

Europolis Project

**COMPARATIVE GLOSSARY OF URBAN
DEVELOPMENT CONCEPTS**

produced by

Rémy Allain

Professor of Geography and Land Use Planning

&

Guy Baudelle

Professor of Land Use Planning and Urban Development

Jean Monnet European Chair

Laboratoire RESO (UMR CNRS 6590)

Director: Vincent Gouëset

in conjunction with

Birgit Birkholz, student in geography and trainee at the DGUHC

with the assistance of Professors

Dietwald Gruehn, Environmental Planning Department, Austrian Research Centers, Vienna

Jean-Marie Halleux and Bernadette Merenne-Schoumaker, SEGEFA, University of Liège

Peter J. Larkham, School of Property, Construction and Planning, University of Central England,
Birmingham

and the support of

Ass. Pr. Stefanie Dühr, School of Management, Radboud University, Nimègue

Pr. Mick Dunford, University of Sussex, Brighton

2006

Introduction

This glossary of urban development concepts includes around twenty terms that were identified as the most pertinent by the British, German, Belgian and French partners in the Europolis project, at the end of an iterative process. The selection was guided by an interest in controlling urban growth and incorporating urban policies into a sustainable development approach, both of which are concerns shared by the different towns and cities in the network. The brainchild of the Laboratoire RESo, University of Rennes 2 (France), it has been subjected to detailed re-reading and re-writing by the Europolis partners.

The glossary does not aim to propound a new specialist vocabulary nor to be a multilingual dictionary offering word-for-word translations of the different terms. It has an altogether different objective, aiming to make available to the project's partner conurbations (in Germany, Great Britain, France and the Walloon region of Belgium) an in-depth lexicographical work explaining the general meaning of each of the concepts selected as well as the development challenges associated with them. However it also seeks, above all, to address some of the semantic differences between one country and another in terms of "comprehension" (as opposed to "extension", used in a logical sense). Reference is also made, naturally, to the strategic priorities and possible regulatory provisions to which these concepts relate in different national or regional (for federal states) development policies. This is therefore a critical dictionary that aims to allow the different partners to assess the degree to which the sense given to each term is pertinent to each country and to situate the corresponding challenges in each of the states concerned, the step prior to a potential exchange of good practices and to a possible "benchmarking" process. This is the purpose of the "toolbox", the second outcome, which has been designed in parallel with the glossary and is aimed at stakeholders.

References (in addition to standard works):

General

- ALLAIN R., 2004, *Morphologie urbaine*, Paris, A. Colin, Collection U.
- ATEA, CRIDEL, 1997, *Dictionnaire multilingue de l'aménagement du territoire et du développement local*, Paris, La Maison du Dictionnaire.
- BROCHEN A., GERVAIS F., PLOQUIN J., *Les mots de la maison*, Grenoble, Eyrolles, Coll. Guide House Book.
- JOHNSTON R.J., GREGORY D., PRATT G., WATTS M. (eds), 2000, *The dictionary of human geography* (4th edition), Oxford, Blackwell.
- LEVY J., LUSSAULT M. (dir.), 2003, *Dictionnaire de la géographie et de l'espace des sociétés*, Paris, Belin.
- LICHTENBERGER E., 1991, *Stadtgeographie. Begriffe, Konzepte, Modelle, Prozesse*, Tome 1, Stuttgart, B.G. Teuner.
- MCNEIR C.L. (ed.), 1993, *Cassel multilingual of local government and business*, London, Cassel.

France, Belgium

MTETM- DGUHC (Ministry of Transport, Infrastructure, Tourism and the Sea- Department for Urban Planning, Housing and Construction)

MERLIN P., CHOAY F., 2005, *Dictionnaire de l'urbanisme et de l'aménagement*, Paris, PUF.

SEGAUD M., BRUN J., DRIANT J.-C., 2003, *Dictionnaire de l'habitat et du logement*, Paris, A. Colin.

Germany

BMVWB (Bundesministerium für Verkehr, Bau- und Wohnungswesen), 2005, Nachhaltige Stadtentwicklung – ein Gemeinschaftswerk. Städtebaulicher Bericht der Bundesregierung 2004, Bonn

BBR (Bundesamt für Bauwesen und Raumordnung), 2000, *Raumordnungsbericht*, Bonn.

BBR, 2004, *Raumordnungsbericht*, vol. 21, Bonn.

HEINEBERG, H., 2000, *Stadtgeographie, 2. Auflagen*, Paderborn, Munich, Vienne, Zürich, Ferdinand Schöningh, UTB..

LUTTER H. (dir.), 2001, *Spatial development and spatial planning in Germany*, Federal Office for Building and Regional Planning (BBR), Bonn.

SIEVERTS T., 2001, *Zwischenstadt*, Basle, Birkhäuser.

Great Britain

COWAN R. (ed.), 2005, *The dictionary of urbanism*, Streetwise Press.

GOTTDIENER M., BUDD L., 2005, *Key concepts in urban studies*, London, Sage.

<http://www.renewal.net/JargonBuster.asp>

Structure of the glossary

The entry for each concept is structured as follows:

1. A **general definition** independent of any national context.
2. A commentary **specific to each national context** based principally on the contributions from European contacts, but also on discussions between the partners during the course of the UAOs (urban operational assessments), on planning documents from the different countries and reference works and studies in the area of European territorial development (ESDP (European Spatial Development Perspective), laws, ORATE projects and transnational spatial visions, notably that of north-west Europe).

The definition of the acronyms is joined as an appendix.

List of concepts

	FRENCH	ENGLISH	GERMAN
1	accessibilité	accessibility	Erreichbarkeit
2	aménagement de centre-ville	city centre development	Innenstädtenwicklung
3	cohésion territoriale	territorial cohesion	territoriale Kohäsion (räumlicher Zusammenhalt)
4	coopération intercommunale	cooperation between neighbouring local authorities	Interkommunale Kooperation
5	décentralisation	decentralisation (or devolution)	Dezentralisierung
6	densité de la ville	(urban) density	Städtebauliche Dichte
7	développement durable	sustainable development	nachhaltige (Stadt-)Entwicklung
8	étalement urbain	urban sprawl	Suburbanisierung
9	friche industrielle	derelict land	Gewerbe-oder Industriebrache
10	intermodalité (des transports)	(transport) intermodality	Intermodalität (Kombinierte Verkehrsmittelnutzung)
11	logement social	social housing	sozialer Wohnungsbau (soziale Wohraumförderung)
12	mixité (sociale et fonctionnelle)	mixed use development and mixed communities	Soziale Mischung oder Nutzungsmischung
13	politique de la ville	urban policy	Stadtentwicklungspolitik (oder auch Program „soziale Stadt“)
14	polycentrisme	Polycentricity	Polyzentrismus
15	rapport centre-périphérie (agglomeration)	Centre-suburbs links	Stadt-Umland-Beziehungen
16	rapport centre-périphérie (régions)	Core-periphery relation (regions)	Beziehung zwischen zentralen und peripheren Räumen
17	réduction des gaz à effet de serre	carbon reduction	Reduzierung der Emissionen von Treibhausgasen
18	renouvellement urbain	urban renaissance (or urban renewal or redevelopment)	Stadterneuerung (Stadtenwicklung)
19	requalification urbaine	urban regeneration	Aufwertung der Stadt (Stadterneuerung-Sanierung)
20	ville moyenne	medium sized city	Mittelstadt

COMPARATIVE GLOSSARY

1- Accessibility / Accessibilité / Erreichbarkeit

1 General definition

In the most generally accepted sense of the term, accessibility refers to all the options for access to a place or one of the services it offers. It is dependent on the state of transport resources (networks and methods of movement) and varies according to these resources. Accessibility is assessed in terms of time and cost.

A distinction is drawn between **physical accessibility**, which includes a transport infrastructure network for the movement of goods and people, and the use of information and communication technologies (ICTs) as vectors for the remote transmission of messages. From an urban perspective, a distinction is drawn between inter and intra urban accessibility of a town or city. The first refers to the ability to reach the town or city from any other point: infrastructures on different scales, from the trans-European transport network (TEN-T) to the smallest access roads are taken into account. The **degree of connectivity** is used as an indicator of a town or city's level of accessibility as a hub in a network. **Intra urban accessibility** refers to mobility within the commuter zone or, more precisely, within the city centre.

Accessibility cannot always, however, be reduced simply to its technical dimensions: it is also a function of the perceptions users have of transport facilities: congested roads, an infrequent service and inflated transport costs all serve to restrict real fluidity in terms of traffic movement. The barriers that restrict access to a place can also be in the mind, for example, culture or language.

As urban sprawl* is a reality shared by all four countries, the organisation of networks and intra-urban traffic flows must take into account changes in the corresponding metropolitan configurations, most frequently by trying to encourage institutions and individuals to opt for transport methods other than the use of private vehicles, through developing public transport services that are seen as less polluting and that consume less space. Improving accessibility cannot, however, be dissociated from land and housing policies that aim to reduce upstream requirements for mobility, rather than responding mechanically to a demand for transport infrastructure arising from needs brought about by changes in where jobs, services and housing are located.

2. National specifics

France

In an attempt to manage the tensions arising from the dependence of numerous modes of transport on hydrocarbons, central and local government are striving to adopt planning systems. French towns and cities have, for example, developed **Plans de déplacements urbains (PDU)** (local transport plans): these set out guidelines for all methods of transport and travel within the conurbation, which must adhere completely to the SCoT (*Schéma de Cohérence Territoriale* – regional integrated development plan).

Urban sprawl* is continuing, without there being a significant increase in the commuting time considered acceptable by commuters, which is a thirty-minute single journey. In fact, interim population censuses taken in 2005 show that daily commuting distances have continued to increase.

At the other end of the scale, the DIACT (*Délégation interministérielle à l'aménagement et à la compétitivité des territoires* - Interministerial delegation on territorial development and competitiveness) (formerly DATAR - *Délégation à l'aménagement du territoire et à l'action régionale* – Delegation on territorial development and regional action) has demonstrated its desire to ensure that no point in France should be more than twenty minutes from a motorway interchange.

The "digital divide" expressed as unequal access to high-speed internet connections, is also a concern for the most sparsely populated areas, which will be opened up by satellite coverage in particular.

Belgium

Accessibility is commonly defined in accordance with various criteria: whether a return journey can be completed within a single day, a half day, in less than fifteen minutes by car, and so on. The travel times taken into account by operators are generally shorter than in France as a result of the country's size and population density. Thus, for example, in terms of catchment areas, the acceptable times for reaching numerous sales outlets are in general two times lower than those in France. Urban sprawl, however, does not appear to be developing in a wider area than previously, for a conurbation of a given size.

Germany

In Germany, the state of regional accessibility is subject to inequalities between areas that have far-reaching consequences for territorial development. The accessibility model of the Federal Office for Building and Regional Planning (*Bundesamt für Bauwesen und Raumordnung* or BBR) provides informational databases that are essential for territorial analysis. The model links selected territorial reference points via partial network models (air, road and rail, including ferries) in a geographical information system.

The model methodically covers multiple queries relating to territorial development through analysing accessibility and the level of supply, and regional potential and demarcations. These analyses encompass different transport methods and their level of integration, from a regional up to a European level. Comparisons between different states in the network make it possible to produce an empirical assessment of planned measures in the area of transport infrastructure. Accessibility data are published at regular intervals.

The accessibility model incorporates, for example, accessibility analyses for major centres. As a result of how housing is structured in Germany and the very dense transport infrastructure across the whole of the country, over 90% of the population can reach their nearest major centre in a 60-minute car journey.

The Central Places system is an important planning tool for the Länder with regard to the concentration of infrastructure and supply facilities. It is a concrete expression of the guiding principle of "Decentralised concentration" in the structure of the territory. Moreover, a minimum level of publicly-owned infrastructure can thus be guaranteed, even in rural areas with low demographic density.

The Central Places system is used, amongst other occasions, when transport networks are created, in order to guarantee accessibility to public service functions (*Daseinsvorsorge*) for the population. The level of functions available depends on the degree of centrality.

The aim of the Central Places system is to offer equivalent living conditions to populations across the whole of the territory. Central Places are defined in the regional development plans. Accessibility to Central Places via the transport network must be guaranteed within a given time. By analogy with the Central Places system, the transport network also has a hierarchical structure. A distinction is drawn between federal motorways, federal trunk roads, roads funded by the Länder, district roads and municipal roads.

United Kingdom

In general terms, transport policy aims to foster the development of an integrated transport network that improves accessibility and promotes sustainable development. This implies reducing dependence on private cars whilst also reducing the number of reasons to travel and the distances involved.

At a regional level, Regional Transport Strategies have been put in place to achieve these objectives. These set out strategic priorities for all transport investments as well as a policy framework for local land use/transport planning documents. They aim to ensure equality of access to jobs, services, leisure facilities and information. In the east of England, for example, Regional Transport Hubs are recognised as centres within the public transport network that

have significantly improved levels of public transport, which should in turn focus on these hubs. Regional investment priorities for roads are also set within this strategic framework. Local transport plans and strategies determine local investment priorities and inform local planning documents. These also have the general objective of promoting sustainable transport methods and reducing the need to travel, for example by focussing development on existing urban centres and improving transport and telecommunications in these same sectors. At an intra-urban level, accessibility is frequently represented on maps showing vehicle, cycle or pedestrian access, in particular distances on foot to public transport facilities. Since the Disability Discrimination Act, 1995, the owners and tenants of public buildings have been obliged to ensure access for all users, in particular the disabled. An access certificate is usually required for new developments. Numerous measures to improve access have focussed on the attainability of public buildings and spaces for people with reduced mobility, in particular by installing ramps or lifts that are accessible to wheelchairs.

2- City centre development / Aménagement de centre-ville / Innenstadtentwicklung

1. General definition

An aspect of urban development that aims to address the problems currently facing city centres. Initially, development actions dealt with the issues of road congestion and the ageing fabric of the city, and its unsuitability for current needs, through policies that centred on pedestrianisation policies, limiting the movement of vehicles and promoting public transport (by improving bus, tram and underground systems). This was followed by more "urbanistic" urban renewal* programmes. The expression **city centre development** covers a very diverse range of activities, all of which aim to modernise the fabric of the city and make it more suitable for current requirements. Depending on their impact on urban form and the more or less brutal character of the methods and procedures used, a distinction can be drawn between renewal schemes with no impact, partial restructuring, large-scale restructuring and low-impact restructuring (Allain, 2004).

Many of these policies and developments have shown their limitations: a tendency to gentrify city centres, or turn them into museums or tertiary sectors only, on the one hand, and exaggerated competition from peripheral centres on the other. The focus now is on the role and place of the city centre within the conurbation.

2. National specifics

France

More than in other European countries, city centres have seen their place challenged by the move away from the centre of both people and activities, in particular commercial activities (hypermarkets, etc.) (cf. urban sprawl*). Urban policies are lagging behind in how they are adapting to new challenges. There has been a move away from partial solutions focussing on a single sector (e.g. conservation or brutal redevelopment) to more complex operations within the framework of comprehensive plans that emphasise urban renewal.

Renewal schemes with no morphological impact continue in certain sectors. These consist of redevelopment including incentives, with subsidies from the French national housing agency (*Agence nationale de l'habitat*- ANAH) for property restoration accompanied by heritage protection measures (joint-funded housing improvement programmes - OPAH *Opération programmée de l'amélioration de l'habitat* – and ZPPAUP *Zone de Protection du Patrimoine Architectural Urbain et Paysager* - Rural and urban architectural heritage protection area); but they can also consist of densification programmes achieved through planning documents such as the POS (*Plan d'occupation des sols* – land-use plan) or PLU (*Plan local d'urbanisme* – local urban development plan). As far as the OPAH are concerned, these are development operations that included redevelopment or restructuring of the predominant housing stock. Jointly funded housing improvement -urban renewal programmes (OPAH-RU)- have been implemented since 2003 in city centres, where there is a preponderance of urban and social dysfunction.

Partial restructuring implies retaining the facades of existing buildings whilst modernising internally, densification, local urban renovation and occasional verticalisation. OPAH-RU operations and redevelopment programmes for unfit housing (*Résorption de l'habitat insalubre*-RHI) are well suited to supporting this restructuring work.

Large scale or operational restructuring applies to areas deemed to be unfit for habitation: the brutal urban renovations of the 1960s and 1970s brought with them a destruction of the existing fabric, replacing it with more dense building that was more suitable for the needs of the time and more expensive. It has been called into question notably as a result of its traumatic social and urbanistic effects and its failure to function adequately either in property or commercial terms. Restructuring on such a large scale can now only be justified in large

areas of derelict* industrial or railway land or ports located in central or semi-central areas. There are complex programmes in place that aim to strengthen or extend the central area but, even in these cases, parts of the existing built heritage are often reused (for example, the Presqu'île programme in Lyon, or the Rive Gauche ZAC (*Zone d'aménagement concerté* - designated development zone) in Paris, and so on).

Low-impact restructuring programmes generally combine partial renovation, refurbishment and conversion as part of a comprehensive approach that is more respectful of the existing fabric in terms of its morphological, functional and social complexity. When the sectors involved are extensive, the challenges are varied and a diverse range of tools is used, the term used is complex renewal* (e.g. the Euroméditerranée project in Marseille). The challenge is to give a predominant role back to city centres in the face of competition from peripheral centres.

Belgium

City centre development is now one of the major preoccupations of the public authorities, but is a more recent concern than in France. It is often a response not just to problems of attainability but in particular to the very high level of competition from the peripheries. In order to make the central areas of cities more attractive again, actions are focussing mainly on the renovation of public spaces (streets, squares and so on), on restoring property heritage, on public transport services and on developing parking facilities. Renovation and refurbishment projects are heavily subsidised by the public authorities and aim in the first place to maintain or even increase the number of residents in the central areas of cities.

Germany

The future of cities is heavily dependent on the development of city centres. City centres as urban hubs give many towns and cities a particular profile by offering them the opportunity to develop a clear identity. Numerous city centres are still characterised by a high degree of sophistication and high-quality accommodation and events. They are important places for commerce, communications, services and cultural institutions. In spite of this, many German towns and cities are experiencing a loss of functions from their city centres in the areas of retailing and housing. Retail outlets were concentrated in city centres until the 1970s. Today, they are having to face up to problematic changes. People are deserting the city centres, which are facing stiff competition from shopping centres located in out-of-town locations. One of the problems specific to Germany has arisen as a result of reunification and emigration, which affects almost all cities in the east, in particular their younger populations. This has had an impact on both small and large towns and cities, in particular their central areas. This spontaneous decline (*Schrumpfung*, or "shrinking cities") in cities raises the question of the indispensable nature and profitability of infrastructure facilities. For many years, urban development activities have focussed heavily on the revitalisation of city centres to strengthen their housing function and their role as retail centres.

In its specific legislation on urban planning, the Federal Construction Code (BauGB) has provided a number of tools to allow cities to react to the current problems of the decline and repositioning of the city centre and its attractiveness as a residential area. This encompasses urban renovation measures as well as city transformation programmes (*Stadtumbau*) and the Social City programme (*Soziale Stadt*). Urban development funds, amongst others, could be used to cover the expenditure incurred.

Alongside the tools provided for in the Federal Construction Code, there are "soft" tools also deemed to be capable of contributing to the stabilisation of the city centre such as, for example, the centres concept, *Masterplans* (general framework) and urban marketing concepts. These serve as a basis for assessing urban development projects and constitute a framework for the regional planning and development programme (*Bauleitplanung*), and can contribute to joint action involving both the public and private sectors.

United Kingdom

The English expression *city centre development* suggested as a translation certainly differs from the French term *aménagement*. The concept of **town centre management** (TCM) certainly does exist, and concerns urban centres classified as cities, as well as just towns. TCM almost always implies public-private partnerships involving local authorities, retailers, land owners etc. In its early years, the concept was mainly concerned with crime and safety issues, to the point where many Town Centre Managers were former police officers. More recently, the TCM system has broadened its scope to include, amongst other things, environmental problems and the promotion of the town centre. There is an Association of Town Centre Management which "is dedicated to helping town and city centres realise their natural roles both as prosperous locations for business and investment, and as focal points for vibrant, inclusive communities" (<http://www.atcm.org/>).

In terms of terminology, there are different concepts such as "city centre" or "central area", that are used in particular in land use studies; these demarcate central areas by identifying where the sector occupied entirely by uses considered as central functions stops. However, many city centres are now defined based on physical criteria such as urban ring roads or other large-scale infrastructure elements. Several British cities have been trying to extend their city centre beyond their inner ring road since 1990, given that they are particularly restrictive. This has been accepted to the extent that all current approaches now consider some areas outside inner ring roads to be central.

The American expression "central business district" (CBD), introduced by the studies conducted by E. W. Burgess and others in Chicago between the wars, is still commonly used, by geographers more than planners, although the pertinence of the term "business" seems to have been somewhat reduced in light of current housing policies encouraging a return to the use of city centres for residential purposes.

3- Territorial cohesion / Cohésion territoriale / territoriale Kohäsion (räumlicher Zusammenhalt)

1. General definition

Since the 2nd report on cohesion, published in early 2001, three aspects of cohesion have been tackled separately: **economic** cohesion (through the degree of convergence between central government and regions, and between regions within a country, principally through the indicator of GDP per head and productivity), **social** cohesion (through the employment and unemployment rates in the three major economic sectors and the breakdown by gender) and **territorial** cohesion. "Territorial cohesion" was introduced in respect of services of general interest by the Treaty of Amsterdam (1997) in order to "reduce the discrepancy between the level of development of the various regions and the backwardness of the least-favoured (...) regions" (art. 158 of the Treaty). Formulated in this way, territorial cohesion complements the objective of harmonious development by underlining the dangers of over-concentrated development within the European Union. The concept takes into account the analysis of urban areas, rural areas, border areas and regions with specific geographical characteristics, namely mountainous, coastal and maritime areas, as well as islands. It is a fundamental principle of European development and occupies a key place in European documents, including the European Spatial Development Perspective (ESDP) which wants to see the various stakeholders "reach a geographically balanced distribution of growth across the territory of the European Union". **Polycentric** development (on a European and national scale, rather than at the level of the conurbation) is considered to be an operational method that will contribute to territorial cohesion, since it is used as a bridge between sometimes conflicting political objectives, that is, economic growth and balanced development. Although this concept is most often used on a European scale, national and regional authorities have often taken it up on their own account, in so far as each Member State is required to implement ESDP objectives through its territorial development policy. In the same way, towns and cities share the objective of territorial cohesion, whether it is a matter of small towns closely associated with the countryside covered by an ESDP concerned with the relationship between town and country, or larger conurbations facing economic difficulties and/or an accentuation in the social division of space, supported through to the end of 2006 by the URBAN programmes.

2. National specifics

France

In France, the principle of territorial cohesion is found in planning tools, including the SCoT (*Schéma de cohérence territoriale* – Regional integrated development plan), which is drawn up at an intermunicipal level (based on social infrastructure areas), but also in specific areas such as commerce (e.g. the *Charte d'urbanisme commercial* – commercial planning charter or *Schéma d'équipement commercial* – commercial facilities plan). The law on Solidarity and Urban Renewal (2000) and various urban policies* make either explicit or implicit reference to it. As a result of the national cross-subsidisation system using social transfers (pensions, unemployment benefits, and minimum benefit payments for the poorest members of society), there is a tendency to suggest that intra-urban inequalities (assessed for example through the average household income for each municipality or the fiscal resources of local authorities) are now more significant than discrepancies between the regions. Nonetheless, territorial cohesion is one of the objectives that the DIACT (*Délégation interministérielle à l'aménagement et à la compétitivité des territoires* - Interministerial delegation on territorial development and competitiveness) has set itself.

Belgium

In Belgium, territorial cohesion is a relatively recent concept, often associated with the defence and promotion of public services, services of general interest and universal service in the context of the current debates in Europe on the liberalisation of services. Territorial cohesion is generally assimilated with social cohesion and perceived as an essential component of solidarity between citizens.

Furthermore, territorial cohesion appears more and more as a fundamental objective for development policies as a result of increasing disparities at all levels, national, regional and local, with the most impoverished populations being more and more concentrated in certain areas, in particular city centres in industrial and working-class conurbations.

Germany

Through their territorial development policies, the federal government and the Länder aim to offer equivalent living conditions across the whole of Germany. This aim is derived from the Basic Law (GG) and must adapt to the profound changes our society is experiencing.

As a result of the demographic situation (decline rather than growth), of the make-up of the population (more older people, more people born abroad) and their distribution across the territory (scattered development, migrations from north to south and east to west), this policy finds itself confronting a number of requirements to adapt, some of which are entirely new. Against this background, development policy has a responsibility for improving development conditions in the various territories and regions. It is therefore necessary to concentrate at the federal level on the specific task of reducing inequalities between various territories, for example in economic development or in accessibility to public infrastructure, in order to guarantee comparable life chances for all citizens in the country. Guaranteeing equivalent living conditions is also one of the aims of the Constitution, but this should not lead to imposing uniformity on all the country's territories, cities and regions.

United Kingdom

The term "territorial cohesion" does not yet seem to form part of the current vocabulary of regional and urban development. Moreover, there is currently no single, national land-use strategy in Great Britain. The government's attention has been principally focused on the major cities and more recently on the development of four new regions for sustainable growth located in the arc beyond London's green belt (cf. sustainable development*).

One of the main objectives of the new system of territorial development (2003) is to reduce the disparities in income levels between the richest and poorest populations in each region. Medium-sized cities, often with access to resources such as investment, are growing, in particular in the regions that are most prosperous in economic terms. The first "regional land-use strategy" to be prepared concerns the eastern part of the English plan, which identifies medium-sized cities as centres of growth, in order to promote balanced, polycentric development. This approach is particularly appropriate for the east of England, where there are no cities of any significant size; medium-sized cities can cooperate in order to achieve a critical mass in terms of regional competencies. Two of the main themes of the ESDP feature in the objectives and policies of the English plan:

- to reduce inequalities in terms of development between different areas. The plan supports the renovation of sectors of low economic activity with significant shortages, and prioritises social integration;
- to ensure equality of access to infrastructures and knowledge resources in order to improve opportunities for access to employment, services and leisure facilities. The eastern part of the English plan also favours regeneration* in secondary regional sectors with greater dependence on the private sector, and aims to improve the relationship between urban and rural environments. In certain areas in the north of England, which were previously dominated by industry, there is no growth, so efforts there are concentrated on economic restructuring. On an intra-urban level, renovation funds are often concentrated on the poorest areas. It is widely recognised that on a national level taken as a whole, the renovation of urban centres has been highly successful.

Sources :

CE., 2001, *Unité de l'Europe, solidarité des peuples, diversités des territoires, deuxième rapport sur la cohésion économique et sociale*, Luxembourg, 160 p.

CE., 2004, *Un nouveau partenariat pour la cohésion: compétitivité convergence coopération, troisième rapport sur la cohésion économique et sociale*, Luxembourg, 206 p.

4- Cooperation between neighbouring local authorities /Coopération intercommunale/ Interkommunale Kooperation

1. General definition

Synonym: *intermunicipal cooperation*

A process of cooperation between neighbouring local authorities which have decided to work together to implement and/or manage a service or shared facility. Intermunicipal cooperation pursues objectives such as management optimisation, the reduction of tax rivalry, image improvement and the coordination of growth at the level of the extended city. It is generally considered to be a satisfactory alternative to the merger of local authorities, which is most frequently imposed by central government. The concept must be used taking account of the administrative context of the country concerned (i.e. the more or less dispersed nature of the network of basic administrative units and their areas of competence).

Distinctions are drawn between intermunicipal structures on the basis of their mandatory or optional areas of competence, the regulatory form of their cooperation agreement and above all by their tax-raising powers. There is a contrast from this point of view between structures with **no tax-raising powers**, and therefore with **no fiscal independence**, their income being derived exclusively from budget amounts allocated by local authorities, to structures that do have the option of raising their own taxes.

2. National specifics

France

France is the most highly dispersed country in terms of administration (36,677 municipalities or local authorities) as a result of the failure of successive attempts to merge them following the French Revolution and then in 1958, 1970 and 1971, which explains the substitute development of intermunicipal cooperation in which almost all are now involved. The decentralisation* of 1982, which was accompanied by an expansion of the areas of competence of towns and cities and their fiscal prerogatives, increased the responsibilities of mayors, whilst urban sprawl has given rise in functional conurbations to a number of pernicious effects which lie at the root of certain conflicts. City centres have seen the "costs of centrality" increase because they finance either in whole or in part a large number of amenities that benefit the whole of their social infrastructure area. Conversely, some local authorities on the periphery, by taking advantage of available land, are able to attract industrial and commercial companies from which they derive tax receipts. In France, the main source of local authority income is traditionally derived from businesses with premises in their area, which pay a local tax called the *taxe professionnelle* (business tax). A reform of this system has been being studied for some months.

The legal forms of cooperation between local authorities are highly diverse. The two oldest, the SIVU (*Syndicat à vocation unique* - Intermunicipal single-issue action committee) (1890) and the SIVOM (*Syndicat intercommunal à vocation multiple* - Intermunicipal multiple-issue action committee (1959)), which were created to deal with the distribution of drinking water, electrification, the collection and treatment of household waste, sanitation and school transport, are now found largely in rural areas, which have also benefited from the law of 6 February 1992; this created new forms of cooperation, of which only that aimed at local authorities in rural areas (the *communautés de communes* or communities of municipalities) has met with the success that was hoped for.

As far as towns and cities are concerned, intermunicipal cooperation used to exist in the urban planning area in a highly inadequate manner through first the *Schémas directeurs d'aménagement et d'urbanisme* (SDAU – regional planning and development programmes), 1967) and then the *Schémas directeurs* (development plans) (1983). "Districts" were proposed

in 1959, and these were to some degree successful in medium-sized cities (over 300 in 1999) followed by the *Communautés urbaines* (urban areas) in 1966.

The so-called "Chevènement" law of 1999 simplified the forms of intermunicipal cooperation by reducing the number of types of EPCI (*Etablissement public de coopération intercommunale* – intermunicipal cooperation body) to three: *Communautés de communes*, *Communautés d'agglomération* (metropolitan areas) and *Communautés urbaines*. The *Communauté urbaine* was designed for conurbations with over half a million inhabitants and the *Communauté d'agglomération* for commuter areas with over 50,000 inhabitants, with the central local authorities having over 15,000 inhabitants..

Four mandatory areas of competence were devolved to the *Communauté d'agglomération* (CA): housing and urban policy, economic development, transport and land-use planning. These areas of competence are deemed to be strategic for urban development and social and territorial cohesion*. This EPCI therefore exercises extensive powers in terms of urban development: when it judges that they are of interest to the conurbation as a whole rather than the individual local authorities, the *Communauté d'agglomération* has powers to proceed to the creation of *Zones d'aménagement concerté* (ZAC – designated development areas), which constitute the main framework for the development of residential and/or business districts. The *Communauté d'agglomération* can, in addition, opt to control areas of competence relating to technical networks (such as highways and sanitation), cultural and sports facilities, household waste services and the environment. Furthermore, it has been subject to the *taxe professionnelle unique* (TPU - single business tax) system on a compulsory basis since 2002. In this case, the intermunicipal body sets the tax rate and takes over the role of the municipalities, who no longer vote on it, but receive a compensatory payment from the CA to ensure that they can balance their budgets. This makes it possible to avoid pernicious competition between local authorities in terms of attracting investors and distortions in tax treatment between businesses depending on which local authorities their premises are located in.

The law stipulates that the *Communautés urbaines* must operate in the same mandatory and optional areas of competence and must also apply the TPU obligation. The *Communauté urbaine* is, furthermore, a more integrated form of cooperation than the *Communauté d'agglomération* in so far as it adds to the mandatory areas of competence of the latter, areas of intervention in terms of economic, cultural and social development, the management of joint services and the environment.

These new forms of intermunicipal cooperation, with their own tax-raising powers, have benefited from high levels of financial incentives from central government and have been so successful that the *Cour des comptes*, the French national audit office, has expressed concern over the cost of grants for the central government's budget.

With the regard to housing, the Liberties and Local Responsibilities Act of 13 August 2004 and the law conveying the National Commitment to Housing of 13 July 2006 strengthened the role and the content of local housing programmes (*Programmes locaux de l'habitat* – PLH)

Within the EPCIs, various procedures favour cooperation (such as the *Programmes Locaux d'Habitat* for local housing and accommodation). The law on Solidarity and Urban Renewal (SRU, 2000) strengthened the tools available for development (e.g. the ScoT (*Schéma de Cohérence Territoriale* – regional integrated development plan) and the possibility of intermunicipal PLUs (*Plan locaux d'urbanisme* – local urban development plans) but the power of local authorities and municipalities remains very significant on key questions of land law, building permits and authorisations relating to the division of land into plots.

Belgium

Intermunicipal cooperation in Belgium has a long history, having been recognised in the Belgian constitution (art. 162) in 1831; it provides for the possibility of local authorities and municipalities forming associations for the common defence of an objective of general interest relating to a service falling within the scope of municipal responsibilities. Intermunicipal cooperation has never, however, been mandatory. The special law of 16 July

1993 transferred to the regions the power of regulating cooperation between local authorities and municipalities.

The most common structures are known as *intercommunales*, which combine the services shared by several local authorities or municipalities in a given area. These are found in particular in the area of water, electricity and gas distribution, cable broadcasting, economic expansion, waste, the environment and medical and social issues. In the Walloon region, a reform is underway to reduce their number from 112 to 56.

Another option pursued in Belgium was that of *agglomérations* and *fédérations de communes* created by the law of 26 July 1971, which created five conurbations, one for each major city: Brussels, Antwerp, Liège, Gand and Charleroi; this option was swiftly abandoned, however, following a series of mergers which reduced the number of municipalities in Belgium from 2,359 in 1975 to 596 in 1976 and then 589 in 1983 following the creation of Greater Antwerp. Furthermore, in spite of various attempts, the concept of *urban* or *rural communities* has not been successful to date, as a result of the refusal to introduce an additional level of power to the four existing levels, i.e. the federal state, region, province and municipality.

Germany

Intermunicipal cooperation describes work undertaken jointly by urban or rural municipalities in certain areas or given projects such as waste water treatment, business development or land-use policies. Numerous municipal or regional development problems can be resolved more effectively by cooperation between neighbouring local authorities or municipalities, in particular in urban areas (*Stadt-Umland-Bereich*).

In addition to procurement and waste management, climate management and the protection of open spaces, other important tasks in the area of cooperation between neighbouring local authorities concern, to a certain extent, the joint development of industrial estates and the implementation of land policy, transport development and marketing to support economic activity and tourism, as well as the promotion of the economy and culture. In the same way, cooperation between neighbouring local authorities is becoming more and more important in planning and implementing compensation measures pursuant to the law relating to the protection of nature and landscape conservation (*Gesetz über Naturschutz und Landschaftspflege* or BNatSchG) and the Federal Construction Code (*Baugesetzbuch* or BauGB). Furthermore, the Federal Construction Code introduces joint land-use planning as a cooperation tool in respect of urban planning law. It is only in very rare cases that there is cooperation with regard to the development of residential areas or a policy to build housing that has been subject to consultation at an intermunicipal level. Nonetheless, a sizeable number of intermunicipal industrial areas have been created in the meantime, as required by the stipulations of regional planning and the Länder, and subsidised by the governments of certain Länder.

Economically efficient framework conditions (e.g. land tax, financial cross-subsidisation between local authorities and the rate at which business taxes are deducted) entail prejudicial changes that make cooperation between neighbouring local authorities necessary, but which at the same time tend to hinder cooperation as a result of the competition that exists between them in respect of residents and fiscal revenues. At the same time, the interests of local authorities often diverge to a considerable extent and it can prove difficult to find common ground outside the municipal framework.

In spite of all the difficulties, the requirement for improved cooperation between neighbouring local authorities is still a topical issue, as it contributes to a resolution of the problems mentioned.

United Kingdom

Local authorities are encouraged or required to cooperate on all policies whose scope exceeds the boundaries of a single municipality. However, there is no specific term to designate this type of cooperation between neighbouring local authorities. At the moment the UK Government is seeking better cooperation between local authorities covering major urban areas.

Sources:

CE, Comité des Régions., 2001, *La coopération transeuropéenne entre collectivités territoriales*, Brussels, 248 p.

Core Cities : <http://www.corecities.com/coreDEV/about.html>

DATAR., 2004, *Pour un rayonnement européen des métropoles françaises. Appel à coopération métropolitaine*, Paris, 14 p.

EDUR C., 2000, *L'ambition des Eurocités*.

5- Decentralisation or Devolution / Décentralisation/ Dezentralisierung

1. General definition

In strictly political terms, the transfer of decision-making and financial power from central government to a local or regional authority. The concept includes a normative and voluntaristic aspect.

With regard to regional development, the term is applied to the deliberate transfer of activities from the centre* to the periphery of a country.

2. National specifics

France

The word is highly charged in France, a country with a strong centralising tradition in which the move towards decentralisation has been slow and gradual, with a varying level of significance depending on the historical context and the issues of the day.

In the sense of the **transfer of competencies from central Government** towards lower-level bodies in the area of social action, "administrative decentralisation" began in the early 1970s, in particular after the move towards industrial decentralisation had demonstrated its limitations and run out of steam (1970: the requirement for municipal budgets to be approved in advance by the Prefect was removed; 1972: the French regions became *établissements publics à vocation spécialisée* – specialised public corporations). The key turning point was the Deferre laws of 1981-1983 (1981: the regions became fully-fledged territorial authorities with a Regional Council elected by universal suffrage). This was followed by a new phase of "transfer of competencies" with the law of 28 March 2003 relating to the decentralised organisation of the French Republic, which came into force on 1 January 2005 and the Liberties and Local Responsibilities Act of August 2004.

This move has only had a limited impact on the high degree of centralisation in sectoral policies (housing, energy, transport and so on) which come under the authority of ministries or large corporations that are either publicly owned or in the course of privatisation, but which have a highly pyramidal management structure (EDF, SNCF, Air France and so on). In practice, the heart of these organisations is always based in Paris (economic policy, financial decision-making, social policy, housing and accommodation, urban planning and development, standards definition, and so on). Decisions that are transferred relate to the performance and implementation stage, and imply an increase in costs for the three lower levels: the regions (strategic planning and scheduling), the *départements* (solidarity and infrastructure projects) and the municipality-EPCI (*établissement public de coopération intercommunale* – intermunicipal cooperation body) pairing (local policies) (cf. cooperation between neighbouring local authorities *). This increase is not always accompanied by a corresponding transfer of resources.

The term **decentralisation** was used in the sense of the "relocation" **of economic activities** in the 1960s. In practice this referred to a transfer of premises or the establishment of new facilities within national borders, to the "provinces" or to the periphery of the country (cf. core-periphery relation*) where operational activities with low added value and that no longer belonged at the centre would take place. The pertinence of this policy for national territories has decreased with the changing scale of relocation processes related to globalisation.

Belgium

In Belgium, the term *decentralisation* is generally associated with the move from a unitary State to a federal State, with the aim of resolving linguistic and cultural problems and authorising the Communities and Regions to act more autonomously, a move which was officially recognised from 1970 onwards. Cultural autonomy was instituted in 1971 whilst regionalisation began in 1980, but it was only on 5 May 1993 that Belgium became a federal

State. Numerous areas of competence were decentralised to the three Communities (Flemish, French and German-speaking), or the three Regions (Flemish, Walloon and Brussels-Capital). Some difficulties arose from the fact that the Communities and Regions do not share the same geographical boundaries. It is true to say, however, that administrations and numerous services are now much closer to citizens than they were previously, the federal State having retained power largely in areas of national interest such as national defence, justice, finance and social security, as well as many areas of public health and internal affairs.

As far as territorial development is concerned, the term *decentralisation* can also mean a transfer of competency from the regional to the municipal level. In the area of territorial development and urban planning (Belgium's regions have jurisdiction in these areas), increasing decentralisation is a marked trend that has been observed since the late 1980s. In concrete terms, this trend is illustrated in municipalities being empowered to issue administrative authorisations (permits relating to development projects) without being obliged to take into consideration the opinions expressed by regional officials. This increase in decentralisation, which is part of a general principle of subsidiarity, is frequently associated with increased involvement on the part of the local population (through consultation and cooperation). It also forms part of the idea that municipalities should gradually be given sufficient powers to manage issues relating to urban planning and development.

Germany

In Germany, decentralisation has been supported by the federal principle. The Constitution (Basic Law) governs the respective areas of competence of the Federal Government, the Länder and municipalities.

Decentralisation refers to the sharing of a task or function between several subordinate organisations or administration levels (for example with local or at least regional powers). This has been allowed by the federal organisational principle, guaranteed by the Constitution, through which, for example, the concentration of economic activity in the public sector in certain regions, such as that around the capital, can be avoided. Ever since the creation of the Federal Republic of Germany, strenuous efforts have been made to strengthen the principle of decentralisation, in the first place by splitting up and sharing the organs of the State between various towns and cities (e.g. the federal courts in Karlsruhe, Cassel, Berlin and Munich, the federal bank in Frankfurt, and the government and federal assembly (Bundestag) initially in Bonn and now in Berlin).

In the 1960s and 70s, new and extensive decentralisation measures were taken in Germany, such as the creation of new university campuses in more peripheral regions (for example, Oldenburg, Cassel and Regensburg), which have proven to be extremely effective, the construction of motorways in remote regions, etc. Finally, the transfer of the capital from Bonn to Berlin also entailed not only the transfer of the federal administrative court from Berlin to Leipzig (for example), but also, by way of compensation, other institutions active at the federal level to Bonn.

Today one realizes that the German decentralisation has perhaps resulted in economic units that are too small in size. A debate is currently underway on the merger of a number of Länder and further simplification of administrative structures. Current trends point towards decentralising areas where the responsibilities of the Federal Government and the Länder overlap. These have arisen since the Basic Law came into force within the context of discussions about federalism in order to clarify responsibilities at each level of government.

United Kingdom

In a British context, the term **devolution** refers to the granting of decision-making powers to new legislative bodies, principally the Scottish Parliament and the Welsh Assembly. The central government also has a plan for regional governance that could result in the assignment of limited new powers to regional authorities. The Government Research Council has also set up a research programme to look into devolution and the changes to the constitution required to promote work in this area (<http://www.devolution.ac.uk/>).

The term "devolution" therefore appears to be synonymous with political decentralisation, devolving power to a regional level (cf. core-periphery relation*).

The term **decentralisation** refers principally to movements of people out from the city centre, particularly where there are issues of traffic congestion or poor quality housing. This is illustrated very clearly in Patrick Abercrombie's plans for the reconstruction of Greater London in the years following World War II, which led to a programme of building New Towns and Expanded Towns, in particular in the south east, to relieve the pressure on London, but also in the Midlands and elsewhere.

In a similar way, a policy of decentralisation was also implemented in the years immediately after the war to encourage the development of new tertiary and manufacturing activities away from existing areas of employment to different types of "assisted areas" (cf. core-periphery relation*). Policies of this kind are no longer fashionable today in so far as central government's interpretation of sustainable development* causes it to promote the development of higher densities within the boundaries of existing towns and cities, even if growth remains low in development areas such as the Thames Gateway, downstream from central London. The scale of development required to meet the need for new households generated by demographic change means that not all growth can be met within existing urban areas and significant new development is proposed in four major "Sustainable Communities" growth areas in the south east of England.

In American usage, the term "decentralisation" is used to describe a spontaneous movement of the population away from semi-central urban areas, an unplanned exodus that results in "satellite towns".

Sources:

"Décentralisation, Etat et territoires", 2004, *Cahiers Français*, N° 318, La Documentation Française.

6- (Urban) density / Densité de la ville / Städtebauliche Dichte

1. General definition

Density is one of the key criteria for evaluating development policies and analysing the fabric of a town or city. It expresses the relationship between an indicator and a given surface area. For a city, it may express the density of the elements it contains (the density of population or employment, for example) or of what contains those elements (for example, the density of buildings).

Once the concept has been clarified (Allain, 2004) it has pertinence on several levels:

- the commuter zone, or conurbation, to specify the intensity of urban sprawl or compactness and therefore, combined with other elements of the urban footprint, the more or less sustainable nature of the urban macroform;
- the city district or sector, to evaluate methods for refurbishing the fabric of the city and making facilities profitable;
- islands and plots: the land occupancy coefficient and various regulatory tools to encourage certain ways of increasing or decreasing density.

Density indicators must be clearly defined by analysing coverage ratios at ground level, the relationship between occupied and open space (buildings/public space), and the proportion and nature of planting.

Density, like landscape, is an element that is perceived and felt. Density at a particular level may be perceived as excessive or be acceptable depending on the various combinations of built elements, planting (extent, layout, species, etc.), and the more or less successful nature of urban compositions.

2. Country-specific considerations

France

Densification has long been an integral part of the philosophy of development (developers, town planners) even at times when periurbanisation has been most to the fore. The current trend is for this paradox to become less marked, as a result of the increased awareness of the costs of urban sprawl and of dispersion (by both elected representatives and even residents). Although urban sprawl may be continuing, most frequently this is in the type of concentrated form encouraged by more restrictive POS (*Plans d'occupation des sols* – land-use plans) or PLU (*Plans local d'urbanisme* – local urban development plans). Moreover, the renewal* of the existing fabric is encouraged. However, the excessive densification authorised in the past by the PAZ (*Plans d'aménagement de zone* – area development plans) as part of the ZAC (*Zone d'aménagement concerté* – designated development areas) has now been made difficult by the incorporation of the ZAC in the PLU.

The density of the built environment is expressed as the density of buildings in relation to the total surface area. This relationship is used at all levels, from urban area through to individual plot. At the level of islands and plots, the legal COS (*Coefficient d'occupation du sol* – land use coefficient: gross area in m² of floor/plot area) defines to what extent the land can be built on. The *Coefficient d'emprise au sol* (ground coverage coefficient or CES) further defines this. Many urban planning documents, however (POS/PLU) have chosen to add detailed rules (block plans, architecture, etc.) to these rather crude criteria to allow a more refined approach to the development of the urban form. This makes it possible to do away with the COS entirely (as in Rennes). The debate over densification must be combined with a debate on its forms and social effects (restrictive land-use policies in central areas can encourage popular periurbanisation at a distance, as in the Rennes area) (cf. urban sprawl*).

Belgium

The density of Belgian towns and cities, expressed in terms of population, employment or buildings, is continuing to decrease as a consequence of urban sprawl. This is a source of

additional costs, which are aggravated by a highly dispersed mode of land usage by periurban structures that bear few of the costs of this type of urban expansion, which in reality are borne largely by the modest populations of city centres: these populations are, in reality, financing the decrease in urban density.

Germany

In Germany, there is a predefined framework for urban density set out in the Federal Construction Code (*Baugesetzbuch* or BauGB) and federal regulations on the use of areas of land for construction purposes (*Baunutzungsverordnung* or BauNVO), which municipalities can apply in concrete terms so as to restrict development within the framework of land use plans and building plans. The density of building is defined by the uses to which land is put in the building plan. Urban density is defined by the site coverage ratio, the plot ratio, the cubic occupancy ratio and the height of buildings or the number of complete floors.

The *Grundflächenzahl* (GRZ, or site coverage ratio) is a ratio that expresses the number of square metres of site coverage able to be built on per square metre of land. The *Geschoßflächenzahl* (GFZ, or plot ratio) is a ratio that expresses that number of square metres of gross floor area able to be built per square metre of land. The cubic occupancy ratio expresses the built volume in cubic metres per square metre of land.

In general residential areas, the site coverage ratio must not exceed 0.4 and the plot ratio is limited to 1.2. In mixed-use areas, the site coverage ratio has an upper limit of 0.6 and the plot ratio is 1.2. In central and service areas, the maximum site coverage ratio is 1.0 and the plot ratio is 3.0. In commercial and industrial areas, the site coverage ratio must not exceed 0.8, the plot ratio is limited to 2.4 and the mass coefficient is 10.0.

By defining upper limits for how land is used in the BauNVO, the density of urban building is limited to acceptable levels, and this is prompted by a concern for ordered urban development and socially equitable land use.

During the 1960s and 1970s the leitmotif in Germany was "Urbanism through density". It was during this period that the large estates were built, with levels of density that would be unthinkable today; they also failed to offer the social diversity and multitude of functions offered by historic city centres. The guiding principle of compact cities or cities with a small radius continues to rely on relatively high levels of density. Their principle characteristic is not the density of building however, but rather the functions attributed to them and the diversity of these functions*.

The theme of density takes on particular importance in the context of sustainable urban development*. This requires an economic use of space and land. A new approach is needed when urbanising new areas. A tool to reuse existing areas in order to reduce land consumption is currently being trialled.

United Kingdom

Building density is the built surface area in relation to that of the plot, generally expressed in ground surface area per hectare, using the square metre as the unit of measurement, although customary usage in the United Kingdom means that it is still expressed in square feet. For shops, the terms "plot ratio" or "site coverage" are sometimes used to refer to the number of storeys. For housing, density is often expressed in "habitable rooms" per hectare, i.e. excluding from the calculation auxiliary rooms such as kitchens and bathrooms, or the number of persons per hectare.

The plan for London developed after the war by Patrick Abercrombie defined a value of 247 residents per hectare as low density, 336 persons per hectare as average and 494 persons per hectare as high. The density of people living in Victorian slums was up to 600 as in Hulme in the Manchester conurbation in the 1930s. Current government recommendations refer to a minimum density of 30 to 50 residential units per hectare in built-up areas in so far as the promotion of higher levels of urban density passes for a more sustainable form of development (*Planning Policy Guidance*, note 3: Housing). However, "the British public

generally seems to consider density as the devil, and in part inexorably linked to the overpopulated slums of the 19th century." (Travers, 2001).

Sources:

ALLAIN, R., 2004, *Morphologie urbaine*, A. Colin.

FOUCHIER V., 1996, *Les densités urbaines et le développement durable : le cas de l'Ile-de-France et des villes nouvelles*, Editions du SGVN.

HEINEBERG, H., *Stadtgeographie, 2.Auflagen*, Ferdinand Schöningh, UTB, Paderborn, München, Wien, Zürich.

7- Sustainable development / Développement durable / nachhaltige (Stadt-)Entwicklung

1. General definition

The definition given in the Brundtland report of 1987, which refers to development on a global level, is as follows: "development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the capacity of future generations to meet theirs." The Treaty of Amsterdam (1997) enshrines sustainable development as one of the objectives of the European Union. The idea of what constitutes sustainable development varies from one Member State to another, and each country may make different choices in terms of implementation at different territorial levels. At the local level, a sustainable development approach implies a simultaneous desire for social progress, environmental protection and economic growth, although sustainable development is too often reduced to its purely environmental dimension, ignoring its inherent element of social cohesion*. Players at different levels already have access, through the local Agendas 21, to a set of practices that can be transferred to other territories under equivalent conditions.

2. National specifics

France

Sustainable development is implemented at several different levels. On a national scale, the Ministry of the Environment and the DATAR (*Délégation à l'aménagement du territoire et à l'action régionale* – Delegation on territorial development and regional action), now the DIACT (*Délégation interministérielle à l'aménagement et à la compétitivité des territoires* – Interministerial delegation on territorial development and competitiveness) played an important role in the dissemination of sustainable development concerns when the Green Party member of parliament Dominique Voynet headed up a large integrated Environment and Territorial Development Ministry from 1997 to 2002, leading to the adoption of the framework law on territorial planning and sustainable development (LOADDT, 1999).

As far as conurbations are concerned, it is possible to draw up a local Agenda 21 (a local implementation of the global Kyoto protocol), and the same applies to institutions (a town hall could have its own Agenda 21, for example) and to construction and development projects. A notable example is the city of Rennes, which aims to encourage urban renewal* through raising public awareness of the challenges of sustainable urban development (cf. the ADDOU (*Atelier de développement durable dans les opérations d'urbanisme* - assessment of sustainable development in town planning projects) process toolbox). France, which has long lagged behind in its concern for the urban environment compared to Germany and the United Kingdom, is gradually catching up in various areas, in particular as a result of European directives and influenced by France's signature of numerous international agreements, declarations and protocols relating to environmental issues. Recycling, the sorting of waste and household rubbish, ensuring that household waste incineration centres comply with regulations and the prevention of natural and technological risks, noise exposure plans and the monitoring of urban air quality are some of the areas in which France has made the most progress in recent years. By contrast, it continues to lag behind in the area of environmentally friendly housing.

Belgium

Like other countries, Belgium has made a commitment to adopting a sustainable development policy. The adoption in 1997 of a law to coordinate sustainable development policies marked an important step, and this led to the production of a first federal plan for the period 2002 to 2004. This focussed in particular on mobility, climate change, the fight against poverty, etc., and was followed by a second plan for the period 2004 to 2008.

Five general principles, taken from the 27 that comprised the Rio declaration in 1992, were selected to guide the direction of the federal plans:

- the principle of shared but differentiated responsibilities: all countries in the world recognise their responsibilities but developed countries must take the initiative because of their methods of production and consumption, which are poor in terms of sustainability, and the resources they have available to them. They must also be particularly attentive to the economic, social and environmental consequences for the rest of the world of the policies they implement;
- principle of double equity: decision-makers must examine the implications of their actions for current populations and future generations;
- principle of integration: as part of the preparatory process, political decisions must be subject to a detailed analysis in order to assess their economic, social and environmental impact;
- precautionary principle: in the event of a risk of serious or irreversible harm, the absence of absolute scientific certainty must not serve as a pretext for delaying the adoption of effective measures that aim to prevent environmental damage;
- principle of participation: all citizens concerned must participate in decisions relating to development in order to improve the quality of decision-making, increase adherence to the decisions taken and make their implementation easier.

Thirty actions have been included in the federal plans, grouped into six themes: the fight against poverty and social exclusion; confronting the consequences of an ageing population; limiting public health risks; managing natural resources in a way that is more respectful of the environment; limiting climate change and providing support for clean energy, and improving the transport system. Beyond grand declarations, however, all the indications are that implementing such measures is no easy task, in that they involve integrating social, economic and environmental policies that are often split between different levels of power.

Germany

At the World Summit in Rio de Janeiro on development and the environment over ten years ago, all countries made a commitment to defining national sustainable development strategies. For its part, in 2001 the German federal government put in place a sustainable development council that is responsible for advising the government on its sustainability policy and contributing to this by proposing objectives, indicators and projects designed to facilitate the pursuit of its sustainable development strategy. In April 2002, the federal government adopted a national sustainable development strategy entitled *Outlook for Germany*, which it presented at the World Summit on sustainable development in Johannesburg in 2002.

The objective of sustainable development is also the one of the approaches in each Land, through local Agendas 21 as well as at the municipal level. A programme of actions defines the measures liable to contribute to the viability and quality of life of a given local area. One of the major areas of focus of sustainable development is a reduction of land use and the promotion of sustainable housing development. Those urban strategies think that in-town development should take precedence over out-of-town development. They also recommend urban regeneration, the re-use of derelict land, the carbon reduction, and the collective transport development.

United Kingdom

The definition of sustainable development refers explicitly and literally to the terms of the Brundtland report. The English sense of the adjective "sustainable", however, differs from the sense of the French term *durable*. In English the emphasis is on durability in terms of time: it is a question of maximising the human well-being of current generations without leading to a decrease in that of future generations. In French, however, it has a wider meaning, taking into consideration economic, social and environmental aspects. This is why the French term *soutenable* is also used, a more literal translation, that is supposed to be closer to the original sense used in the Brundtland report.

In the United Kingdom, the "sustainable development strategy" is a political framework document intended to support sustainable development across the whole of the national territory. It sets out the five principles of sustainable development:

- living in accordance with respect for the environment;
- ensuring the right conditions for a strong, healthy and fair society;
- creating a sustainable economy;
- promoting good governance;
- using scientific bases in a responsible manner.

In Great Britain, government planning policy includes sustainable development as a declared objective in planning laws, although Parliament has refused to adopt a more precise definition than "a high and stable level of economic growth and employment, social progress, effective environmental protection and a reasoned use of resources" (parliamentary debates on the Planning and Compulsory Purchase Bill, 2003). In any event, according to Lord Rooker, the former Minister of State for Housing, Planning and Regeneration, "We don't feel the need for a definition (...), we think that people know what "sustainable development" means."

At an urban level, sustainable development concerns types of housing, architecture and materials that reduce energy consumption, pollution and the production of waste, but also involves minimising travel needs, particularly car journeys, and finally concerns the development of public transport systems. The city of Nottingham, for example, is taking up the challenge of the commitments made at Kyoto to reduce carbon emissions by setting up the CRed project (Cf. Toolbox).

"Sustainable communities" are another facet of sustainable development that is being encouraged more and more widely in the United Kingdom in particular in south-east England (e.g. Milton Keynes-South Midlands, Thames Gateway, London-Stansted-Cambridge and Ashford) in order to resolve the twofold problem of the pressure on towns and cities in southern England and of empty properties in the North, by drawing up strategic plans that take into account all sectors of the housing market (cf. urban renewal*, territorial cohesion*). According to an official report by the ODPM (Office of the Deputy Prime Minister), these communities "combine the diverse needs of current and future residents, their children and other users, contribute to a high quality of life and offer a wide range of options and choices, whilst ensuring an effective use of resources, improving the environment, promoting social inclusion and cohesion, and strengthening economic prosperity." (*Egan Review*, 2004).

Sources:

HAUGHTON G., COUNSELL D., 2004, *Regions, Spatial Strategies and Sustainable Development*, Routledge, 245 p.

ODPM (Office of the Deputy Prime Minister), 2002, *Sustainable communities, housing and planning* (<http://www.odpm.gov.uk/about/ministers/speeches>).

ODPM, 2003, *Sustainable communities : building for the future*, The Stationery Office, London.

ONU, 1987, *Notre futur commun*, Rapport de la commission mondiale de l'environnement et du développement, New York, 374 p.

8- Urban sprawl / Étalement urbain / Suburbanisierung

1. General definition

Cities expanding beyond their current boundaries. Cities mainly expand outwards via their peripheries (suburban and outlying areas). This sprawl primarily stems from major socio-economic and infrastructural changes, as a general increase in car use. This has resulted in an increase in mobility, as well as new behavioural patterns and different daily routines based on a geographical dissociation of work, home and leisure locations. The peak of this socio-technical phase (that of the “rubber city”) will have taken place between 1990-2010.

The word “sprawl” carries a certain morphological meaning, describing an urban, macroform stain gaining ground. But the outer edges of this stain are blurred, and “sprawl” can also refer to a more dispersed development or indeed a “scattering” of urbanisations.

The consequences of this sprawl are low population density*, discontinuity of developments, segregation issues (class divide on estates), predominance of functionality, juxtaposition of elements prevailing over form (absence of urban fabric), rapid mutation of uses and forms...

Associated problems and challenges are as follows: space consumption, energy spend, problems stemming from inequality and fiscal competition, and facilities management issues arising from a glut of administrative bodies.

Sprawl was once considered unavoidable, a process of natural evolution for our cities. This line of thought embraced a certain view of modernity, heavily influenced by the widely recognised American model (the end of the traditional city, as declared by M. Webber).

The current intention of urban development policy is to avoid the trend towards suburbanisation in favour of intra-urban development.

2. National specifics

France

The macroforms of large French cities, roughly circular as far as geographical constraints allow, have seen their radii grow on average from 10 to between 30-40km since the 1970s. Since the end of the 1960s, development and town planning circles have denounced this growth and the resulting unmanageable consequences (the Pisani report, which led to the 1967 “Loi d’orientation foncière et urbaine” (a directive relating to urban planning and land) establishing SDAUs (urban development plans) and POSs (statutory land-use mappings), and the Mayoux report on home ownership...). But at the same time, increased car use and a housing policy promoting home ownership encouraged the growth of the outlying suburbs.

Control and general direction decisions fall into three main areas: administrative (complementarity* - cooperation between neighbouring local authorities), town planning (urban development plans, ScoTs - land coherence plans, urban renaissance*, built-up areas on main roads) and transport policy (designated public transport routes, intermodality*...).

The heavy trend towards urban sprawl continues, responding to demand from average householders priced out of city centre property and land. However, on closer inspection, the consumption of space through urban spread is less dramatic than in the years between 1980-1990, reflecting policy makers’ increased awareness of the need for sustainable urbanisation.

Belgium

The concept of urban sprawl is rarely referred to in French-speaking Belgium. The Belgian word most commonly used in this context is “*désurbanisation*”. This concept refers to movements towards outlying zones (areas formed in the wake of a residential development and/or new economic activity) and also to the decline of traditional urban fabric. The growth of outlying areas combined with the decline of cities is probably a result of the early onset of Belgian urbanisation (in contrast to France, a large chunk of Belgium’s urban areas was in existence before the Second World War). In the context of this early urbanisation, the current

movements towards outlying areas are mainly a result of people shifting due to the declining traditional urban fabric rather than a consequence of straightforward growth.

Germany

In Germany the most commonly used term is *Suburbanisierung*. This generic term encompasses all the trends towards increasingly scattered development of open spaces in the periurban area. The term *Periurbanisierung*, which describes the further extension of suburbanisation towards the outer suburbs of urban areas has not as yet won the right to be used in German.

The term suburbanisation does not simply refer to expansion in terms of the physical area of the town towards the periurban area, but also the process of decentralisation of the population, production, administration and commerce. Improved transport services from the periurban areas to city centres, more extensive and cheaper land and an allegedly better living environment have fostered the trend towards suburbanisation. In the past, urban sprawl was even supported through tax benefits (allowing taxpayers to deduct the costs of their travel to work, the so-called "commuter package").

City centres have experienced a decline in their population in the past. It is not only new building plots that have grown up in the extra-urban areas of city centres, but also industrial and/or light industrial premises, as well as retail outlets.

The problems characteristic of suburbanisation are the phenomena of urban sprawl towards the periurban area, the loss of the functions of the *Freiraum* (natural landscapes and unbuilt areas), car traffic, a decline in the population and the loss of functions in city centres, as well as social segregation and a marked increase in necessary expenditure on public technical infrastructure projects.

The guiding principle of decentralisation seeks to be the German concept in the area of territorial development aimed at countering suburbanisation. The German planning system makes it possible to manage the development of residential and infrastructure areas at different levels in order to counteract the process of suburbanisation.

- Approaches at the Land planning level (Land development plans)
- Approaches at the regional planning level (regional plans)
- Approaches at the municipal planning level (cooperation between neighbouring local authorities*; regional planning and development programme)

United Kingdom

Sprawl refers to an unchecked growth beyond current zones. In fact, urban sprawl is generally viewed in the UK as a suburban phenomenon.

The suburbs have a low population density where residency is the dominant theme, but can also be home to a few retail shops and a small number of local jobs. The expansion towards the peripheries has gone hand-in-hand with innovations in transport, allowing a much-increased mobility, especially via shuttle services. In the US, Warner (1962) studied the phenomenon of the "streetcar suburb". Whilst trams and buses were developed in the UK during the period between the two World Wars, it is the car that has come to dominate in the post-war years.

In Great Britain, there is no strong tradition of urban lifestyle in densely populated central sectors. The majority of people aspire to a suburban lifestyle, their own house (preferably detached), a front and back garden, and cars for getting to work and the shops. Several policies have attempted to slow down this spread. The Restriction of Ribbon Development Act, 1935, aimed to control urban development along the main radial roads. Green belt areas, which were introduced following a government decree in 1955, are more current and enjoy a certain status. The development historian, Cherry highlighted the green belt as the best known of all British development policies. Not all cities, however, have a green belt and use other methods such as green wedges to control urban sprawl.

As referred to in the Decentralisation section, planning policies in the UK seek to restrict urban sprawl by focusing development on brownfield sites where possible. This is

implemented through allocations in Local Development Documents and the Sequential Test (see Europolis final report, tool-box).

Those Greenfield developments that will be required will be built as “Sustainable Urban Extensions” with a mix of housing, services and employment uses built at relatively high densities with good public transport.

References:

ALLAIN R., 2004, *Morphologie urbaine*, A. Colin, Collection U.

BAUER G., ROUX J.M., 1976, *La rurbanisation ou la ville éparpillée*, Le Seuil.

CHALAS Y., DUBOIS-TAINE, 1999, *La « Ville émergente »*, L’Aube.

ROGERS R., POWER A., 2000, *Cities for a small country*, Faber & Faber.

SIEVERTS T., 2001, *Zwischenstadt*, Bâle, Birkhäuser.

WEBBER M., 1964, *L’urbain sans lieu ni bornes*, trans. L’Aube, 1996.

9- Derelict land / Friche industrielle / Gewerbe-oder Industriebrache

1. General definition

Derelict or under-used land, usually requiring some form of preliminary intervention, depending on its state, with a view to eventual reintroduction to the land and property markets, regardless of its potential designation. The term can also be used to describe former industrial land or buildings with no possibility of any sort of re-use in the short-term.

Public intervention is normally required when the cost of regeneration of derelict land, in order to reintroduce it to the market, is higher than the land's commercial value after a preliminary intervention and when the "polluter pays" principle is not applicable to the redevelopment, i.e. when derelict land has a negative value or deficit.

In certain countries, public authorities assume responsibility for rejuvenating the disaffected industrial area in order to reintroduce it to the market. Failing that, the area and buildings may be remediated or demolished, either completely or partially, and the authorities depollute the land if necessary. Subsequent development and processing is however the financial responsibility of the new owner, whether public or private.

Urban derelict land reclamation is considered to be one method of reducing urban sprawl* and its implicit recycling qualifies the process as urban regeneration*.

2. National specifics

France

Le Code de l'urbanisme (town planning code) does not lay down any specific measures for treating derelict land, for which there is no statutory definition. The Lacaze report on behalf of DATAR (now the DIACT- *Délégation interministérielle à l'aménagement et à la compétitivité des territoires* – Interministerial delegation on territorial development and competitiveness) drew attention to the issue of derelict land based on a 1985 inventory of 20,000 hectares. However, this document was preceded between 1978 and 1983 by the first experimental interventions in regions most affected by the phenomenon (Nord-Pas-de-Calais, Lorraine). Despite the engineer Lacaze's recommendations, no global policy was conducted at national level, due to the strong geographical concentration of derelict land (for example, one single coal basin in Nord-Pas-de-Calais accounted for 37% of France's derelict land in 1984). Since then, the joint government-regional project contracts (*Contrats de projets Etat-Régions-CPER*) readily available, should the need arise, thanks to structural funds, are able to cover between 50 and 100% of derelict land regeneration costs before redevelopment. The remaining costs are covered by local authorities (usually the *communes*). *Etablissements publics fonciers* (public land specialist operators) were created in the regions most affected by the phenomenon (Lorraine, Basse-Seine, Nord-Pas-de-Calais). They are responsible for seeing the regeneration process through to its conclusion and completing all aspects of land administration, before handing over to a local authority or a private buyer.

The main regions concerned have succeeded in eradicating the bulk of derelict land, also referred to as "environmental" land. However the initial hopes ignited by regeneration of reviving economic activity, especially in industry, have not come to fruition. Most sites have been converted to green space or land reserves. As a result of their activities in this domain, the mission of the *EPFs* was broadened to include regeneration of urban derelict land. Their success in handling these land issues led to the creation of *EPFs* in other regions (Ile-de-France, Brittany...) with the aims of increasing the pace of urban renewal*, clearing land to create affordable building sites for social housing* and slowing down urban sprawl*.

Abandoned industrial sites posing a threat in terms of pollution are now receiving more attention following a European Directive making listing of such sites obligatory.

These listings are maintained by the national geological service (*Bureau de Recherches Géologiques et Minières: BRGM*) using the Basiol database. Information collated shows that France, where there were thought to be fewer polluted industrial sites than in northwest

European countries, is equally affected by the phenomenon, for a long time underestimated due to a lack of accurate financial reporting and assessment.

Whilst France seemed to be behind some of its European neighbours (Britain and in particular, Germany), large-scale operations were undertaken in the most affected regions. Nord-Pas-de-Calais and Lorraine actually appeared to be making better progress than Wallonia, yet without approaching the massive scale and quality of long established operations in Germany.

Belgium

Although the term “derelict land” is rarely used in Belgium, especially by the ruling authorities who prefer the acronym *SAED* (disused industrial site), the phenomenon is well-established in this country with its history of early industrialisation, particularly in Wallonia where today 2,500 sites cover almost 10,000 hectares. The first steps towards remediation were taken in 1967, and focused on coalmines. In 1978, these measures were extended to all sites of former industrial activity. Despite the legislative framework in place (which underwent several reviews), the number of remediations remains low. These are mainly undertaken by public authorities, since the derelict land tends to be geographically concentrated and many sites are polluted. Moreover, the abundance of space available on new business parks does not particularly encourage business to reuse old sites. The small size of many *SAEDs*, which are often situated in residential areas, limits scope for economic redeployment. Under the auspices of its last plan to revive economic activity (*Plan Marshall*), the Walloon government decided to boost its efforts in this area and earmarked 450 million euros for a four year period (2006-2009) to regenerate 27 prioritised polluted sites and more than 100 non-polluted sites, labelled *SRPE* (“landscape and environmental remediation site”) and considered of regional interest.

Germany

Increasingly, municipalities are moving in the direction of sustainable urban development* given that a majority of the requirements for building plots for housing and industry and/or light industry can be satisfied by making use of existing derelict land. Reusing derelict sites makes it possible to reduce land consumption and to create building plot reserves intended for future in-town urban development. This is extremely important, given that over the last 50 years Germany has consumed more land than ever before.

As a result of the transformation of structures that has taken place over recent years, derelict land is largely found in areas that were historically industrialised and have grown up as a result of industrial companies closing or relocating or to transport infrastructure being removed or radically altered. Another important potential source of land is the conversion of derelict military land into civilian areas.

The range of areas historically used for specific purposes and now abandoned and unused goes from industrial sites that have been left derelict, factories that are no longer used, and former ports and shipyards, to former railway land and the former military sites of the Allied forces stationed in the Federal Republic of Germany and of the Bundeswehr. As far as size is concerned, areas left abandoned by the railways and former military sites far exceed all the other types of derelict land. Alongside their actual surface area, the way they are redeveloped in the future depends in the main on their location in relation to the city. Although, for example, areas for redevelopment are located both within the conurbation and outside it, former railway infrastructure is characterised by its intra-urban and often central location; as such, these areas represent considerable development potential, which could be integrated into a sustainable urban development strategy.

According to assessments carried out by the BBR (the German federal department of urban planning and spatial organisation), Germany has at its disposal 400,000 ha of redevelopment land and 28,500 ha that could be reused for industrial purposes. Many cities and municipalities do not have the necessary financial resources to redevelop these areas for new use, but the potential they represent exceeds their need for land. The question of reuse arises particularly in regions in decline. Many municipalities and cities in the east of the country

have seen their population drop sharply since reunification. This phenomenon does not only affect the prefabricated shared housing built on the outskirts of towns and cities, but also affects city centres. Consequently, the revitalisation of abandoned buildings and housing is increasingly becoming a matter of urban development.

In Germany, it is not the State that takes care of the measures needed for the redevelopment of industrial derelict land and its reuse. There are aid programmes that support the redevelopment of industrial land either directly or indirectly (for example, funds aimed at improving the structure of the economy, funds to support urban planning and subsidies provided for in the urban transport finance act).

In some German regions, cities are becoming increasingly "perforated". Cities that were previously compact have visible gaps where they are underused. This is particularly true of military and industrial sites and railway infrastructure, which have been broadly abandoned and largely dismantled.

United Kingdom

The expression "derelict land" is mainly used to describe a piece of abandoned land with no opportunity for reuse without preliminary intervention. As the term usually refers to former industrial strongholds, the symptoms of dereliction are generally abandoned buildings and infrastructures as well as various forms of industrial pollution. The process of dealing with polluted sites is governed by national and European regulations; this intervention is costly.

The term entered the common use during the 1970s following a series of urban studies, and in particular a mapping of Liverpool's derelict land. The first detailed public interventions go back as far as the 1940s. Local authorities decide on action to be taken, but up to between 50 and 70% of the cost is absorbed by the State and the European Union, rising to 100% in assisted areas and FEDER zones. This level of financing is similar to that of comparable regions in France.

England has a long established approach to preserving national heritage, supported by the National Heritage organisation. This involves developing its oldest sites as well as those rich in industrial archaeology.

A number of valleys (such as the Severn in Derwent) have even earned UNESCO World Heritage status, in recognition of the important role they played at the beginning of the Industrial Revolution.

In the last fifteen years former industrial land was commonly described using the term "brownfields" as opposed to unused "greenfield" land. In order to encourage sustainable development, current government policy targets brownfield sites using the term "previously-developed land", even though this term might well apply to partially developed sites, such as private gardens and playing fields within built-up areas.

References:

CEDRE, 1994, La problématique des friches industrielles, *Territoires d'Europe*, vol. 1, CEDRE/FEDER/Région Castille & Leon.

DATAR, 1985, *Les grandes friches industrielles*, La Documentation Française.

DATAR, 1991, *La réhabilitation des friches industrielles*, La Documentation Française.

MEYER P. B., WILLIAMS R. H., YOUNG K. R., 1995, *Contaminated land. Reclamation, redevelopment and reuse in the U.S. and the E.U.*, Edward Elgar.

OGÉ F., SIMON P., 2004, *Sites pollués en France. Enquête sur un scandale sanitaire*, Libro.

ROGERS R., POWER A., 2000, *Cities for a small country*, Faber & Faber.

10- (Transport) intermodality / Intermodalité / Intermodalität (kombinierte Verkehrsmittelnutzung)

1. General definition

(Transport) intermodality is defined by the use of several modes of transport during a single journey, for example using car and metro, in contrast with multimodality, which refers to using several forms of transport but over more than one journey. The term “modal shift” does not refer to a change of transport mode during a single journey, but describes the selection of one mode of transport over another for a journey. An example would be leaving the car at home in order to use a form of public transport. Policies to develop (transport) intermodality aim in particular to encourage commuters travelling in from outlying areas to leave their car on the edge of the city centre. Car parking or, better still, “park and ride” facilities are developed at the entry to the city with access to a designated public transport network route (e.g. metro, tramway). For larger agglomerations, parking areas would be located next to a railway station. Development of shelters and parking for bicycles at metro and railway stations, provision of free or low-cost bicycle rental at strategic sites serviced by public transport, design of public transport carriages and vehicles (train, metro, tramway, bus) with space for bicycles and introduction of hybrid tramway and train lines allowing trams to operate in the suburbs as well as in town centres all contribute to (transport) intermodality. In exemplary cases, public transport hubs/interchanges allow a commuter the choice of several modes of transport (e.g. train, tramway, bus, bicycle). Urban tollbooths at the entrance to city centres or a complete vehicle ban in the heart of the centre are compelling reasons for (transport) intermodality.

2. National specifics

France

(Transport) intermodality has not taken hold in France, except around Paris where, given the size of the agglomeration and its spread, Parisian suburb dwellers are already used to getting to their nearest train or *RER* (inner city commuter service) station on foot, by bus or by bicycle, and finishing their journey if necessary on the metro, *RER* or bus. This is increasingly the case with those travelling in from outlying areas, but the sprawl, dispersion and growing multipolarity of the Parisian agglomeration encourages more frequent exclusive use of private cars for journeys between suburbs or from an outlying area into a suburb. Public transport does not compare favourably with the car for this type of itinerary in terms of both time and cost. In France’s other agglomerations, development of designated public transport, in particular tramways and the speedy *VAL* (automated light vehicle system), has encouraged “park and ride” schemes linked with transport networks, firstly in Lille, then in Strasbourg, Toulouse, Lyon, Grenoble, Nantes and Rennes. In most cases parking areas are free and under surveillance.

Belgium

In the face of increased mobility and its inherent problems (see urban sprawl*), Belgium, like most other European countries, encourages (transport) intermodality for both goods and people. In both cases it is necessary to allocate each mode of transport a particular role that minimises its environmental impact, and transfer between modes must be smooth. To this end, the authorities have developed multimodal platforms and corresponding links between urban and interurban transport, and infrastructure that facilitates the transfer between private car and public transport. In terms of goods, Belgium’s significant waterway network has increased the number of multimodal road/rail/water combinations in comparison with other countries, more so in Flanders as opposed to Wallonia.

Germany

Intermodality forms part of an integrated transport policy. In this context, intermodality or the combined use of different methods of transport largely concerns urban public transport. Urban public transport relies mainly on interconnections between different methods of transport and the forced expansion of *Park+Ride*-type services funded by the Federal Government thanks to the subsidies provided for in the urban transport finance act (*Gemeindeverkehrsfinanzierungsgesetz* GVFG). Park+Ride services are generally located close to railway stations, but also close to the main access routes into and out of conurbations to allow travellers to use public transport services (bus, suburban rail services, underground etc). In the same way, the combination of cycling and using public transport has been improved in many cities through the construction of bike-parks near to railway stations. Many cities (e.g. Hanover, Stuttgart, Munich, Bremen, Wuppertal, Bonn, Bochum, Münster etc.) have made adjustments to their public transport vehicles to allow them to carry bicycles. In 2002 the Federal Ministry of Transport adopted a national cycle plan for 2002-2012, encouraging good practice and developments at railway stations to facilitate intermodality between bicycles and public transport. Individual car traffic has increased markedly in recent years as a result of suburbanisation. This is causing more and more problems, particularly in major conurbations. Added to this is an increase in costs as a result of the sharp rise in oil prices. Against this background, there has been a breakdown and the general transport plan, dominated by the car, has given way to a broader concept of transport dominated by multimodality and favouring environmentally-friendly travel combining the use of bicycles, buses, trams and cars. In this system, each method of transport is put to optimal use.

United Kingdom

“Multi-modal” is the English term generally employed in this domain. (Transport) intermodality has been encouraged through “Travel Plans”, initially targeted mainly at schools and employers. These efforts to make public transport more attractive aim to create a more sustainable transport system and subsequently reduce the reliance on individually owned vehicles. In some cases, urbanisation projects are put on hold until a “Travel Plan” can be implemented. In ways like this, transport authorities have been encouraging the adoption of intermodality. “Park and ride” schemes have been developed involving the creation of large parking areas next to suburban railway stations. At larger stations, “parkways” provide drivers with a stepping-stone to main train routes. Similarly, in numerous cities of varying sizes, large “park and ride” schemes link bus routes (often with free or cheap fares) with the city centre.

References:

BEAUCIRE F., 1996, *Les transports publics et la ville*, Milan, 64 pp.

11- Social housing / Logement social / sozialer Wohnungsbau (soziale Wohnraumförderung)

1. General definition

Accommodation, the principal aim of which is to be affordable for those on a modest or low income (sometimes privately owned but mainly rented). Social housing is financed in a way that shelters it from the precarity of the private market, but which means that construction choices (budget decisions, housing policy, local policy) and allocation decisions (often unclear and overshadowed by favouritism) depend upon government politics.

2. National specifics

France

Article 55 of the 2002 *Solidarité et Renouvellement urbains SRU* act (Solidarity and Urban Renewal Act - SRU) offered a clear definition of social housing. Rental properties are considered as social housing when access to them is subject to means testing, they have regulated rents and they have formed the subject of an agreement with the State conferring a right to personal housing support. In the main, social housing in France consists of the stock of HLMs (*habitations à loyers modérés* – properties with moderate rental charges and an option to purchase after a given period) and those of the SEMs (*sociétés d'économie mixte* – joint public-private corporations), a total of almost 4 million homes. It also includes privately rented homes that fulfil the conditions set out above.

Generalisations have long been made about the location and nature of social housing (large groupings, blocks etc), attaching a certain stigma to how it is viewed. However social housing nowadays is much more systematically a part of urban tissue, often in smaller groupings and sometimes enjoys design and basic standards equivalent to or higher than those of many non-aided building schemes. Social housing constitutes a good indicator of public policy: it is a tool for developing a mixed* urban community and for urban development and can bring about certain important initiatives, notably the *Zone d'aménagement concerté ZAC* (“urban development zones”). The share of housing that qualifies as social accommodation varies among urban *communes* (administrative districts). The *loi d'orientation pour la ville* (governing trends in urban planning) and more recently article 55 of the SRU law and article L 302-8 of the Building and Housing code have together made mandatory a quota of 20% social housing (to be achieved gradually). How this is achieved is set out by the Local Housing Programme (*PLH*) in publicly owned establishments of inter-commune cooperation (*EPCI*) concentrating on housing activities. Many mayors of suburban *communes* admit to being unable to reach this target of one-fifth social housing, notably in Ile-de-France. Even when they are able to comply, many *communes* prefer to pay an annual fee based on their social housing shortfall. Given current levels of poverty, issues of social cohesion*, segregation, selection and of raising wealth amongst the most deprived seem far from being resolved.

Belgium

The expression “social housing” refers to housing rented by a public landlord within the social policy framework of housing benefit. Nowadays in Belgium this policy is regionalised, with the Walloon, Flemish and Brussels regions overseeing the action of local operators specialised in this domain (essentially public service housing organisations). Compared with neighbouring countries, social housing in Belgium represents only a fraction of total housing, approximately 6% in Flanders and 8% in Wallonia and Brussels. These low figures can be explained by the Belgian tradition of considering home ownership the main aim of housing benefit. Historically, this aim was a separate issue to that of occupancy. Indeed, numerous initiatives implemented since the law of 9 August 1889 heralded social housing policy have

allowed the private rental sector to develop. Until the 1960s, it was private landlords who had reduced the housing shortage (notably during the period that followed the Second World War) whilst simultaneously limiting social development.

Germany

The construction of social housing refers to the construction of housing subsidised by the State and aimed at social classes who are not able to find housing on the private property market. For decades, the 2nd law on housing construction served as the legal basis in the Federal Republic of Germany; its aim was to make available homes which as a result of their size, facilities and rent or charges were aimed at and taken up by large sections of the lower classes (cf. § 1 II. WoBauG). In addition to ensuring the availability of low-cost housing, the 2nd WoBauG also made property ownership available to a broad cross-section of the population, who became owners of the homes in which they were living.

The law reforming the construction of housing and introducing the law relating to the social development of housing (WoFG) came into force on 1.1.2002 and replaced the system of building social housing with the social development of housing.

The social development of housing is also aimed at households that are unable to house themselves adequately on the property market and which rely on financial assistance. Upper income thresholds have been defined for these households

The social development of housing aims to construct new homes including homes for first-time buyers, to modernise the existing housing stock, to acquire occupancy rights on existing housing and to acquire existing housing. In addition to developing new homes for the rental market and additional tools relating to the existing stock, a significant amount of financial aid is used to support families who wish to own their own homes.

Compared to definitions of the construction of social housing, the social development of housing is geared much more towards families in need of assistance and is broadened by development tools that target the existing housing stock. Assistance can therefore be targeted more effectively than in the past to the social classes at whom these measures are aimed and can be adjusted to suit the regional and local conditions of the property market.

The social development of housing, like the construction of social housing, is the responsibility of the Länder, and requires cooperation on the part of both the Länder and the Federal Government. The Federal Government contributes to the financing of the social development of housing by granting financial assistance under the terms of art. 104 GG (Basic Law). Administrative agreements relating to this assistance are reached between the Federal Government and the Länder.

United Kingdom

The term “social housing” refers to a habitat with a social purpose, destined in particular for social groups unable (or unwilling) to buy their own home. Historically, the majority of British housing was rental. After the First World War, a campaign entitled “Homes fit for heroes” was developed to promote improvements in housing conditions, particularly for those whose families had fought in the war. The government provided the first subsidies, enabling a large number of town councils to build new housing, thus coining the term “council housing” to describe this form of social housing. In the period between the two world wars, for example, Birmingham City Council built more than 50,000 council houses. After the Second World War, home ownership became as popular as social housing was stigmatised, a reaction to the underprivileged social groups who lived there. Certain initiatives became problem initiatives: “difficult to rent and difficult to leave”.

From 1979, Mrs Thatcher’s Conservative government tried to solve this problem by removing councils’ powers concerning social housing, the biggest housing estates being in general under Labour control, and by promoting the term “social housing”. Government grants to councils for building and even maintenance of already existing housing were all but abolished. The new social housing would be built and managed by politically independent organisations, such as housing trusts. Residents were allowed to buy their home at affordable prices thanks to new legislation, “ready to buy”. The current Labour government, in power

since 1997, has fought for a change in the management and ownership of the remnants of social housing, passing from councils to registered social landlords (RSLs).

Trends have been as follows: (<http://www.odpm.gov.uk>) :

	1982	2002
home owners	58%	69.8%
public sector (council public housing)	29%	13.8%
private tenants	10.8%	9.7%
social housing	2.2%	6.6%

References:

DRIANT J.-C., « Le logement social », in SEGAUD M., BRUN J., DRIANT J.-C., 2003, *Dictionnaire de l'habitat et du logement*, A.Colin.

Lacaze, JP, Les politiques du logement, Dominos, Flammarion, 1997.

12- Mixed use development and mixed communities / Mixité (sociale et fonctionnelle) / Soziale Mischung oder Nutzungsmischung

1. General definition

Mixed use development is generally considered relevant to two areas: the population and activities or functions. In the first case, the aim is to combat social segregation, especially in terms of housing, both in private and social accommodation sectors, in order to generate social cohesion* and avoid a proliferation of ghettos.

In the second case, the overlapping of activity networks allows us to return to what can be called the real city, and to fight against spatial segregation of activities, which reduces the side effects of one activity on another, continually encouraging displacement and forced mobility.

2. National specifics

France

French cities have been subjected to a two-fold effect due to the way in which they are structured. The general make-up of urban areas encourages a certain amount of social sifting, but economic activity relating to land prices also plays a role. Socio-technical change, often summarised by the term Fordism, encourages separation of activity, accentuated by an organisational way of thinking that still links efficiency and modernity with the process of separating functions. The result is an increasingly fragmented structure with a detrimental effect on urbanity.

For twenty years the makers of urban policy have been trying to find a solution by advocating mixed use development and mixed communities to rediscover urban diversity and equality within cities. The notion of **mixed communities**, often viewed as some sort of myth, involves a social mix of all classes and ages as a result of housing policies (finance, size, types of housing). It requires a rebalancing of social housing at a municipal level and between neighbouring local authorities ; furthermore, it must lead to a diversification of housing types in districts where there is evidence of spatial and social segregation.

Mixed use development aims to blend economic, cultural and social activity with the residential aspect of life in urban areas: the centre, certain districts and outlying *communes*. Within these, city centres and public housing developments are particularly targeted.

The *LOV, Loi d'orientation sur la ville* (urban orientation law, 1991) aims to achieve these *mixités*, which are also the motivation behind the *SRU* (solidarity and urban renewal law, 2000). The tools for implementation are as follows: *PLH* (local housing programmes), making it compulsory for urban *communes* to designate 20% of their accommodation as social housing; intervention in land use (*Etablissements publics fonciers locaux* – local public land specialist operators, since 2000: see derelict land*); direct action in housing (social or aided finance); large-scale initiatives (*Grands projets urbains GPU* – urban projects, *Grands projets de ville GPV* – city projects); more targeted action (*Zones franches urbaines ZFU* – urban enterprise zones; *OPARCA*...). In addition, for a number of years numerous development projects have been trying to group all elements of urban complexity within the framework of large operations, a notable example being the *ZAC* (urban development zones). Along with density* and polycentricity*, mixed use development is one of the major issues of the sustainable city.

Belgium

Developers themselves often welcome moves towards **mixed use development** of housing and services. Residents, increasingly sensitive to pollution (noise, traffic...), are not always as accepting of such change and their side effects. They prefer their immediate neighbourhood to be an exclusively residential environment. These issues pose a problem for

spatial decision-making in a mixed use development approach: should functions be completely integrated or conversely should the mix occur at within separate districts or even sub-districts?

As far as **mixed communities** are concerned, success has been limited, either due to personal choices, or the limitations of available property.

Germany

As an urban planning objective, mixed-use development is accepted by almost everyone. It is considered an important part of sustainable urban development (urban density*, mixed use development and mixed communities, polycentricity*) and of cities that cover a small area. Mixed employment, housing and communities create diversity and an urban feel in city districts. The proximity of housing and employment simplifies the organisation of daily life, promotes social contact and shortens the length of essential journeys. Mixed districts are highly attractive and vibrant.

Actual urban development in Germany, however, is characterised by social segregation and a separation of functions. The principle of separation can be attributed to the prevention of emissions and the inconveniences caused by conflicting uses and the relationship that arises as a result between planning law and environmental law. Provisions to protect against nuisance tend to have negative repercussions on mixed-use development (§ 50 BImSchG – nuisance prevention act). The degree of nuisance is decreasing in the context of increasing tertiarisation. Developing mixed housing, commerce and employment functions is made easier by focusing more clearly on services.

There are no specific legal tools to promote mixed-use development. Options are available, however, through general urban planning law. Federal regulations on the use of land for building (BauNVO) open up new possibilities for mixed use. Building plots providing for mixed-use development can be represented at the level of the land use plan. These areas can be specified in concrete terms on the building plan. Defining mixed-use areas, residential areas and central and service areas in the building plan makes it possible to obtain a finely-balanced mix. Civil engineering structures are only permitted in these areas if they do not cause nuisance or inconvenience that would be unacceptable in the building area or the area around it.

United Kingdom

The concept of mixed communities seems to apply to new housing programmes, developed and designed to house different social groups. In the UK, the main issue is specifically how to succeed in providing sufficient “accessible housing”, i.e. social housing*. National policy (Planning Policy Guidance; vol 3: housing) suggests setting aside a percentage of “accessible” housing when property-building programmes go beyond a certain number of housing units.

The term **mixed use development** was popularised by recent steps in favour of sustainable development*, a reaction to the strict zoning of functions fashionable after the Second World War, when the first generation of development plans was created.

It is now very fashionable (if not *sine qua non*) to include high density in any new programme, most often in height terms for central locations, with accommodation on the upper floors and shops on the lower level floors or at least at ground floor level. The reason lies in providing residents with services on their doorstep and also presenting the advantage of “active façades”. Current recommendations encourage mixed development on a much larger scale, for example at local district level (Llewelyn-Davies for English Heritage & the Housing Corporation, 2000). In a recent case, where authorities demanded compliance with local development policies, property owners were prevented from renting out buildings they owned as commercial premises, forcing them instead to transform their investment into an exclusively residential building.

13- Urban policy / Politique de la Ville / Stadtentwicklungspolitik (auch Programm „soziale Stadt“)

1. General definition

This term refers to a collection of policies whose common objective is to solve everyday inner city social problems and housing difficulties, especially in certain districts (poverty, precarity, inequality and segregation, unemployment, housing access problems, over-population, poor quality housing, insecurity, deterioration of private and public spaces...).

2. National specifics

France

The framework law and financing act for the city and urban redevelopment of August 2003 sets objectives to reduce the gap between the most disadvantaged cities and city districts in order to engage them gradually in a process “towards a return to the common law”. 751 zones are grouped together by the 1995 law under the acronym *ZUS* (*Zones urbaines sensibles* – sensitive urban zones), “house vulnerable families, with an inferior quality of life and habitat. Urban and social segregation is exacerbated in these enclosed, monofunctional districts.”

The scope of urban policy covers, notably:

- employment and economic development, with the objective of reducing territorial disparities and improving access to employment,
- improving housing and living environments,
- health: developing prevention services and access to care,
- improving school performance,
- public peace and security (for example, by preventing delinquency),
- mobilising public services.

The law on equality of opportunities of 31 March 2006 supplements these measures.

The onset of problems in these districts, usually on *grands ensembles* (public housing developments), can be traced back to the mid-1970s. 1976 saw the assertion of urban policy with the *HVS* (*Habitat et Vie sociale* – housing and community life contracts), whose objective was to “break the vicious circle of social degradation” and to “halt the deterioration of buildings”. This policy was apparent during the 1981 “étés chauds” (civil unrest) under the guise of the *DSQ* (*Développement Social des Quartiers* – social community development) contractual policy (between state and city), followed by a more global approach in 1989 with the *DSU Développement Social Urbain* –social and urban development) and a targeted approach via the design-led *Banlieues 89* project. The *Pacte de Relance pour la Ville* (urban regeneration pact) in 1996 created 44 *ZFU*s (urban enterprise zones offering tax incentives to companies creating jobs and economic activity). From 1989, urban policy was integrated into the single *Contrat de Ville*, a partnership contract between cities and the state valid for a four-year period. After trials in 1989, it was launched in 1992, affecting 3 million inhabitants in 1,310 districts and 767 *communes*. Severely disadvantaged areas attracted a higher concentration of support schemes. For example, *GPU* (*Grands projets urbains* – urban projects: Grigny La Grande Borne, Mantes-Val Fourré...) and *GPV* (*Grands projets de ville* – city projects).

These measures impact three main areas:

1. Social. Improvements in living conditions, waste disposal, education (creation of *ZEP Zones d'éducation prioritaire* in 1982, encouraging admission of disadvantaged students to educational establishments), and cultural and security issues.
2. Economic. The common objective was to move towards mixed use development and mixed communities* and establish activities in districts hardest hit by unemployment (*ZFU*).
3. Urban development. Improving urban landscape, restructuring public housing developments via demolitions or reconstructions as appropriate...

Supporting urban policy were laws such as the *LOV*, *Loi d'orientation sur la ville* – urban orientation law, 1991 and the *Loi SRU* – solidarity and urban renewal law, 2000 and specific

tools such as the *PLH* (*Programme local de l'habitat* – an urban planning programme, requiring reluctant *communes* to accept a minimum level of social housing with land schemes offered as an incentive). *Rénovation urbaine* policy (Borloo law, 2003) reinforces this legislation (85 *ZFUs*): a large-scale national urban renovation programme (*PNRU*) of 30 billion euros over 5 years (2004-2008) was launched, combining demolitions and reconstructions, redeployments, remediations, and residentialisations. The distribution of funds and the implementation of these schemes are overseen by the national urban renovation agency (*Agence nationale de rénovation urbaine ANRU*), an EPCI (see complementarity*) establishment.

Despite these efforts and the huge sums of money mobilised, results have been mixed. The terms “half-success” and “half-failure” have been used. The riots of October and November 2005, which took place mostly in districts targeted by urban policy, would certainly suggest measures taken have either been insufficient or unsuitable.

Belgium

Since 1999, policy for large cities in Belgium has been established by a federal service under the auspices of the ministerial department for social integration, which works in partnership with the country's main urban *communes* in order to improve social, economic and environmental conditions in the most disadvantaged urban districts. In contrast to France, the most problematic areas are not necessarily the outlying cities made up of social housing. More often than not, problem areas are more central, in districts where the urban fabric has rotted away and where the actual proportion of social housing is relatively small. Due to Belgium being a federal State, individual regions are qualified to deal with their own economy as well as town and country planning decisions. However, regions have required schemes to improve conditions in problem districts or, more generally, to ensure development in traditional urban areas. Existing initiatives in Wallonia are: urban renovation, urban revitalisation, local development agencies and city centre management.

Germany

The generic term “urban development policy” (*Stadtentwicklungspolitik*) covers a very wide range, indeed a multiplicity, of activities geared towards development in the cities. The following all form part of this spectrum: development of new forms of housing, reallocation (*Revitalisierung*) of derelict land* (see urban renaissance*), land-use decisions that respond to environmental issues, national planning to decide on important urban development measures, financing of urban development measures from public and private funds, protection of historical monuments, planning of infrastructures, notably public transport and the costs of suburbanisation. As can be seen, this expression has a very wide meaning, the *soziale Stadtentwicklungspolitik* referring to its social aspect achieved through the “*soziale Stadt*” (“Social City”) programmes (see Europolis final report, tool-box).

United Kingdom

The expression “*politique de la Ville*” does not have a direct equivalent in England. In the 1970s and 1980s, the preoccupation was city centre development with the introduction of the Inner Urban Areas Act in 1977. Today the term “regeneration*” covers all issues relating to urban problems. The key document is the 1999 Rogers Report, the Urban White Paper.

References:

- CHALINE C., 1997, *Les politiques de la ville*, PUF, « Que sais-je ? ».
VEILLARD-BARON H., 2002, *Les banlieues françaises*, Nathan.

14- Polycentricity / Polycentrisme / Polyzentrismus

1. General definition

This concept was popularised by the ESDP (European Spatial Development Perspective), which established as one of the objectives of European Union policies the “reduction of regional inequalities by the promotion of new centres” (see territorial cohesion*, centre-suburbs links* and core periphery relations*). It implies a certain voluntarism that goes against heavy trends towards polarisation. Polycentricity calls on the notions of economic influence, decisional autonomy, innovation and cultural creativity. Thus the word also describes a policy.

The concept needs to be considered on several levels as it is possible to envisage different types of polycentricity:

- coexistence on European soil of several regions of international stature (A),
- a network of metropolises and capital cities and their overlapping functions : metropolitan regions(B),
- a reticulated urban network where connecting points of intermediary nodes :Trans-European corridors(C)
- networks with small nodes favouring endogenous dynamism (D),
- networks of cities that are more functional than spatial (E),
- internal polycentricity of large metropolitan areas (F)).

These different forms of polycentricity can be complementary. This is the case with the ESDP where “linked polycentricity” is a combination of types C, E and D.

The principal issues from a sustainable development* viewpoint and a balance between areas can be looked at on two levels:

1. At **state** level. Despite globalisation, states remain in control of their main decision-making areas (tax, transport, energy, development...) at the national or regional level;this level has been maintained and even increased by the planning system.
2. At **metropolitan area** level: polycentricity implies the existence of important centres situated outside the centre of the State, with a high percentage of metropolitan functions, infrastructure, economic capacity, areas for industrial or light industrial use, with a high proportion of offices and commercial space, a high level of urban development and a strong relationship between the working population of these centres and the working population of the zone of alternating migrations. This is interesting from a sustainable development* point of view as well as in terms of the improved functioning of cities via a reduction of centripetal shuttling and converging influxes. There are established polycentric systems (Los Angeles could be described as one) and numerous attempts to create new centres (new satellite cities in London, Stockholm, Paris...)

2. National specifics

France

The polycentric model has undoubtedly experienced difficulties in establishing a foothold at a national level in France, largely for politico-administrative reasons (including the country’s cultural make-up). The root cause can be found in France’s legacy of centralisation, and the extent of its devotion to this, unseen in neighbouring countries, where much more extensive decentralisation* policies have taken hold. Nevertheless, polycentricity is a major town and country planning objective in a forward-looking and quasi policy document written by the former town and country planning Minister Jean-Louis Guigou (Guigou, 2002). The term “polycentricity” had largely been omitted from previous writings about regional inequalities based on centre-suburbs links* and core-periphery relations* analysis. The use of the polycentric concept aims to overcome the traditional Paris/province divide, whilst sharing the

objectives of the European Union. The objective of polycentricity does however seem to come second to DIACT's (formerly DATAR, 2006) quest for competitiveness. The areas of competitiveness recently created in France should however contribute to polycentricity in so far as they could lead to the creation of regional metropolises, should they fulfil their potential, and consequently contribute to restoring the balance between urban and regional areas throughout the whole country.

Belgium

Polycentricity is encouraged by urban development plans such as those in Flanders where development is based around the "Flemish Diamond" (a quadrilateral formed by the four cities of Antwerp, Ghent, Leuven and Brussels), and in Wallonia where the *Schéma de Développement de l'Espace Régional SDER* (regional spatial development perspective) proposes structuring development around two principal areas (Liège and Charleroi), around Namur (political capital) and around Mons (regional areas) without forgetting smaller areas (ones supporting rural zones and border, tourist and other areas). It should be added that in the context of redistributing the roles of Wallonia's cities, if Namur is the political capital, Liège has been designated economic capital, Charleroi social capital, and Mons cultural capital, whilst Verviers is referred to as the water capital.

Germany

Throughout its history, Germany has been a federal and polycentric state (see decentralisation*).

Alongside the former functions of the regional capital (of the Land), the shift in economic development has brought about diversification in urban functions and a transformation in levels of importance. The consequence of this is that today Germany has around 80 cities of over 100,000 that serve as the nucleus of an urban area.

Polycentricity is anchored in the law on territorial development through the guiding principle of decentralised concentration (the so-called Central Places system). The idea of polycentric development gained in importance as a result of the general framework of the territorial development policy of 1993 (BMBau 1993) and the decisions taken at the ministerial conference on territorial development, in particular the framework for action in this area (BMBau publication 1995). The general framework for territorial development presents the broad outlines of decentralised spatial development. The proper functioning of how space is organised must be guaranteed by strengthening and developing the network of Central Places. The consequence of this general direction is not to favour certain regions experiencing growth (in particular there is no unilateral aid for regions located within the famous "blue banana"), but to encourage regional strengths, even in regions located a long way away from a conurbation, to promote a balanced housing structure.

The directions and actions strategies adopted on 30 June 2006 by the ministerial conference for territorial development in Germany highlight the fact that the intention of the territorial development policy of the Federal Government and the Länder is to support the drive towards economic growth and innovation and the shift to a knowledge-based society more strongly. All regions should make a contribution to this.

Polycentric spatial organisation is strengthened in the plans and programmes of the Länder as well as in regional plans by specifying major, average and minor centres.

United Kingdom

It is a widely accepted view that polycentricity is supported at European level by the ESDP.. Peter Hall has pursued the idea at national and regional level in the UK and explored possible avenues for future spatial policy. The minister ordered a study on the subject in the light of the ESDP.

<http://www.odpm.gov.uk/index.asp?id=1145443>.

The degree of polycentricity of British regions varies considerably. Despite regional administrative bodies, such as the Government Office for the West Midlands (GOWM), and

regional development agencies in England's nine regions, links between regions and interregional planning remain fairly undeveloped.

References:

ALLAIN R., BAUDELLE G., GUY C., 2003, *Le polycentrisme, un projet pour l'Europe*, PUR.

BAUDELLE G., CASTAGNEDE B. (Ed.), 2002, *Le polycentrisme en Europe*, L'Aube, DATAR.

BBR (Bundesamt für Bauwesen und Raumordnung), 2000, *Raumordnungsbericht*, Bonn.

BBR, 2004, *Raumordnungsbericht*, vol. 21, Bonn. CE, 1999, *Schéma de Développement de l'Espace Communautaire*, Luxembourg, OPOCE.

GUIGOU J.L., 2002, (2nd ed.), *Aménager la France de 2020*, La Documentation Française.

LUTTER H. (Ed.), 2001, *Spatial development and spatial planning in Germany*, Federal Office for Building and Regional Planning (BBR), Bonn.

15- Centre-suburbs links / Rapport centre-périphérie (agglomération) / Stadt-Umland-Beziehungen

1. General definition

Defined as relations between the city centre, i.e. the *commune* part of the city that gives the agglomeration its name, and the peripheral *communes* located in the suburbs or in nearby outlying areas. These relations are complex, and occasional conflicts can arise, because of the imbalances and competition due to the phenomenon of urban sprawl*. This spread can cause a city centre to lose inhabitants, jobs and tax revenues, whilst the peripheral areas reap the benefits of the “exurbanisation” of populations and activities without always being able to match the level of services available in the city centre, notably in terms of culture, commercial, education and leisure and entertainments. They have lower financial costs whilst benefiting from increased tax revenues. Complementarity* (cooperation between neighbouring local authorities) is one way of tackling issues of accessibility*, mixed use development*, territorial cohesion*, indeed urban renaissance* and renewal* when devitalisation of the central *commune* arrives at an advanced stage or where the gap between centrality charges and tax resources of a city centre reaches a compromising level.

2. National specifics

France

The effects of urban sprawl* were felt much later in France than in neighbouring countries and its relatively more recent urbanisation and industrialisation have prevented the premature migration of the higher social classes towards the suburbs and outlying areas. Despite a fall in this population due to urban renovation* and the less frequent instances of different generations cohabitating, France is less concerned than Belgium and the UK by the decline of city centres, which continue to attract core employment, benefiting from high profile, well-paid activities, services of the highest calibre, and housing the highest paid members of the population. The social gradient of French cities is based on decreasing land and property prices moving out from the centre towards the periphery. Improved relations between outlying *communes* and the centre are reliant on an improved geographical spread of the working class population, currently concentrated in areas of collective social housing and in certain suburban *communes* (see mixed use communities*). They are also dependent upon the distribution of tax revenue from companies, one of the goals of complementarity*.

Belgium

This country experienced early urbanisation and industrialisation and has witnessed a long-standing decline of its city centres. Its residential outlying areas have grown through the lack of a core urban fabric, characterised by large sections of run-down drab accommodation dominating working class areas. Well-off and middle class populations drifted away from city centres, and economic activity soon followed (see urban sprawl*). Urban sprawl and its resulting impact on demographic, economic, social (see mixed* communities) and tax revenue issues, does not have a dynamic effect on the demographic situation in Belgium (especially not in Wallonia): the population remains constant. The chief outcome sees the poorest sections of society concentrated in city centres, which puts pressure on their own resources as well as *communes*' tax resources, which are essentially drawn from the income of these households.

Germany

In Germany the term centre-suburbs links refers to all the elements of the city that overlap with its surrounding area (society, population, functions, transport, ecology, economy, etc.).

The radius of migratory movements has been enlarged over time to the rural areas around major conurbations. Today, more people live in the peripheral areas of major conurbations than in the city centres. In western Germany this tendency has increased over the course of recent years and net immigration into city centres, which brought with it an increase in the population in the early 1990s, is again in decline. In the new Länder, there was no suburbanisation prior to reunification. This situation changed at the beginning of the 1990s. The extent to which housing is suburbanised is currently in decline in certain regions of the new Länder.

The migration of the population is being accompanied by a transfer of employment and commercial, industrial and light industrial businesses on the same scale.

The issues mentioned in the general definition regarding the uneven distribution of costs and revenues (low tax revenues going hand in hand with an increase in social costs) apply in the same way throughout Germany. City centres bear the costs of providing very expensive infrastructure facilities (health, education, etc), but tax revenues (income tax and business tax) largely fall into the coffers of peripheral areas. Another problem is the competition between urban development and the protection of large continuous areas of open space that exist on the outskirts of the major conurbations.

A strategic approach to tackling this problem is the establishment of urban communities as well as cooperation between neighbouring local authorities*. Tools include, for example, regional concepts of transport, housing and commerce and the regional plans as well as the regional land-use plan.

United Kingdom

In the UK the expression “centre-suburbs links” is very commonly used in the domain of town and country planning, but always at a regional level as opposed to a reference to urban space or one particular agglomeration.

References:

SIEVERTS T., 2001, *Zwischenstadt*, Bâle, Birkhäuser.

16- Core-periphery relation (regions) / Rapport centre-périphérie (régions) / Beziehung zwischen zentralen und peripheren Räumen

1. General definition

In this context, the fundamental difference between densely populated areas and rural areas characterised by a lower population density, a lower level of accessibility and, in most cases, less sustained economic activity is a major challenge. The core-periphery model is a reference to the disparities between developed core regions and periphery regions, the latter usually being economically worse off, less populated, less dense, and less accessible in comparison with the core. This battle between core and periphery regions has created a raft of official publications from within the European community following a regional science study by a team of Cambridge researchers led by David Keeble in 1988 for the European Commission.

The geographer Alain Reynaud's 1981 introduced the model to France. Following on from the work of Samir Amin, Reynaud focused on what he saw as the core regions' political and cultural domination over periphery regions. However the use of the concept of a "peripheral region" dates back to the Great Depression of 1929 and its effects on the British industrial basins. Europe's first town and country planning measures were implemented here, now that distinct peripheral regions were identifiable.

The core-periphery model still holds a semi official status at European Union level, as it forms part of the basis of European regional policy regarding monetary compensation for areas left behind in terms of development and accessibility.

On the other hand the term is used less frequently in northwest European countries. "Spatial Vision" for northwest Europe does however use it and the *Conférence des régions périphériques maritimes CRPM* (maritime periphery regions conference) still relies on this particular method of analysis.

2. National specifics

France

The idea of core and periphery regions goes back to the post-war years, and notably the appearance of Jean-François Gravier's famous work, *Paris et le désert français* "Paris and the French desert" (1947). Gravier highlighted the political dimension of the capital's domination but also the advantages held by regions rich in mineral resources, such as those in northeastern France, as opposed to the peripheral western and Massif Central regions (nowadays a somewhat forgotten theory). So whilst town and country planning rhetoric commonly referred to the status of periphery regions in the 1960s, the tone did change with the relative decline of the long established northern and eastern industrial regions and the development of western and southern regions. If geographers and university economists, notably those of the neo-Marxist state-critical school of thought, still use the core-periphery model, it is only one type of analysis. This is mainly due to regional convergence and the patchwork nature of labour markets, caused by uneven rates of development within each region. The term is still in official use at a community level in the overseas territories.

Belgium

Belgium's small surface area limits the extent of regional inequality. Different languages and contrasting communities, mainly Walloon and Flemish, together with Brussels' singularity making it a veritable city-region, do however create an acute regional disparity issue. Despite federalisation, at regional level there are regular debates concerning the balancing out of costs. Discussions centre around how to even out movements between communities and regions for social reasons (employment, revenue and population ageing) and the problem of linguistic boundaries. The German-speaking community would seem to be on the peripheral margins in terms of its numbers, but its high standard of living, its geography (it is part of

Wallonia), and the fact that it is one of the most protected cultures in the world negate this assumption.

Christian Vandermotten of the neo-Marxist geography school of the Free University of Brussels employs the core-periphery model from a long-standing economic history perspective. Wallonia was for a long time the core, with Flanders the periphery. In the 1960s, rural and mining Limbourg seemed like a typical Fordist periphery region. However changing economic fortunes since the war made the regions of Flanders and Brussels the core of the country. Parts of western Wallonia, especially Cheleroi and Borinage around Mons are generally thought of as peripheral areas, and moreover qualify for this title according to FEDER objective 1 (1994 to 2006).

Germany

The differentiation between densely populated areas and rural areas is included in the Urban Planning and Development Act (*Raumordnungsgesetz*) and was recently broadened by the BBR. The 2005 report on territorial development published by the BBR established a new basic typology of spatial organisation. A new methodology allows types of region to be defined in accordance with the spatial distribution of the population as well as accessibility to other spatial functions in the centres. The following basic types have been identified: **central regions** (large continuous urban areas and artificially created corridors that go beyond regional and national boundaries), **peripheral regions** (areas of low demographic density, mainly rural in character with fewer than 100 inhabitants per km² and at longer distances from urban centres) and **intermediate regions** (areas with limited population potential, but with a good level of accessibility to major urban centres. They form the wider periurban area of the central regions as well as corridor-type spaces between hubs). According to their specific demographic density, these basic types can be differentiated into six spatial categories.

This new typology takes account of the fact that the increase in personal mobility broadens the area in which people act to beyond the boundaries of their municipality or district, that there are significant overlaps between different spaces that have little to do with administrative divisions, that metropolitan areas are merging across administrative boundaries, thus acquiring significance on a European scale, and that communications routes that serve as connections between cities and regions play a primordial role in providing access to the heart of the network's structures.

The types of spatial organisation serve as the basis for an analysis of territorial inequalities in the Federal Republic of Germany and for discussions on the general direction and bases for action of the territorial development policy.

The law on territorial development defines as its objective equivalent living conditions across all the country's territories. The pertinence of this objective is currently the subject of debate amongst experts in the field.

United Kingdom

A periphery is a marginal, under-developed area. In English, the term clearly refers to areas lacking accessibility* and that, as a result, are more prone to economic and other problems, whereas core regions are characterised by their high level of accessibility and its resulting socio-economic benefits. It is essentially a geographical concept, with a core that dominates and a periphery that is dominated on both a political and economic level. The term "periphery" can also be used describe an under-developed area, and as a result the model has its critics. In the UK the term has been in common use since the 1930s.

References:

BBR (Bundesamt für Bauwesen und Raumordnung), 2000, *Raumordnungsbericht*, Bonn.

BBR, 2005, *Raumordnungsbericht*, vol. 21, Bonn. <http://www.bbr.bund.de>

CE., 2004, *Un nouveau partenariat pour la cohésion: compétitivité, convergence, coopération, troisième rapport sur la cohésion économique et sociale*, Luxembourg, 206 pp.

- DÜHR S., NADIN V. (Ed.), NWE INTERREG IIIB Spatial Vision Working Group, 2005, *Spatial Vision Study n° 1, Polycentric territorial development (including urban-rural relationships) in NWE. Final report*, University of the West of England, Bristol, 40 pp.
- GRAVIER J.F., 1947, *Paris et le désert français*, Flammarion, 317 pp.
- KEEBLE D., OFFORD J., WALKER S., 1988, *Peripheral regions in a Community of twelve Member States*, Commission of the European Communities, OPOCE, 133 pp.
- REYNAUD A., 1981, *Espaces, société et justice*, PUF., 264 pp.

17- Carbon reduction / Réduction des gaz à effet de serre / Reduzierung der Emissionen von Treibhausgasen

1. General definition

The greenhouse effect is a process in which the low layers of the earth's atmosphere are warmed due the differential absorption of solar and terrestrial radiation by atmospheric gases. The effect of the trapping of the radiation is to increase temperatures, thereby contributing in part to climate warming.

The Kyoto Protocol (1997) subsequently set a target of reducing aggregate emissions of six greenhouse gases (CO₂, CH₄, N₂O, hydrofluorocarbons (HFC), perfluorocarbons (PFC) and sulphur hexafluorides (SF₆)), which 38 industrialised countries undertook to reduce by 5.2% from 1990 levels by 2008-2012. The European Union undertook to reduce them by 8%. The Kyoto agreements also provide for "emissions trading" between the industrialised countries (art. 17), which would enable the parties to buy or sell quantities of emissions from or to their partners. In 1998 European Union Environment Ministers concluded an agreement setting the greenhouse gas emissions reduction efforts for each Member State. In the countries of the Europolis network trends show a very slow decline in emissions of the six gases in question, with contrasting performances, depending on the gases.

Gross internal consumption in Europe (25 Member States) categorised by energy source is as follows (2004 data):

Crude oil:	39.2%
Natural gas:	25.4%
Nuclear energy:	14.8%
Coal:	13.7%
Lignite:	4.9%
Primary electricity and other:	2.0%

Measures regarding the use of the private car are proving difficult to implement. Initial measures to prevent the emission of pollutants are being taken. The problem of climate protection lies in the fact that reducing carbon emissions for different vehicles is not sufficient to compensate for the growth in mobility.

As industrial emissions are falling, the decisive factor will now be the energy required to heat homes.

2. National specifics

France

The national climate change programme established in 2000 with the aim of enabling France to meet its commitments under the Kyoto Protocol comprises around a hundred measures covering seven sectors: industry, transport, construction, agriculture and forestry, waste disposal, refrigeration gases and energy production. This programme includes tax measures encouraging good practices and measures to tax harmful discharges. The French level of CO₂ emissions per capita (1.5 tonnes of carbon equivalent per inhabitant per year) is well below the Community average (2.3), since the large proportion of electricity produced by nuclear power enables that much less fossil fuel to be burnt.

Belgium

Belgium has an average profile at the level of its CO₂ emissions since its energy production is based on a combination of fossil fuels and nuclear power.

Germany

The level of CO₂ emissions per capita (2.9) is higher than the Community average due to the importance of fossil fuels in electricity production, especially coal (22% of electricity production) and lignite (29%), whose respective shares are even expected to grow to exceed 30%, despite major renewable energy investment programmes (at the moment 6.5% of which 3.4% wind power). This is because, after a Social Democrat/Green coalition came to power in 1997, Germany decided in 2002 to phase out nuclear power (which at that time accounted for 31% of national electricity production) by 2025-2030, an orientation confirmed by the new CDU/SPD coalition government in 2005.

The proportion of renewable energies in electricity production was 10.2% in 2005. A trading platform for buying and selling emission certificates has begun to operate. Energy savings regulations have been amended and strengthened in order to improve the thermal insulation of private homes.

United Kingdom

Annual UK emissions per inhabitant remain higher (2.7) than the EU average due to the partial abandonment of nuclear power and the enduring importance of coal and hydrocarbons, some of which are derived from national sources. (See the Europolis tool-box, the Programme C-Red, Carbon Reduction).

Sources:

BELTRANDO G., CHEMERY L., 2000, *Dictionnaire du climat*, Larousse, 344 p.

EUROPEAN ENVIRONMENT AGENCY, annual, *Annual European Community Greenhouse Gas Inventory, Technical Report*, Luxembourg.

MINISTERE de l'Aménagement du Territoire et de l'Environnement, 2000, *Aménagement du territoire et environnement. Politiques et indicateurs*, Institut Français de l'Environnement.

DATAR, La Documentation Française, 272 p.

18- Urban renaissance (or urban renewal or redevelopment) / Renouvellement urbain / Stadterneuerung(Stadtenwicklung)

1. General definition

Urban development describes a whole combination of processes that have always been at work in towns and cities and result in a regeneration and revitalisation of the existing fabrics, both old and recent which involves urban renewal or redevelopment measures. The word "renewal" has been used to denote a new policy emphasising the redevelopment (cf. *requalification**) and densification of existing fabrics (central, pericentral, old outer suburbs etc but also housing estates and inner suburbs of varying degrees of density). Compared to "renovation", urban renewal involves "rebuilding the city on the city"; it is therefore a strategy for trying to prevent urban sprawl (cf. *urban sprawl**) and the decline of city centres or even centre cities. The aim is to combat the trend decline in the population of city centres, a spontaneous movement caused by decohobitation, the reduction in the size of households, the aspiration of families to acquire a single-family home of their own, with a garden and, if possible, not semi-detached or terraced (the "4-wall" house of the Belgians). Its other objective is to limit land use on the outskirts of cities while central infrastructures and built-up urban areas are declining and losing value. It is a matter, therefore, of preventing this dual process of central devitalisation/use of peripheral areas, since urban sprawl (cf. *urban sprawl**) is considered to be more costly than regeneration of the centre.

The overall goal of urban renewal is thus to allow the city to develop upon itself, by transforming areas already built upon or occupied and not only by extending it to its outer fringes; it is, therefore, a sort of "*urban recycling*".

Spontaneous renewal is difficult to achieve when it is left solely to market mechanisms, which often makes it necessary for the public sector to intervene in order to provide this "transformation urban planning", which is "neither simple nor spontaneous" (Chaline, 1999). Some degree of voluntarism is therefore often essential in order to prevent downward spirals not only in buildings but also sometimes in blocks or even entire neighbourhoods and wide areas of towns and cities (cf. *derelict land**).

The terms **renewal**, **redevelopment** (cf. *urban regeneration**), **rehabilitation**, **renovation**, **revitalisation**, **regeneration**, **renaissance** and **recapture** nonetheless overlap in such a way that they are among the most difficult to compare and to transfer from one country to another, including between France and the French-speaking part of Belgium.

2. National specifics

France

As elsewhere, the reasons underlying urban renewal in France are many and varied (Allain, 2004): city centre response from to competition from centralities on the outskirts of cities by encouraging the population and business activities to return; combating the deterioration of certain neighbourhoods (centres, housing estates); concerns about rates of return (cost-effectiveness of road and other networks and facilities; re-use of land or buildings that have fallen into disuse or obsolescence etc); concerns about "sustainability" (curbing urban sprawl); combating the ageing or impoverishment of certain neighbourhoods through the renewal of activities and the population.

This philosophy lies at the heart of the Rogers Report and of the Urban Solidarity and Renewal Act (2000). The political change (2002) resulted in a return to fashion of a term that was, however, regarded with great dislike in the world of urban planners, the term being "urban renovation (*rénovation urbaine*)" (Plan Borloo). This is because **urban renovation** in France denotes the ruthless destruction of the fabric, the obliteration of networks and denser and more expensive reconstruction (cf. *aménagement* de centre-ville*). The urban renovation projects of the 1950s-1970s meant the large-scale and radical demolition of concentrations of

over-populated slums unfit for human habitation and shanty towns; it involved the radical and authoritarian elimination of fabrics deemed incompatible with the authorities' concept of modernity. However, beyond the technical mechanisms, the objectives of urban renewal remain pretty similar. This time round, though, it introduces the idea of allowing the occupants to remain in situ.

The tools and procedures are touched upon under **city centre development** (*aménagement* de centre-ville*) and **urban policy** (*politique* de la ville*). The most frequently used tool today in central and pericentral districts is the ZAC (*Zone d'aménagement concerté*, an area earmarked for public/private partnership projects), since it allows control of the land on the three levels of availability (pre-emption), restructuring (complex and inappropriate plot layout) and price. *Contrats de ville* (city contracts), *Grands projets urbains* (GPU – large urban projects), then *Grands projets de ville* (GPV – large city contracts) covered both districts on the outskirts and varying areas in entire urban spaces so as to ensure an overall view.

Urban renewal can also be presented and defined as a set of planning and development, land and urban restructuring, housing and social cohesion initiatives. It can be approached at a municipal or even an intermunicipal level, incorporating city centres and the major estates located in peripheral districts. Beyond "rebuilding the city on the city", it aims to open and reestablish links between city districts marked by urban and social segregation, and other districts.

Belgium

The expression "urban renewal" (cf. *urban renewal**) is used in the same sense as "urban redevelopment" (cf. *urban regeneration**), "urban revitalisation" or "urban renovation". What is more, it seems to be being used with increasing frequency, probably due to the French influence since the adoption of eponymous Act – the Urban Solidarity and Renewal Act (2000).

Germany

The terms urban renewal and urban restructuring are derived from the definition of urban development. The renewal and restructuring of historic towns and cities and the preservation of the functions of city centres are some of the central goals of urban planning. Urban development is currently facing new challenges, taking account of the demographic, social and economic changes underway and their impact on cities. Given the complexity of the problems faced in cities, integrated approaches to and concepts of urban development and restructuring have been put in place.

Demographic decline means that there is often no more demand for existing housing and infrastructure and that the city is refocusing on these central elements. The ageing of the population has brought with it new requirements in the areas of housing and infrastructure. Changing consumption patterns in the population and consequently the transfer of supply facilities to out-of-town locations often leave many commercial facilities in the city centre standing empty, as well as prompting a loss of identity. The objectives of urban renewal have followed these changes by adapting to them: preserving the diversity of city centres, promoting city-centre functions, consolidating strong points and highlighting major features apply particularly in the context of competition with other cities.

The term urban restructuring has been used in Germany in recent years. Like urban renewal, urban restructuring aims to preserve and strengthen urban functions and performance and allow them to evolve as conditions change. As the term suggests, fundamental restructuring is often appropriate in cities, which makes an integrated, overall approach a necessity.

The strategies used for urban renewal and urban restructuring very often rely on cooperation. Participation by citizens is becoming more and more important, as is cooperation between players in the private and public sectors (PPP). A new form, "trilateral cooperation" (public authorities, private investors and citizens) has also proven successful.

United Kingdom

The concept of **urban redevelopment** was originally applied mainly to the large-scale changes made necessary by the destruction caused during the Second World War. Nonetheless, it appears today that such programmes extended well beyond just towns and cities that had suffered heavy or even less serious bombing. These towns and cities took advantage of these policies to ensure their advancement in the new post-war socio-economic environment (Larkham and Lilley, 2003).

Most of these programmes, even in bomb-damaged areas, focused on flattening and redeveloping the slum neighbourhoods inherited from the 19th century. They were soon referred to more commonly under the expression **urban renewal**, especially in the 1960s. These projects generally involved large-scale demolition and rebuilding work, followed by redevelopments, most frequently in the form of new shopping centres (in town and city centres) or housing estates (on the urban front). This was known as *comprehensive clearance*. The scale of these operations and the mediocre architectural and urban quality of many of the new facilities and buildings, together with their poor long-term management and upkeep, gave rise to a great deal of criticism in the 1970s and 1980s, such as that from Esher (1980). Hence the change of policy by the new Conservative government and the widespread use of the new concept – **urban regeneration** (cf. *requalification* urbain*).

The term **urban renaissance** is used less often. Its wider use seems to have been accelerated in particular by the report of the Urban Task Force chaired by the architect Lord Rogers in 1999, which advocated an approach which paid greater attention to forms. The government's Urban White Paper (2000) speaks of "**regeneration**" and "**urban renaissance**", suggesting that there is a difference between the two, without, however, stating what that difference is. However, the urban planners of the South-East England Regional Assembly considered that **urban regeneration** was one element of **urban renaissance**, which "tackles environmental, social and economic policy objectives applicable to all urban spaces, including suburban spaces, and not simply those requiring economic-type intervention" (2002, quoted by Cowan, 2005).

Sources:

ALLAIN R., 2004, *Morphologie urbaine*, Paris, A. Colin, Collection U (Chapter 10).

CHALINE C., 1999, *La régénération urbaine*, PUF, "Que sais-je?", No. 3496.

<http://www.bbr.bund.de>

19- Urban regeneration / Requalification urbaine / / Aufwertung der Stadt (Stadterneuerung-Sanierung)

1. General definition

Cf. *aménagement* de centre-ville*.

The term carries the implicit idea that the city or the part of the city in question has "degenerated". It may be a case of central areas degenerating due to the ageing of the building stock and the gradual deterioration of public spaces or of popular social housing districts on the outskirts of the city. Action almost always combines economic measures (injection of new business), social measures (addition of better quality housing, residentialisation) and urban planning measures (refurbishment, restructuring of public spaces etc).

The word "regeneration" is also used for ad hoc urban planning projects (street, block, urban frontages, grounds etc)

2. National specifics

France

The word is used in the sense of the general definition. Given the social geography of French towns and cities, regeneration projects have more frequently related to neighbourhoods on the outskirts of cities, especially the housing estates of the 1960s and 1970s. Cf. *politique* de la ville*.

Belgium

In the French-speaking part of Belgium, the expressions "urban regeneration", "urban renovation" and "urban revitalisation" are used interchangeably. All three refer to the positive changes observed within certain urban neighbourhoods. The expression "urban renewal" (*renouveau* urbain*) is also used. There are official definitions of urban renovation (*rénovation urbaine*) and urban revitalisation (*revitalisation urbaine*) in Walloon legislation (the Regions have jurisdiction in urban planning and town and country planning matters in Belgium). **Urban renovation**, which is based essentially on public funds and agents, is defined by article 173 of the Walloon Code of Town and Country Planning, Urban Planning and Heritage (*Code wallon de l'Aménagement du territoire, de l'Urbanisme et du Patrimoine* – CWATUP) as "an overall and concerted development project undertaken at the initiative of a local council which aims to restructure, rehabilitate or refurbish an urban area so as to foster the maintenance or development of the local population and to promote its social, economic and cultural function while respecting its own cultural and architectural characteristics". **Urban revitalisation** is a public/private partnership mechanism which aims, "within a defined area, at the integrated improvement and development of housing conditions, including retail and service functions, by implementing agreements between the local council and the private sector" (CWATUP, article 172).

Germany

Rehabilitation (*Stadtsanierung*) denotes all urban planning measures that contribute to a lasting improvement in the housing and living conditions of the categories of residents of old parts of town. As most often it is only one part of a town or city that is rehabilitated, the terms generally used are "rehabilitation of an urban area" (*Stadtteilsanierung*) or the gutting of buildings in blocks (*Blockentkernung*). They are more flexible and less traumatic operations than full **urban renovations** (*Flächensanierung*) or urban renovation (*Stadtumbau*) measures. The equivalent in rural areas is "rural district (or village) renewal" (*Dorferneuerung*).

Urban renovation areas have been included in the German construction code as a tool for promoting urban development (the promotional programme of the Federal Government and the Länder (*Bund-Länder-Förderungsprogramm*) since 1971). A renovation area is defined when there is a need to remedy deteriorating urban development conditions (e.g. the area does

not comply with requirements in terms of housing or employment conditions or with regard to the security of the people living and working there, or the area is experiencing significant obstacles in fulfilling the responsibilities that fall to it based on its location and function). It involves both public and private initiatives in the areas of planning, administrative and construction measures that are entitled to financial assistance.

In areas facing serious social problems, urban renovation areas often coincide with areas benefiting from the Social City programme (see *urban policy** and Europolis final report – tool-box

United Kingdom

The term **regeneration** spread during the 1980s, replacing **urban renewal** (cf. *urban renewal**), although some authors, including Donnison and Middleton (1987), still seem to use the two terms indiscriminately. The Secretary of State for the Environment of the time, Michael Heseltine, used the word during his remarkable campaign against urban problems, especially in city centres, following a series of riots in 1981.

The term was originally applied to private sector initiatives supported by the Conservative government of the time. The English Partnerships government agency (*English Partnerships*, 2003) did, however, define *regeneration* as "a holistic process of reversing economic, social and physical decline in areas in which it has reached a stage where market forces alone are no longer sufficient to cure it".

20- Medium sized city / Ville moyenne / Mittelstadt

1. General definition

The statistical criteria for defining the medium-sized city differ according to contexts, countries and authors. The most criterion used for classification is the number of inhabitants? According to Urban Audit concerning 258 cities in the European Union carried out by the Directorate General for Regional Policy (DG-Regio) in conjunction with Eurostat, the range is a population of between 50,000 and 250,000. The Europolis partners have stretched this to 300,000 inhabitants, to take into account the size, in particular, of Nottingham, one of the project partners. In general, the concept denotes several types of city (within the meaning of conurbations or urban units) situated within a population range of 20,000 to 200,000. But a medium-sized city has a population of between 200,000 and 500,000 in the United States.

But more than the population, it is economic, functional and organisational criteria, together with the size of the area that they control, that enables them to be distinguished from the other two higher levels: regional capitals and metropolises as well the definition of European metropolitan regions

These metropolitan regions are characterised principally by the existence of economic management and decision-making functions, transport hubs of European and international importance and other functions of European importance.

North-western Europe is distinguished in particular by a high density of large and medium-sized cities that make it possible to guarantee the living conditions of the population even in intermediate, non-metropolitan areas.

Medium-sized cities are also presented as the indispensable elements in the structuring and therefore the resistance of many vulnerable or peripheral areas (for the management and supply of urban services in the "peripheries" and less metropolised regions). Their importance is continuing to grow, taking into consideration the quantitative decline in the population forecast in numerous European regions of low demographic density, for which access to major cities offering a wide range of facilities and public and private services is very difficult. The Brundtland Report made supporting medium-sized cities one of its main objectives, given the perverse effects of metropolisation on sustainable development (cf *développement* durable*): increase in land prices, spatial segregation, transport congestion and problems, operating costs. These negative externalities eventually exceed the economies of scale used to justify polarisation.

2. National specifics

France

In France medium-sized towns and cities, for which no standard definition exists, officially have a population of between 20,000 and 200,000. There are three levels: small (in some regions, such as Brittany, these urban units may have populations of less than 20,000, e.g. Vitré, Redon); medium, with populations of between 20,000 and 100,000, which often correspond to small *préfectures*; and large, between 100,000 and 200,000 (e.g. Lorient, Avignon).

The concept is pertinent since the medium-sized city has often been presented as a sort of ideal hierarchical level for the balance between efficiency and the quality of life and services enjoyed by the population. This is what justified the policy of Medium-Sized City development contracts introduced in 1973, 10 years after the policy of *métropoles d'équilibre* ("counterweight" cities officially designated to deflect the focus of attention away from Paris). In France, given the lower population densities and a looser urban network, medium-sized cities are anchorage points for rural areas. They are an essential tool, enabling the broad

trends of polarisation to be held in check. The polycentrism (cf. *polycentrism**) objective enables attention to be focused upon them again.

Belgium

The notion of medium-sized city is little used in Belgium, where preference is generally given to **regional city**, which is distinguished from regional metropolises. A regional city in the Belgian hierarchy is a city which has within it a population of 50,000 to 150,000 and whose influence extends to between 200,000 and 600,000. The country is said to have 17 (6 in Wallonia and 11 in Flanders); Mons, Namur, Bruges and Louvain are good examples. The regional metropolises are the four large cities apart from Brussels, i.e. Antwerp, Liège, Ghent and Charleroi.

Germany

According to the German definition, cities with between 20,000 and 100,000 inhabitants are called medium-sized cities. Medium-sized cities in Germany have a relatively high level of decision-making power as a result of their position at the heart of the structure of the State. Their existing room for manoeuvre is often significantly restricted by the financial difficulties of the municipalities. The level of facilities in medium-sized cities depends a great deal on their location within the region (e.g. a central location in a rural region, or a location within the sphere of influence of a major city).

A distinction needs to be drawn between the terms medium-sized city and the medium-sized centre which forms part of the Central Places system. The medium-sized centre is a standard term which refers to the function of a city and is only a limited reflection of its size.

Medium-sized centres constitute supply centres for the surrounding area with, in the Rhine-Palatinate, between around 25,000 inhabitants (rural regions) and 130,000 inhabitants (densely populated regions). They serve as intermediaries for the provision of goods, services and infrastructures which cannot be supplied by lower-ranking centres. Alongside the basic supply, which is also offered in the lower-ranking centres, the services provided by medium-sized cities include, in particular, secondary schools and training colleges but also hospitals, swimming pools, courts and major retail centres. The standard idea of the urban hierarchy prevailing in Germany aims to ensure fair access to services and equivalent development opportunities wherever a person may live (cf. *accessibility**, *core-periphery relation**).

United Kingdom

The term **medium-sized city** has no real equivalent in English. Perhaps some people may think it relevant here to make the distinction (almost a play on words) between "*county town*" (the chief town of a county) and "*country town*" (a rural locality). The **county town** is historically an administrative centre with commercial and social functions for the ancient sub-divisions that are the counties, such as Leicester (Leicestershire), Stafford (Staffordshire) or Gloucester (Gloucestershire). The **country town** is generally smaller and has no administrative functions, even though they do actually have important market town functions, such as Ludlow (South Shropshire). However, the local government reorganisations of the 20th century have in many cases changed the previous administrative functions, with, for example, the introduction of "unitary authorities" and the decline of the traditional functions of County Councils.

APPENDIX

LIST OF ACRONYMS

<u>ACRONYM</u>	<u>EXPLANATION</u>	<u>TRANSLATION</u> <u>1</u>	<u>TRANSLATION</u> <u>2</u>
<u>ANRU</u>	<u>Agence nationale de rénovation urbaine</u>	<u>National urban renovation agency</u>	
<u>ARIM</u>	<u>Association de restauration immobilière (voir PACT-ARIM)</u>	<u>Property restoration association</u>	
<u>BauGB</u>	<u>Baugesetzbuch</u>	<u>Urban planning code</u>	<u>Code de l'urbanisme</u>
<u>BauNVO</u>	<u>Baunutzungsverordnung</u>	<u>Urban planning regulations</u>	<u>Règle d'urbanisme</u>
<u>BBR</u>	<u>Bundesamt für Bauwesen und Raumordnung</u>	<u>Federal Office for Building and Regional Planning</u>	
<u>BMBau</u>	<u>Bundesminister für Raumordnung, Bauwesen und Städtebau</u>	<u>Ministry of Regional Planning, Building and Urban Development</u>	<u>Ministère de l'aménagement, de la construction et de l'urbanisme</u>
<u>BRGM</u>	<u>Bureau de recherches géologiques et minières</u>	<u>Geological and Mining Research Centre</u>	
<u>BMZ</u>	<u>Baumassenzahl</u>	<u>Cubic occupancy coefficient</u>	<u>Coefficient d'occupation cubique</u>
<u>CA</u>	<u>Communauté d'agglomération</u>	<u>Metropolitan area</u>	
<u>CBD</u>	<u>Central business district</u>		
<u>CES</u>	<u>Coefficient d'emprise au sol</u>	<u>Site Coverage Ratio</u>	<u>GRZ</u>
<u>COS</u>	<u>Coefficient d'occupation du sol</u>	<u>Plot ratio</u>	<u>GFZ</u>
<u>CPER</u>	<u>Contrat de projet Etat-Région</u>	<u>Joint government-regional project contract</u>	
<u>CRed</u>	<u>Carbon reduction (programme)</u>		

<u>CU</u>	<u>Communauté urbaine</u>	<u>Urban community</u>	
<u>CWATUP</u>	<u>Code wallon de l'aménagement du territoire, de l'urbanisme et du patrimoine</u>	<u>Walloon code for territorial development, urban planning and heritage</u>	
<u>DATAR</u>	<u>Délégation interministérielle à l'aménagement et à l'action régionale</u>	<u>Interministerial delegation on regional action and development</u>	
<u>DIACT</u>	<u>Délégation interministérielle à l'aménagement et à la compétitivité des territoires (ex DATAR)</u>	<u>Interministerial delegation on territorial development and competitiveness</u>	
<u>DSQ</u>	<u>Développement social des quartiers</u>	<u>Social development of urban districts</u>	
<u>DSU</u>	<u>Développement social urbain</u>	<u>Urban social development</u>	
<u>EPCI</u>	<u>Etablissement public de coopération intercommunale</u>	<u>Intermunicipal cooperation body</u>	
<u>EPF</u>	<u>Etablissement public foncier</u>	<u>Public land development agency</u>	
<u>FEDER</u>	<u>Fonds européen de développement régional</u>	<u>ERDF- European regional development fund</u>	
<u>GART</u>	<u>Groupement des autorités régulatrices de transport</u>	<u>Consortium of transport regulatory authorities</u>	
<u>GFZ</u>	<u>Geschossflächenzahl</u>	<u>Plot ratio</u>	<u>COS</u>
<u>GRZ</u>	<u>Grundflächezahl</u>	<u>Site coverage ratio</u>	<u>CES</u>
<u>GOWM</u>	<u>Government Office for the West Midlands</u>	<u>Bureau central des Midlands de l'ouest</u>	
<u>GPU</u>	<u>Grand projet urbain</u>	<u>Major urban project</u>	
<u>GPV</u>	<u>Grand projet de ville</u>	<u>Major city project</u>	
<u>HLM</u>	<u>Habitation à loyer modéré</u>	<u>Low-cost rental housing</u>	
<u>HVS</u>	<u>(contrat) Habitat et vie sociale</u>	<u>Housing and Social Living (contract)</u>	
<u>ILM</u>	<u>Immeuble à loyer modéré</u>	<u>Low-cost rental building</u>	
<u>LOADDT</u>	<u>Loi d'orientation pour l'aménagement et le développement durable des territoires</u>	<u>Framework law on land-use planning and sustainable territorial</u>	

		<u>development</u>	
<u>LOV</u>	<u>Loi d'orientation sur la ville</u>	<u>Framework law on the city</u>	
<u>NatSchG</u>		<u>Federal law on the protection of nature</u>	<u>Loi fédérale de protection de la nature</u>
<u>ODPM</u>	<u>Office of the Deputy Prime Minister</u>		
<u>OPAH</u>	<u>Opération publique d'amélioration de l'habitat</u>	<u>Joint-funded housing improvement programme</u>	
<u>OPARCA</u>	<u>Opération programmée pour l'Amélioration et la restructuration du commerce et de l'artisanat</u>	<u>Joint funded commerce and light industry improvement programme</u>	
<u>PACT-ARIM</u>	<u>Protection, Amélioration, conservation et Transformation de l'habitat – Association de restauration immobilière</u>	<u>Housing Protection, Improvement, Conservation and Development - Property Restoration Association</u>	
<u>PDU</u>	<u>Plan de déplacement urbain</u>	<u>Local transport plan</u>	<u>Generalverkehrsplan</u>
<u>PLH</u>	<u>Programme local de l'habitat</u>	<u>Local housing programme</u>	
<u>PLU</u>	<u>Plan local d'urbanisme</u>	<u>Local Plan</u>	<u>Bebauungsplan/ ou Flächenutzungsplan ?(à vérifier</u>
<u>PNRU</u>	<u>Programme National de Rénovation Urbaine »</u>	<u>National Urban Renovation Programme</u>	
<u>POS</u>	<u>Plan d'occupation du sol</u>	<u>Land-use plan</u>	<u>Bebauungsplan</u>
<u>ROG</u>	<u>Raumordnungsgesetz</u>	<u>Urban Planning and Development Act</u>	<u>Loi d'aménagement et d'urbanisme</u>
<u>RSL</u>	<u>Registered social Landlord</u>		<u>Bailleur social certifié</u>
<u>SAED</u>	<u>Site d'activité économique désaffecté</u>	<u>Disused site of economic activity</u>	
<u>SCoT</u>	<u>Schéma de cohérence territoriale</u>	<u>Regional Integrated Development Plan</u>	
<u>SD</u>	<u>Schéma directeur</u>	<u>Structure Plan</u>	<u>Bauleitplan</u>
<u>SDAU</u>	<u>Schéma directeur d'aménagement et d'urbanisme</u>	<u>id</u>	
<u>SDEC</u>	<u>Schéma de développement de l'espace communautaire</u>	<u>ESDP (European Spatial Development Perspective)</u>	<u>EUREK (Europäische Raumentwicklungs-konzept)</u>

<u>SDER</u>	<u>Schéma de développement de l'espace régional</u>	<u>Regional spatial development plan</u>	
<u>SEM</u>	<u>Société d'économie mixte</u>	<u>Mixed Corporation (US)</u>	
<u>SHON</u>	<u>Surface hors d'œuvre nette</u>	<u>Gross floor area</u>	
<u>SIG</u>	<u>Service d'intérêt général</u>	<u>Service in the public interest</u>	
<u>SIG</u>	<u>Système d'information géographique</u>	<u>GIS (Geographic Information System)</u>	
<u>SIVOM</u>	<u>Syndicat intercommunal à vocation multiple</u>	<u>Intermunicipal multiple-issue action committee</u>	
<u>SIVU</u>	<u>Syndicat intercommunal à vocation unique</u>	<u>Intermunicipal single-issue action committee</u>	
<u>SKVR</u>			
<u>SRPE</u>	<u>Site de réhabilitation paysagère et environnementale</u>	<u>Landscape and environmental redevelopment site</u>	
<u>SRU</u>	<u>(Loi) Solidarité et renouvellement Urbain</u>	<u>Solidarity and Urban Renewal Act</u>	
<u>SUR</u>			
<u>TCM</u>	<u>Town centre management</u>		
<u>TIC</u>	<u>Technologie de l'information et de la communication</u>	<u>ICT (Information and Communication Technology)</u>	<u>IKT (Information und Kommunikation Technologie)</u>
<u>TPU</u>	<u>Taxe professionnelle unique</u>	<u>Single business tax</u>	
<u>VAL</u>	<u>Véhicule automatique léger</u>	<u>Automatic Light Vehicle</u>	
<u>VRD</u>	<u>Voirie et réseaux divers</u>	<u>Roads and utilities</u>	
<u>ZAC</u>	<u>Zone d'aménagement concerté</u>	<u>Special planning area</u>	
<u>ZEP</u>	<u>Zone d'éducation prioritaire</u>	<u>Priority education area</u>	
<u>ZFU</u>	<u>Zone franche urbaine</u>	<u>Urban Free Zone</u>	
<u>ZPPAUP</u>	<u>Zone de protection du patrimoine architectural urbain et paysager</u>	<u>Rural and urban architectural heritage protection area</u>	
<u>ZUS</u>	<u>Zone urbaine sensible</u>	<u>Sensitive urban area</u>	