urbanism is to seek to include inhabitants in its design methods, landscape would thus appear to be an effective means of achieving this objective. not only revealing what is at stake for local areas caught up in global changes, but also giving them a dynamic vision of themselves. In this respect, the emergence of a civic culture of landscape should help to instil bottom-up urban planning and design approaches that are fully mindful of the imperatives of our time and build on territories' geographical and historical foundations, without getting trapped in rigid and backward-looking considerations about the realities on the ground.

4.10- Recognise land and landscape stewardship as a political project

The advent of land stewardship rests on social and political choices that represent a radical departure from the way things are done today. Is it simply a utopian fantasy, however? The fact is that this new way of conceiving and approaching urban planning and design does indeed provide tangible and realistic solutions to the issues raised by the environmental emergencies of our time. Better still, it can be the common thread that draws a territorial project together, a sort of roadmap with which to navigate the uncertainties currently surrounding urban planning and design. With land stewardship, indeed, landscape becomes not only a means to question, or even transcend, traditional relationships with nature, but also the foundation, means and purpose of an urbanism that is in tune with the imperatives of our

time. This resolutely political project thus makes landscape the new matrix of the living environment. It also uses it to denote the "liveability" of urban spaces that are increasingly reticular and composite. In a project of this type, indeed, landscape is understood as the spatial expression of more muted nature/culture relationships, or ones where the dualism has been eliminated altogether. In this respect, land stewardship based on a new, landscape-based urbanism calls, here and now, for clear and responsible policy choices. The task of making those choices will fall, in the first instance, to all the bodies that represent people at every territorial level and, consequently, to the men and women who were democratically elected to bring about much-needed paradigm shifts.

Conclusion

In all European countries, the intense urbanisation happening today is the result of the centrifugal forces behind urban sprawl (peri-urbanisation and metropolisation) but also the centripetal forces behind densification. In some areas, it is still linked to burgeoning tourism. Driven by rationales that are increasingly shaped by the private sector, this large-scale urbanisation is invariably closely correlated with the, often brutal, operating methods of contemporary urban planning and design. Their combined effects thus tend to be felt extremely rapidly in landscapes that were formed only very slowly. This change of pace is responsible for shifts in the landscape that are as notable as they are harmful: privatisation, decontextualisation, homogenisation, negation or even destruction of landscapes. These negative dynamics invariably cause severe environmental problems, foremost among them the dramatic erosion of the different forms of urban nature and their biodiversity.

Although they belong to distinct conceptual fields, landscape and ecology, in the current context of environmental emergency, have a common rationale that demands they be addressed in tandem within new-style urban planning and design practices. Better still, as a few proposals, some more recent than others, have shown, landscape can provide a real link between anthropic and ecological issues. Because it is based on a system of perceptions that are both individual and collective, landscape can be the instrument individuals, social groups and societies turn to in order to think about environmental needs globally and tackle environmental change locally. Landscape, then, can be an effective means of moving from a development-based mindset to one centred on stewardship of the land. It can also be the common thread in innovative design approaches that transcend scales and actors. As a tool that works from the territorial to the local level, landscape provides a focal point for complementary positions and a proper linkage between urban planning and design. For all these reasons, it is eminently capable of being harnessed as the foundation, means and purpose of new urban planning and design practices. These in turn should serve to ensure design and management methods that are more respectful of all types of landscapes, including the most ordinary. They should also provide channels for broad appropriation by all those who have a direct stake in those landscapes; regional and urban development actors, managers and above all local residents. Achieving this is a case not simply of fostering a transdisciplinary culture of landscape, but also of spreading that culture among the wider population.

The advent of land stewardship approaches based on a new kind of urbanism thus demands clear and responsible policy choices involving, first and foremost, the States Parties to the Council of Europe's European Landscape Convention. In matters such as these, after all, the latter have consistently shown their capacity for anticipation and commitment, and their ability to serve as a role model and a showcase.

Bibliography

Alonso W., 1964, Location and Land Use, Harvard University Press, Cambridge Mass.

Alphand J.-C. A., 1867-1873, Les Promenades de Paris, Paris, Rothschild.

Ascher F., 1995, Métapolis ou l'avenir des villes, Paris, O. Jacob.

Bauer G., Baudez G., Roux J-M., 1980, Banlieues de charme ou l'art des quartiers-jardins, Aix-en-Provence, Pandora.

Bauer G., Roux J.-M., 1976, La rurbanisation ou la ville éparpillée, Paris, le Seuil.

Béal V., 2014, "Trendsetting cities": les modèles à l'heure des politiques urbaines néolibérales - Métropolitiques [WWW Document], URL: https://www.metropolitiques.eu/Trendsetting-cities-les-modeles-a-l-heure-des-politiques-urbaines-neoliberales.html.

Berger M., Fruit J.-P., Plet F., Robic M.-C., 1980, "Rurbanisation et analyse des espaces ruraux périurbains", l'Espace Géographique, No. 4, p. 303-313.

Berger M., Gillette C., Robic M.-C., 1997, "L'étude des espaces ruraux en France à travers trois quarts de siècle de recherche géographique", Strates, URL: http://journals.openedition.org/strates/634.

Berlan-Darque M., Luginbühl Y, Terrasson D., 2007, Landscapes: From Knowledge to Action, Paris, Editions QUAE.

Berry L., Dauvergne P., 1973, "Introduction du facteur paysager dans les plans d'occupation des sols de la Métropole-Jardin", Urbanisme, No. 138, p. 32-33.

Besse J-M., 2009, Le Goût du monde: exercices de paysage, Arles, Actes Sud.

Bigando E., 2006, La sensibilité au paysage ordinaire des habitants de la grande périphérie bordelaise (communes du Médoc et de la basse vallée de l'Isle), thèse, Université Michel de Montaigne - Bordeaux III.

Bigando E., Bercovitz R., 2012, "Paysage en partage, partage des savoirs. Le paysage comme clé de la participation habitante dans le projet de création d'un Parc Naturel Urbain des berges du Gave de Pau", Fondation Braillard architectes.

Blanc N., 2009, "Vers un urbanisme écologique?", Urbia, No. 8, p. 39-60.

Blanchart A., Consalès J.N., Séré G., Schwartz C., 2019, "Consideration of soil in urban planning documents – a French case study", Journal of Soils and Sediments 19, p. 3235–3244, https://doi.org/10.1007/s11368-018-2028-x.

Blanchart A., Séré G., Cherel J., Warot G., Stas M., Consalès J.N., Schwartz, C., 2017, "Contribution des sols à la production de services écosystémiques en milieu urbain – une revue", Eue 11. https://doi.org/10.7202/1050486ar.

Blanchon B., 1999, "Les paysagistes français de 1945 à 1975, l'ouverture des espaces urbains", Annales de la recherche urbaine, No. 85, p. 20-29, URL: https://www.persee.fr/doc/aru_0180-930x_1999_num_85_1_2275.

Blanchon, B., "Pratiques et compétences paysagistes dans les grands ensembles d'habitation, 1945-1975", Strates, No. 13, 2007, URL: https://journals.openedition.org/strates/5723?lang=en.

Bonerandi E., Landel P.A., Roux E., 2003, "Les espaces intermédiaires, forme hybride: ville en campagne, campagne en ville", Revue de géographie alpine, Vol. 91, No. 4, p. 67-79.

Bonneau E., 2016, L'urbanisme paysager : une pédagogie de projet territorial, thèse de doctorat en urbanisme et aménagement, Bordeaux, Université Bordeaux Montaigne.

Borsdorf A., Salet W., 2007, "Spatial reconfiguration and problems of governance in urban regions of Europe. An introduction to the Belgeo issue on advanced service sectors in European urban regions", Belgeo, Vol. 1, No. 1, 1-12.

Brundtland G. H., 1987, Our Common Future, Report of the World Commission on Environment and Development, Oxford University Press.

Stockholm Urban Planning Office, 2012, Manual on Sociotopes, French translation by the Syndicat Mixte du SCoT du Pays de Lorient, 84 p.

Cadene P., 1997, "Les couronnes périurbaines, des périphéries au cœur des agglomérations, Agriculture, Forêt et périurbanisation", Séminaire Bergerie Nationale de Rambouillet, Actes du séminaire du 6 novembre 1997, p. 16-24.

Cerdà I., 1979, La théorie générale de l'urbanisation (1867), Paris, Éditions du Seuil.

Chalas Y., 2010, "La ville de demain sera une ville-nature", L'Observatoire 2010/2, No. 37, p.3-10.

Charmes E., 2005, La vie périurbaine face à la menace des gated communities, Paris, L'Harmattan.

Charmes E., 2011, La ville émiettée. Essai sur la clubbisation de la vie urbaine, PUF, Paris.

Choay F., 1999, "De la ville à l'urbain, Urbanisme", No. 309, p. 6-8.

Choay, F., 1979, L'Urbanisme: utopies et réalités, Paris, Éditions du Seuil.

Clément G., 2004, Manifeste du Tiers paysage, Paris, Éditions Sujet/Objet.

Clergeau P., 2007, Une écologie du paysage urbain, Éditions Apogée.

Clergeau P., 2015, Manifeste pour la ville biodiversitaire, Rennes, Éditions Apogée.

Clergeau P., Blanc N. (ed.), 2013, Trames vertes urbaines : de la recherche scientifique au projet urbain, Paris, Le Moniteur.

Consalès J.N., Goiffon M., Barthélémy C., 2012, "Entre aménagement du paysage et ménagement de la nature à Marseille: la trame verte à l'épreuve du local", Développement durable et territoires, Vol. 3, No. 2, online.

Consalès J.N., Millias A., 2020. Aix-Marseille Provence: une Métropole-Jardin, Urbanités http://www.revue-urbanites.fr/vm-consales-millias/.

Council of Europe, Landscape and sustainable development: Challenges of the European Landscape Convention, Council of Europe Publishing, 2006, https://rm.coe.int/16804895e6; https://www.coe.int/en/web/landscape/publications.

Council of Europe, Council of Europe Conference of Ministers responsible for Spatial/Regional Planning (CEMAT), Basic texts 1970 – 2010, Council of Europe Publishing, 2010, https://rm.coe.int/16804895e4; https://www.coe.int/en/web/landscape/publications.

CEP-CDCPP (2021) 6E

Council of Europe, Landscape facets – Reflections and proposals for the implementation of the European Landscape Convention, Council of Europe Publishing, 2012, https://rm.coe.int/09000016802f299b; https://www.coe.int/en/web/landscape/publications.

Council of Europe, Landscape dimensions – Reflections and proposals for the implementation of the European Landscape Convention, Council of Europe Publishing, 2017, http://rm.coe.int/1680714487; https://www.coe.int/en/web/landscape/publications.

Council of Europe, Council of Europe Landscape Convention: Contribution to human rights, democracy and sustainable development, Council of Europe Publishing, 2018, https://rm.coe.int/16807bffda; https://www.coe.int/en/web/landscape/publications.

Council of Europe, The Landscape Award Alliance of the Council of Europe, European Spatial Planning and Landscape Series, Volume 1, 2017, No. 105, https://rm.coe.int/168075f020; https://www.coe.int/en/web/landscape/publications.

Council of Europe, The Landscape Award Alliance of the Council of Europe, European Spatial Planning and Landscape Series, Volume 2, 2020, No. 120, https://rm.coe.int/16809ce3d4 https://rm.coe.int/16809ce3d5.

European Landscape Convention (European Treaty Series - No. 176), https://www.coe.int/en/web/conventions/full-list/-/conventions/treaty/176; https://www.coe.int/en/web/landscape/home.

Cormier L., 2015, "Les urbanistes et l'approche écologique de la nature en ville: une conciliation possible?", Innovations agronomiques, No. 45, p. 83-93, URL: https://www6.inra.fr/ciag/Revue/Volumes-publies-en-2015/Volume-45-Octobre-2015.

Couch C., Leontidou L., Petschel-Held G., 2007, Urban Sprawl in Europe: Landscapes, Land-Use Change and Policy, Blackwell Publishing Ltd.

Cueille, S. (ed.), 1989, Le Vésinet, modèle français d'urbanisme paysager: 1858-1930, Paris, Imprimerie nationale - Association pour le patrimoine de l'Île-de-France.

Da Cunha A.,2009, "Introduction : urbanisme végétal et agriurbanisme. La ville entre artifice et nature", Urbia, No. 8, p. 1-20.

Dacheux-Auziere B., Petit-Berghem Y., 2016, "La Grande-Motte et Sophia Antipolis: deux projets de paysage pour deux socio-écosystèmes forestiers méditerranéens", Forêt méditerranéenne, Vol. 37, No. 3, p. 185-198.

Darques R., 2015, "Mediterranean cities under fire. A critical approach to the wildland–urban interface", Applied Geography 59, p. 10–21, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apgeog.2015.02.008.

Davodeau H., 2005, "Les paysages, une nouvelle préoccupation dans la gestion des espaces périurbains", Cahiers d'économie et sociologie rurales, No. 77, p. 65-84.

Déjeant-Pons Maguelonne, Protection et développement du bassin méditerranéen – Textes et documents internationaux, Ed. Economica, Paris, 1987; La Méditerranée en droit international de l'environnement, Ed. Economica, Paris, 1990; Human rights and the environment, Council of Europe Publishing, 2002, https://rm.coe.int/1680489692.

Delpirou A., Rivière D., "Réseau urbain et métropolisation en Italie: héritages et dynamiques", Géoconfluences [WWW Document], URL: http://geoconfluences.ens-lyon.fr/informations-

scientifiques/dossiers-thematiques/de-villes-en-metropoles/articles-scientifiques/reseau-urbain-et-metropolisation-en-italie-heritages-et-dynamiques.

Descola P., 2005, Par-delà nature et culture, Paris, Gallimard.

Desjardins X., "Aménager pour se déplacer autrement dans les espaces périurbains : panne d'idées ou de volonté ?" [WWW Document], URL: http://encyclopedie-dd.org/spip.php?page=telecharger&id article=272.

Desjardins X., 2017, L'aménagement du territoire, Paris, Armand Colin.

Donadieu P., 2002, La Société paysagiste, Arles, Actes Sud, 150 p.

Donadieu, P., 2009, Les Paysagistes ou les métamorphoses du jardinier, Arles-Versailles, Éditions Actes Sud.

Donadieu, P., 2012, Sciences du paysage, entre théories et pratiques, Paris, Editions TEC et DOC.

Dorier-Apprill E., Audren G., Garniaux J., Oz R., Stoupy A., 2008, "Ensembles résidentiels fermés et recompositions urbaines à Marseille", Pouvoirs Locaux, No. 78, 92-98.

Dubois-Taine G., Chalas Y. (ed.), 1997, La ville émergente, La Tour d'Aigues, Éditions de l'Aube.

Duchemin E., Wegmuller F., Legault A-M., 2010, "Agriculture urbaine : un outil multidimensionnel pour le développement des quartiers", VertigO - la revue électronique en sciences de l'environnement, Volume 10, No. 2, online.

Dumazedier J., Vers une civilisation du loisir?, Paris, Seuil, 1962.

Dumont M., Hellier E., 2010, Les nouvelles périphéries urbaines : formes, logiques et modèles de la ville contemporaine, Rennes, coll. Espaces et Territoire, Presses Universitaires de Rennes.

Ernst I., 1991, "La planification spatiale allemande. Contexte et valeurs, historicité", Les Annales de la Recherche Urbaine 51, p. 82–92, https://doi.org/10.3406/aru.1991.1602.

Fertner C., 2012, "Urbanisation, urban growth and planning in the Copenhagen Metropolitan Region, with reference studies from Europe and the USA", Forest and Landscape Research, No. 154, Forest and Landscape Denmark, Frederiksberg.

Fischler, R., 2015, "Cinquante thèses sur l'urbanisme et les urbanistes ", Revue Internationale d'Urbanisme, No. 1.

Fleury A., 2010, "Istanbul: de la mégapole à la métropole mondiale", in Géoconfluences [WWW Document], URL: http://geoconfluences.ens-lyon.fr/geoconfluences/doc/typespace/urb1/MetropScient9.htm.

Forestier J. C. N., 1997, Grandes Villes et Systèmes de parcs (1906), Paris, Norma.

Fromonot F., 2011, "Manières de classer l'urbanisme", Criticat, No. 8, p. 41-61.

Gallent N., Andersson J., Bianconi M., 2006, Planning on the Edge: the Context for Planning at the Rural–Urban Fringe, Routledge.

Guilluy C., 2010, Fractures françaises, Paris, François Bourin éditeur.

Hall P., Pain K., 2006, The Polycentric Metropolis: learning from mega-city regions in Europe, London, Earthscan.

CEP-CDCPP (2021) 6E

Hervieu B., Viard J., 2001, Au bonheur des campagnes, 2e éd., La Tour d'Aigues, Éditions de L'Aube.

Hodebert L., 2014, "Les influences théoriques et pratiques du Système de parcs de Jean Claude Nicolas Forestier sur le travail d'Henri Prost en France. Expériences croisées 1913-1934", Cahiers thématiques, No. 3, p. 85-95.

Hubert J.-P., 2006, "La périurbanisation vue à travers la concentration de la population en Europe occidentale et son évolution depuis un siècle", Belgeo, Revue belge de géographie, p. 393–406, https://doi.org/10.4000/belgeo.11735.

Jollivet M. et Mathieu N. (ed.), 1989, Du rural à l'environnement, La question de la nature aujourd'hui, L'Harmattan.

Kayser B. (ed.), 1996, Ils ont choisi la campagne, La Tour d'Aigues, Éditions de L'Aube.

Lang J., 2005, Urban design: a typology of procedures and products, Oxford, Elsevier.

Lardon S., Loudiyi, S., 2013, "Agriculture urbaine et alimentation : entre politiques publiques et initiatives locales", Géocarrefour, online.

Le Dantec J.-P., 2003, Jardins et Paysages: textes critiques de l'Antiquité à nos jours (1996), Paris, Éditions de La Villette.

Le Grontec P., 1977, "Les coupures vertes de la métropole-jardin en val de Loire: rêve et réalité?" Économie Rurale, No. 120, p. 26-33.

Leger-Smith A., 2013, "Analyse interprétative du discours du Landscape Urbanism et impact sur le développement des pratiques des paysagistes dans le contexte français", Projets de paysage, No. 9, URL: http://www.projetsdepaysage.fr/fr/analyse_interpretative_du_discours_du_landscape_urbanism_et_im pact_sur_le_developpement_des_pratiques_des_paysagistes_dans_le_contexte_français.

Lévy A., 1999, "Urban morphology and the problem of the modern urban fabric: some questions for research", Urban Morphology, Vol. 3, No. 2, 79-85.

Lévy J., Lussault M., 2013, "Périphérisation de l'urbain.", Espaces Temps.net.

Lizée M.-H., Bonardo R., Mauffrey J.-F., Bertaudière-Montès V., Tatoni T., Deschamps-Cottin M., 2010, "Relative importance of habitat and landscape scales on butterfly communities of urbanising areas", Comptes Rendus Biologies, No. 334 (1), p. 74-84.

Loubière A et Vanier A. (ed.), 2018, La planification à bout de souffle? in Revue Urbanisme, Printemps 2018, p. 30-63.

Luginbühl Y (ed.), 2013, Infrastructures de transports terrestres, écosystèmes et paysages. Des liaisons dangereuses? PREDIT, programme de recherche ITTECOP du MEDDE, Paris, La documentation française.

Luginbühl Y. (ed.), 2015, Biodiversité, paysage et cadre de vie. La démocratie en pratique, Paris, Victoires Editions.

Luginbühl Y., 1974, "Du jardinier au paysagiste", Sciences et Avenir, No. 31, p. 22-25.

Luginbühl Y., 1991, Le paysage rural, la couleur de l'agricole, la saveur de l'agricole, mais que restetil de l'agricole ?, Etudes Rurales, No. 121-124, p. 27-44, DOI: 10.3406/rural.1991.3308.

Luginbühl Y., Guillaumin G., Terrasson D. (ed.), 2012, Paysage et développement durable, Paris, Editions QUAE, Paris.

Magnaghi A., 2003, Le projet local. Manuel d'aménagement territorial, Mardaga, Collection Architecture + Recherches, 123 p.

Magnaghi, A., 2014, La biorégion urbaine, petit traité sur le territoire bien commun, Eterotopia France, 174 p.

Mariage T., 1990, L'Univers de Le Nostre: Les origines de l'aménagement, Liège, Mardaga.

Marié M., 1985, "Aménagement et ménagement du territoire en Provence", Le Genre Humain, No. 12, 71-92.

Marot S., 1995, "L'alternative du paysage", Le Visiteur, No. 1, p. 54-81.

Marot S., 1995, "Sub-urbanisme/super-urbanisme: de Central Park à La Villette", Marnes: documents d'architecture, No. 1, p. 300-353.

Masboungi A. (ed.), 2002, Penser la ville par le paysage, Paris, Éditions de La Villette.

Masboungi, A., 2008, Faire la ville avec les lotissements, Paris, Le Moniteur.

Mathieu N., 1990, La notion de rural et les rapports villes-campagnes en France. Des années 50 aux années 80, Economie rurale, No. 97, p. 35-41.

Mathieu N., 1998, La notion de rural et les rapports villes-campagne en France: des années quatre-vingt aux années quatre-vingts-dix, Economie rurale, No. 247, p. 11-20.

Mathis C.-F., Pépy É.-A., 2017, La ville végétale: Une histoire de la nature en milieu urbain : France XVIIe-XXIe siècle, Ceyzérieu, Champ Vallon.

McHarg I., 1992, Design with Nature (1969), New York, Wiley.

Mendras H., 1991, La Fin des paysans, Arles, Actes Sud, 434 p.

Millennium Ecosystem Assessment, 2005, Ecosystems and Human Well-being Synthesis, Washington DC, Island Press.

Mollie C., 2012, Des arbres dans la ville. L'urbanisme végétal (1993), Arles, Actes Sud.

Mostafavi M., Doherty G. (ed.), 2016, Ecological Urbanism, Zurich, Lars Müller.

Mougenot C., 2003, Prendre soin de la nature ordinaire, Paris, Editions de la Maison des sciences de l'homme.

Novarina G., Métais D., Micheletto M., 2004, La planification paysagère: approche comparée France-Italie, Grenoble, CRESSON - Ministère de l'Écologie et du Développement durable.

Pernet A., 2014, Le grand paysage en projet: histoire, critique et expérience, Geneva, MétisPresses.

Phlipponneau M., 1956, La vie rurale dans la banlieue parisienne, Paris, Armand Colin.

Pinson D., 2004, "Urban planning: an 'undisciplined' discipline?", Futures, Vol. 36, No. 4, 2004, p. 503-513, URL: https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0016328703001915.

CEP-CDCPP (2021) 6E

Poulot M., 2008, "Les territoires périurbains: 'fin de partie' pour la géographie rurale ou nouvelles perspectives?", Géocarrefour, Vol. 83/4.

Poulot M., 2008, "Des territoires de projet en périurbain: les programmes agri-urbains", Historiens et Géographes, No. 403, p. 159-172.

PUCA, 2016. Cycle de séminaires [WWW Document], URL: http://www.urbanisme-puca.gouv.fr/cycle-de-seminaires-retour-sur-vingt-ans-d-a797.html.

Ratouis O., Vallet B., 2019, La ville standardisée, Paris-La Défense, PUCA.

Rollot M., 2018, "Aux origines de la biorégion. Des biorégionalistes américains aux territorialistes italiens: Métropolitiques", URL: https://www.metropolitiques.eu/Aux-origines-de-la-bioregion.html.

Romeyer B., 2018, "Le paysagisme: source et ressource pour l'urbanisme? Classification et état des lieux d'une fertilisation croisée", in Projet de paysage, https://doi.org/10.4000/paysage.1131.

Roux E., Vanier M., 2008, La périurbanisation: problématiques et perspectives, Travaux No. 8, La Documentation Française, DATAR, 87 p.

Salvati L., 2019, "Farmers and the city: Urban sprawl, socio-demographic polarisation and land fragmentation in a Mediterranean region, 1961–2009", City, Culture and Society 18, 100284, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ccs.2019.03.001.

Santini C., 2011, "Les promenades de Paris' de Charles-Adolphe Alphand. Communiquer le projet de paysage à l'époque de Napoléon III", Projets de paysage, No. 6, URL: http://www.projetsdepaysage.fr/fr/_les_promenades_de_paris_de_charles_adolphe_alphand_.

Sarı O.B.O., Ozdemir S., Uzun N. (Eds.), 2019, Urban and Regional Planning in Turkey, The Urban Book Series, Springer International Publishing, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-05773-2.

Schneider A., Woodcock C., 2008, "Compact, Dispersed, Fragmented, Extensive? A Comparison of Urban Expansion in Twenty-five Global Cities using Remotely Sensed, Data Pattern Metrics and Census Information", Urban Studies, No. 45, p. 659–92.

Semmoud N., Florin B., Legros O., Troin F., Gervais-Lambony P., 2014, Marges urbaines et néolibéralisme en Méditerranée, Tours, Presses universitaires François Rabelais.

Simeonova V., Van Der Valk A., 2016, "Environmental policy integration: Towards a communicative approach in integrating nature conservation and urban planning in Bulgaria", Land Use Policy, No. 57, p. 80–93. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.landusepol.2016.05.017.

Slak M. F., Vivière J.L., 2000, "Vers une modélisation du mitage, périurbanisation et paysage", Études foncières, No. 85, p. 33-38.

Soulard, C.-T., Pratiques, politiques publiques et territoires : construire une géographie agricole des villes, Mémoire d'HDR de Géographie. Université Michel de Montaigne - Bordeaux III, 189 p.

Ståhle A., 2011, "Les sociotopes et le paysage des habitants", Les Cahiers de l'IAU No. 159, p. 80-83.

Tarlet J., 1985, La Planification écologique : méthodes et techniques, Paris, Economica.

Tashi I., 1998, "Potentiel et développement du tourisme urbain en Albanie: le cas de Korça" - Persée [WWW Document], URL: https://www.persee.fr/doc/noroi_0029-182x_1998_num_178_1_6872.

Thibault S., Verdelli L., 2007, "La Métropole jardin, un projet urbain régional jamais officiellement abandonné", La Loire et ses terroirs, No. 60, p. 19-24.

Thibault S., Verdelli L., 2008, "La Métropole jardin du bassin de la Loire, un projet anticipateur?", Urbanisme, No. 363, p. 87-92.

Tokarczyk-Dorociak K., Kazak J., Szewrański S., 2018, "The Impact of a Large City on Land Use in Suburban Area – the Case of Wrocław (Poland)", J. Ecol. Eng. 19, 89–98, https://doi.org/10.12911/22998993/81783.

Toublanc M., Bonin S., 2012, "Planifier les trames vertes dans les aires urbaines: une alliance à trouver entre paysagisme et écologie", Développement durable et territoires, Vol. 3, No. 2.

Vandermotten C., 2010, "L'interaction urbain-rural: une problématique renouvelée", Articulo - Journal of Urban Research, https://doi.org/10.4000/articulo.1604.

Vanier M., 2000, "Qu'est-ce que le tiers espace: territorialités complexes et construction politique", Revue de Géographie Alpine, Vol. 88, No. 1, p. 105-113.

Waldheim C. (ed.), 2006, The Landscape Urbanism Reader, New York, Princeton Architectural Press.

Waldheim C., 2016, Landscape as Urbanism - A General Theory, New York, Princeton University Press.

Zambon I., Benedetti A., Ferrara C., Salvati L., 2018, "Soil Matters? A Multivariate Analysis of Socioeconomic Constraints to Urban Expansion in Mediterranean Europe", Ecological Economics, Vol. 146, p. 173–183, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolecon.2017.10.015.

Zaninetti J.M., Berry L., 2017, "Qu'est la Métropole-jardin devenue?", Norois-Environnement, Aménagement, Société, No. 242-2017/1, p. 83-96.

 \sim

PART II

Draft Recommendation CM/Rec(2021)... of the Committee of Ministers to member States with a view to the implementation of the European Landscape Convention of the Council of Europe – Town planning and landscape

The Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe, under the terms of Article 15.b of the Statute of the Council of Europe,

Considering that the aim of the Council of Europe is to achieve a greater unity between its members for the purpose of safeguarding and realising the ideals and principles which are their common heritage;

Recalling that, according to the European Landscape Convention (ETS No. 176) "landscape is an important part of the quality of life for people everywhere: in urban areas and in the countryside, in degraded areas as well as in areas of high quality, in areas recognised as being of outstanding beauty as well as everyday areas" (Preamble);

Considering that the Convention emphasises that landscape is "as an essential component of people's surroundings, an expression of the diversity of their shared cultural and natural heritage, and a foundation of their identity" (Article 5.a.);

Recalling that each Party undertakes to "integrate landscape into its regional and town planning policies and in its cultural, environmental, agricultural, social and economic policies, as well as in any other policies with possible direct or indirect impact on landscape." (Article 5 *d.*);

Recalling the provisions of the following recommendations of the Committee of Ministers to Member States on the European Landscape Convention:¹

- Recommendation <u>CM/Rec(2008)3</u> on the guidelines for the implementation of the European Landscape Convention,
- Recommendation $\underline{\text{CM/Rec}(2017)7}$ on the contribution of the European Landscape Convention to the exercise of human rights and democracy with a view to sustainable development,

¹. See also the following Recommendations: <u>CM/Rec(2013)4</u> on the <u>European Landscape Convention Information System</u> of the Council of Europe and its <u>Glossary</u>; <u>CM/Rec(2014)8</u> on promoting landscape awareness through education; <u>CM/Rec(2015)7</u> on pedagogical material for landscape education in primary school; <u>CM/Rec(2015)8</u> on the implementation of Article 9 of the European Landscape Convention on Transfrontier Landscapes; <u>CM/Rec(2018)9</u> contributing to the implementation of the European Landscape Convention of the Council of Europe: creation of public funds for landscape; <u>CM/Rec(2019)7</u> with a view to the implementation of the European Landscape Convention of the Council of Europe – Landscape integration in policies relating to rural territories in agricultural and forestry, energy and demographic transition.

– Recommendation <u>CM/Rec(2019)8</u> with a view to the implementation of the European Landscape Convention of the Council of Europe – Landscape and democracy: public participation;

Recalling that Recommendation <u>CM/Rec(2013)4</u> of the Committee of Ministers to member States recommends that States Parties to the convention use the <u>European Landscape Convention Information</u> System of the Council of Europe with its Glossary in the framework of their co-operation;

Considering the provisions of Resolution A/RES/70/1 adopted by the General Assembly of the United Nations on 25 September 2015 "Transforming our world: the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development", and its 17 Sustainable Development Goals, seeking to "realize the human rights of all", balancing "the three dimensions of sustainable development: the economic, social and environmental";

Considering the provisions of the Lausanne on Declaration on "<u>Landscape integration in sectoral policies</u>", symbolically adopted on 20 October 2020 by the representatives of the States Parties to the European Landscape Convention of the Council of Europe;

Considering the importance of the landscape with regard to urbanisation and town planning, and the need to face the challenges resulting from climate change, the disappearance of living species, water and air pollution, the degradation of soils and the artificialisation of land;

Observing that the process of urbanisation is growing steadily and continuously, radically changing the relationship that human societies have with their living environment and generating more and more social and environmental problems;

Considering that the landscape can represent a foundation, a means and an end of a renewed town planning, in phase with the current challenges;

Noting that the pandemic that occurred in 2019, has revealed a strong social demand for quality urban landscapes and their vital importance for physical and mental health and well-being;

Expressing the wish, in accordance with the provisions of the preamble to the Convention, to arouse the "responsibility for everyone" to ensure landscape quality;

Recommends that the governments of the States Parties to the Convention call on public, national, regional and local authorities to refer to the appendix to this recommendation in order to:

- to identify the negative effects of urbanisation and town planning on the landscape;
- to take into consideration the landscape as a basis, means and goal of renewed town planning;
- to refer to the structuring principles of a renewed urbanism through landscape.

Appendix to the Recommendation

Landscape as a foundation, a means and an end of a renewed town planning

Landscape can represent the guiding thread of innovative project approaches that transcend scales and stakeholders. The promotion of logics leading to a renewed urbanism through landscape requires clear and responsible political choices. This consideration implies a mobilisation of complementary positions and underlies a good articulation between town planning and urban design. These two types of town planning must guarantee design and management methods that are more respectful of all types of landscape (outstanding, everyday and degraded).

These two types of town planning must also guarantee modes of broad appropriation by all the direct stakeholders (actors in the territorial and urban fabric, managers and, above all, inhabitants). The aim is to encourage the development of a transdisciplinary culture of landscape and to promote its democratisation among a large public.

1. Identifying the negative effects of urbanisation and town planning on the landscape

The effects of increasing urbanisation, resulting from the processes of urban sprawl (peri-urbanisation and metropolisation) and densification, correlated with insufficiently controlled operational forms, are having an excessively rapid impact on landscapes that have been built up over time. This change of rhythm causes landscape mutations that are as notable as they are harmful: privatisation, decontextualisation, trivialisation (banalisation), negation or even destruction of landscapes.

Privatisation of the landscape

The first negative effect is the privatisation of the landscape. This occurs when urbanisation restricts the perception of all or part of a landscape to the beneficiaries of the planning (e.g. selling privileged access to panoramas or a quality living environment). This commodification and this type of urbanism leads to the closure or obturation of the landscape. The landscape is thus no longer considered as a common good but as the property of a few, which poses problems in terms of equity, since privatisation reinforces social and environmental inequalities.

Alteration of the landscape: decontextualisation or trivialisation (banalisation)

Landscape alteration occurs when urbanisation disrupts the perception of all or part of a landscape to a greater or lesser extent. Although the landscape is not necessarily denied, it does give rise to urbanistic interpretations that brutally break with its intrinsic characteristics and therefore with the meaning of the place. This alteration leads to a loss of coherence, legibility and harmony of the landscape, which no longer becomes a factor of territorial unity. This alteration comes either from a real decontextualisation of urbanism, or from a profound banalisation of the landscape.

Decontextualisation occurs when urban development methods do not take into account (or take little account of) the characteristics of the local landscape. Developments are not integrated (or only slightly) into the existing landscape and do not contribute to the established landscape balance. These decontextualised town planning choices are most often the result of a lack of consideration of landscape issues, of their ignorance, or even of their total ignorance.

As for trivialisation, it occurs when urbanisation is carried out according to standardised production methods that are strongly dissociated from the territorial and landscape context. The use of standard goods, very established models and mass production by international brands lead to the trivialisation of the territory, to its loss of identity, erasing the specificities of the landscape.

Destruction of the landscape

Destruction corresponds to the ultimate level of landscape degradation and occurs when urbanisation condemns in the more or less long term the intrinsic characteristics of a landscape, totally negated by urbanistic choices. Thus, urbanisation that does not fit into the existing landscape framework leads to the gradual and definitive erasure of its apparent character. This absolute negation of the landscape, which can lead to its disappearance, results in particular from tourist urbanisation (on the coast and in the mountains, notably).

Environmental and ecological problems caused

The operating methods of contemporary urban planning are causing profound environmental and ecological problems. The privatisation of a landscape translates into the closure of an environment which can lead to a threat to ecology through the confinement of natural spaces. The alteration of a landscape calls into question its ecological functioning. In the same way that the destruction of a landscape is accompanied by the disappearance of the environments associated with it. In a context of environmental crisis, landscape and ecology therefore share common logics that call for a joint treatment within renewed town planning practices.

2. Considering landscape as a foundation, a means and an end of a renewed town planning

Stopping all forms of urbanisation does not seem to be a solution to its negative effects on the landscape. On the other hand, it is essential to consider approaches to town planning that are more respectful of the landscape. It is therefore a question of highlighting renewed and landscape-friendly logics. If, today, the dialogue between town planning and landscape is particularly important, it is during the history of the urban fabric that some great theorists and practitioners of architecture, town planning and landscape design have built bridges between these two fields of application. The aim here is to highlight five approaches.

Garden metropolis (and garden city): landscape as a basis, means and purpose of planning

By combining two terms that refer to opposing territorial realities (the metropolis characterised by complexity, speed and flows and the garden characterised by simplicity, slowness and intimacy), the concept of a garden metropolis proposes to combine the possibilities offered by the infinitely large with the comfort underlying the infinitely small. Its reinterpretation in the current context implies drawing a link between project logics that are now part of the metropolitan scale and environmental ways of thinking about land use. In this respect, the garden metropolis poses the landscape not only as a way of questioning, or even overcoming, traditional relationships with nature, but also as the foundation, the means and the purpose of urbanism. The garden metropolis project proposes to comprehend all the elements of nature and biodiversity in a global way, through the prism of the garden. To do this, it is necessary to revive a landscape planning approach based on the transdisciplinary nature of landscape sciences.

Ecological planning: knowing landscapes to act on territories

This approach substitutes the values of a certain environmental ethic for the traditional aesthetic principles of urban and territorial design. It advocates a thorough knowledge of nature and its functions within the urbanisation process. The tool that is most used in this approach is the map, which is both an element of analysis of the territory and a project tool. The map allows for a cross-referencing of different information from various disciplines such as geography, sociology, ecology or economics. In this sense, this method prefigured the landscape studies carried out today using Geographic Information Systems (GIS).

From sociotopes to biosociotopes: the value of natural places as a basis for landscape planning

A sociotope is defined as a place as it is used by people. The sociotope method seeks to encourage the development of parks and natural spaces, while allowing for urban densification and growth. It does this in four main stages. First, it is based on an exhaustive inventory of natural areas within a given territory. In the second stage, it requires the opinion of experts who determine the modes of use and, above all, the social value of each identified place, of each sociotope. In the third stage, it is based on a survey of users in order to bring out the real values of the areas studied, whether material (practices) or immaterial (representations). Finally, the sociotope method takes shape, in a fourth stage, in a synthesis in the form of a map: the sociotope map. This map makes it possible to reveal urban landscapes and places through the uses that are made of them and for the actors in the territory to make planning choices.

The urban bioregion: the territorialist approach as a landscape planning method

The concept of the urban bioregion considers the territory as the basic unit of a project anchored in the local area, and is therefore based on highlighting and developing its specific social, cultural, political, economic or natural resources. From then on, the region becomes a scale of reference, which, because of its size, allows positive and dynamic interactions between the urban and rural components of the lived space. In this sense, it is presented as an alternative to the metropolis and its generalised urbanisation model. The concept of the urban bioregion has already influenced the planning of certain metropolitan areas characterised by polycentrism and polyculture. It makes it possible to rely on multidisciplinary territorial diagnoses and to make planning choices according to territorial scales, with a view to transcribing them into town planning documents. Stakeholders in the field are generally interested in landscape issues in the debates on the establishment of ecological corridors or green and blue networks.

Landscape urbanism: landscape as a driving force for project-based urbanism

The approach of landscape urbanism is more project-oriented than planning-oriented. It is thus based on the affirmation of landscape approaches, instead of the traditional contributions of architecture, within the processes of the urban fabric. It defends a more ecological vision of development and constitutes a renewed form of town planning that pays great attention to the specific characteristics of sites and existing landscape systems. The landscape, as a source of potential, replaces architecture as the basis of the project. Landscape planning rejects the opposition between city and landscape and considers them as a whole.

3. Referring to the structuring principles of a renewed urbanism through landscape

Based on the previous theoretical proposals, it is then possible to define ten structuring principles of this urbanism renewed by the landscape.

1. The landscape to think and act beyond nature and culture

In the face of the environmental emergency, it is necessary to rethink the relationship between humans and nature. The urbanisation currently taking place is still largely to the detriment of the balance of the environment. This situation is the result of considerations that separate nature and culture and define man as the centre of reference. However, for the purposes of the European Landscape Convention, the term "landscape" means "an area, as perceived by people, whose character is the result of the action and interaction of natural and/or human factors" (Article 1, a.). Each Party also undertakes to "recognise landscapes in law as an essential component of people's surroundings, an expression of the diversity of their shared cultural and natural heritage, and a foundation of their identity" (Article 5, a.).

Because it is based on a system of both individual and collective perceptions, the landscape approach can make it possible to understand and undertake changes to the territory at the local level. Public policies and spatial and town planning strategies that are committed to enhancing the natural and cultural elements of the territory can be more effective if they are approached from a landscape integration perspective. Embodying the interactions between natural and human factors, the landscape has environmental, ecological, social, cultural, ethical, economic and political dimensions.

2. Dealing with the history and geography of the territory: landscape as a basis for renewed town planning

The landscape is the result of the interpretation that each local society makes, through history, of the geography it inhabits. The renewed town planning project must revive the attention that people paid to the characteristics of their environment (climate, soil, rocks, water, animal and plant species).

It is a question of proposing an urbanism that is based on contextualised relationships with the landscape. This can be done through concrete measures such as the fight against the homogenisation of constructions or through new ways of thinking and doing. Indeed, the landscape must be considered as the foundation, the means and the end of a town planning approach which must draw a link between the geography and the history of the territories.

It is a question of proposing an innovative urbanism which is in continuity with the existing and in harmony with the landscapes. It is therefore necessary to question the increasingly frequent recourse to private operators who are much more guided by the logic of profitability and profit. It is necessary to strengthen the control capacity of public stakeholders by inventing forms of town planning that rethink landscape planning and the landscape project. In this respect, it seems important to reaffirm the presence of men of art (architects, urban planners, landscape architects, artists) in the contemporary urban fabric.

3. Promoting urban nature and a quality built environment

The logic of landscape protection, management and planning should replace inappropriate forms of spatial development, such as artificially recreating nature where it did not exist before and artificially creating nature where it already existed and functioned. To remedy this, it is no longer a question of

CEP-CDCPP (2021) 6E

considering space, soil and the elements of nature as infinite resources and unlimited consumer goods, but rather become aware of their great preciousness. There is a need to change the way we look at urban natural spaces and ordinary biodiversity because, at little cost and maintenance, they guarantee multiple ecosystem services in the highly constrained environment that is the urban environment.

Attention should also be paid to preserving the archaeological and architectural cultural heritage, ensuring the quality of the built environment (buildings, roads, parks and other facilities) and the harmonious integration of new buildings and infrastructure into the existing landscape.

4. Knowing and recognising the natural and cultural values of urban landscapes

The processes of peri-urbanisation and metropolisation create, incorporate and add not only 'solids' (built-up areas) but also 'voids' (unbuilt areas) with very different properties and functions. These differences lead to sectoral policies that prevent a global and articulated treatment of all the elements of a territory. Based on this constant, the renewed town planning project proposes to consider them in a unique way, through the prism of landscape.

In particular, it is a question of going beyond the hierarchy that distinguishes remarkable elements from less remarkable ones. Each element, no matter how small or banal, must be understood, placed and managed with regard to its situation and its role within the territorial ecological network. To this end, landscape identification and assessment must be based on an exhaustive inventory of all the elements that make up the landscape and on a better understanding of their characteristics, in order to devise planning and project responses that are fully adapted to the social, ecological and cultural specificities of each territory.

5. Knowing and recognising the agronomic value of urban landscapes

Cities and agriculture have maintained reciprocal relations since their foundation, but their interdependence has gradually disintegrated. Cities and agriculture have become concretely and symbolically distant. In this context, intra- and peri-urban agricultural areas very quickly appeared as land reserves, destined for urbanisation. However, with the health and agricultural crises, agriculture has once again become not only a societal issue but also a fully urban one. Since then, more and more city dwellers have taken on new roles that cannot be limited to the simple framework of production.

The landscape dimension should be fully taken into account for its integrating capacities, including on a spatial level. The process of urbanisation currently underway includes agricultural areas of various kinds. Town planning must therefore refer to it. The management of urban landscapes must therefore refer to this in order to develop a genuine territorial agriculture that responds to various food issues. For example, it is a question of limiting the ecological footprint of supply-related travel while limiting the food dependence of metropolises. It is also a question of responding to increasingly pressing social expectations both in terms of local agricultural products, identified as healthy and superior, and in terms of direct reconnection with the land. To do this, town planning must, on the one hand, maintain and develop existing farms by putting them in contact with the local consumption basin and by accompanying them towards practices that are increasingly respectful of the environment. On the other hand, in the inner city, new forms of appropriation – by professionals or inhabitants – must be encouraged by reserving spaces for experiments in urban agriculture.

6. Develop transdisciplinary approaches to landscape

Landscape must appear as a global answer to different territorial issues. It therefore requires various skills and approaches from scientific, operational and technical fields. It is necessary to set up decompartmentalized, pluri- or interdisciplinary approaches, which can bring various views on the urban reality. It is also necessary to set up transdisciplinary approaches capable of hybridizing knowledge and know-how in order to think beyond traditional limits and act structurally on the territory. Landscape must go beyond the simple field of competence of some specialists, it is therefore necessary to encourage the deployment of a landscape culture within the scientific and professional disciplines called to participate in the renewal of town planning.

It seems important to encourage these disciplinary crossings in the framework of research programmes and training courses in higher education. It seems important that this transdisciplinary landscape culture is implemented in urbanised areas. It must become a real requirement in town planning programmes, especially in public commissions or in planning projects involving private operators.

7. Putting landscape as a link between planning and project

One of the main causes of the landscape drifts underlying contemporary urbanisation is a certain disconnection between planning urbanism, organised around public actors, and project urbanism, organised around private actors.

Landscape can be the guiding thread of an innovative project approach allowing to transcend scales and actors. As a tool operating from the scale of the territory to the scale of the place, landscape mobilises, in fact, complementary positions that should be carefully coordinated. In this respect, it must be based on a good articulation between planning and the urban project. Without this complementarity, it is impossible to make each landscape element participate in the territorial and ecological functions. Furthermore, because of its transversality, the landscape approach calls for increased dialogue between enlightened project owners and enlightened project managers. In this area, there can be no good planning projects without the formulation of a good order.

8. Emerge new urban forms through landscape, based on the hybridisation of city and nature

Under the cover of protecting landscapes and their ecosystems, it is not a question of denying the real needs that exist in terms of urbanisation, generated by the regular growth of the urban population. But neither is it a question of abandoning landscapes and their ecosystems to anthropocentric requirements alone. It is therefore necessary to forge urban projects and achievements that can reconcile these imperatives.

To this end, the landscape can be used as the basis, the means and the end of a renewed urbanism. It is not a question of imposing fixed, nostalgic or retrograde visions. On the contrary, it is a question of finding in the geography and history of the territory, ideas for composition and construction that are in continuity and harmony with the existing building, while at the same time meeting the ecological requirements of the time in an efficient manner. As a guiding principle for projects, the landscape must be able to meet the needs of the population for activities, housing and mobility, while respecting local natural and cultural resources. This approach calls for urban regeneration projects defining new forms of hybridisation between city and nature.

CEP-CDCPP (2021) 6E

ideas for composition

9. Composing with everyday landscapes to integrate the inhabitants in the town planning choices

The process of urbanisation currently underway is not only attributable to the orientations of local authorities or private town planning operators. It also owes a great deal to social aspirations regarding the ways in which territories are inhabited. In many respects, these can appear to be paradoxical, as they increasingly seek contact with a magnified nature but at the same time contribute to its alteration through their urbanistic modes of expression. In this context, town planning requires a greater awareness of landscape issues on the part of inhabitants. It is not just a question of referring to exceptional landscapes. It is often in the ordinary, everyday landscapes that the inhabitants' attachment to the environment is determined. It is therefore through them that potential levers of mobilisation and training for citizens in favour of a careful management of the territory can take shape

In a renewed town planning project this implies that, despite their diversity, all the actors of the territory can take into consideration the various elements that make up the local landscapes. To achieve this, it is necessary to encourage the development of a real landscape culture among the general public. This democratisation effort requires awareness-raising and education.

10. Asserting the landscape dimension as a political project of town planning

The advent of town planning that takes the landscape dimension into consideration is based on social and political choices that break with certain modes of operation. The landscape dimension can appear as the guiding thread of a coherent territorial project in the face of town planning uncertainties. It is therefore necessary to ensure that spatial and town planning policies take full account of the values and functions of the landscape. This approach makes it possible to consider the landscape as the basis, means and end of town planning in line with the imperatives of the time.