The impact of urban planning and governance reform on the historic built environment and intangible cultural heritage (PICH)

This project is funded by the European Joint Programming Initiative on Cultural Heritage
Introduction
The impact of urban planning and governance reform on the historic built environment and intangible cultural heritage (PICH)

Three Cases, Four Countries
Netherlands
Italy
United Kingdom
Norway

Country Reports Summaries
Netherlands
United Kingdom
Italy
Norway

International Comparisons
Historic Urban Core
Industrial Heritage
Landscape Heritage

Conclusions
Introduction

The impact of urban planning and governance reform on the historic built environment and intangible cultural heritage (PICH)

This report summarises the findings of the JPI Heritage Plus PICH Project’s investigation of the impact of the reform of urban planning on the historic built environment. The project team conducted twelve in-depth case studies in Italy, the Netherlands, Norway and the UK covering three settings: the built heritage of historic urban cores, former industrial areas and the urban landscape. The findings are more fully reported in three comparative reports which compare findings for each setting in the four countries; in four national reports which look across the three settings in one country; and 12 case study reports.

The proposal for the PICH project arose from concern about the potential impacts of changes in the practice of urban planning in Europe on the historic built environment. In most countries the historic built environment is conserved and managed to a greater or lesser degree by governance regimes and particularly systems of urban planning. The form and quality of governance has a determining effect on the conservation of the built environment and the tangible and intangible cultural heritage that it embodies. The policies and tools of governance and planning vary greatly from place to place including the attention they give to the historic built environment. The four countries in this study have urban planning and governance systems that represent different models of urban planning. Thus, the starting points for reform are quite different.

In Europe since the 1990s, the organisation of government has had to address many challenges, not least macro-economic restraints on public spending and the recession that followed the banking crisis from 2007. Neo-liberal leaning governments have tended to adopt ‘new public management’ approaches with more use of market mechanisms seeking greater efficiencies in government spending, competition for resources and involvement of the private sector in managing public assets. Central to these trends is the primacy of the individual citizen and self-interest in contrast to collective action which has been so important in husbanding the cultural heritage resources. At the same time governments are pressed to deal with the overriding policy objective of mitigating and adapting to the risks associated with climate change and the energy transition. There are other influences that shape urban governance including the drive to make better use of new technology in the management of ‘smart cities’.

The effect of these pressures on urban planning and governance are multifaceted and vary greatly from place to place. Nevertheless, there are some common trends, including concerted attempts to simplify the regulation of development towards less demanding regimes which offer more discretion to decision makers; a shift away from direct public provision to incentives and regulation of private sector provision and public-private partnerships in service delivery; the priority given to short-term economic gains in urban development; and a fragmentation of public administration with competencies distributed across many quasi-public agencies.

These changes in approach to urban planning and governance may have profound impacts on the physical environment and the built heritage of cities, and in turn, the intangible cultural heritage. Buildings, spaces and landscapes play an important role in creating social cohesion by connecting people to their cultural heritage and providing a sense of belonging to a place or ‘place identity’. The physical environment affects the way that people feel about a place because it is a store of collective memory and the embodiment of local culture. Thus, change and/or continuity in the built historic environment has far reaching implications for collective place identity, and the intangible heritage in general.

Thus, the effects of reform in the way places are governed are critical for the cultural heritage, but they are uncertain. On the one hand, they change the form of influence that public bodies and public investment have in the conservation of the historic environment which may undermine collective efforts to conserve. On the other hand,
they may bring in new civil and private actors and investment into built heritage conservation, and promote innovation and more effective management, understanding and use of the historic environment. Governments, civil society and market actors are seeking new ways of working that will maintain and improve conservation of the cultural heritage and collaborative multi-sectoral approaches are more common. There will be benefits as well as costs arising from the modernisation process but great uncertainty about how these are distributed. The PICH project was created to shed light on the balance of effects under different types of governance regimes in varying types of heritage setting. The aim is to improve knowledge about the impacts of the reform of urban planning and governance changes on the tangible and intangible cultural heritage. Understanding current impacts of reform and drawing comparative lessons from different places in Europe provides a platform for making policy recommendations that will explain how practice can respond most effectively to promote more sustainable management of the cultural heritage.

The PICH project asked four questions.

I) How is the governance and planning of the historic built environment changing in response to external forces?

II) How are relationships between the physical built heritage and the intangible cultural heritage, particularly place identity, considered in the governance of the urban heritage?

III) What is citizens’ perception of sense of place? What factors contribute to their sense of place and do they recognise any changes in the historic environment that affect sense of place?

IV) How can policy makers and other stakeholders best take account of place identity when planning the physical transformation of cities, and with what tools?

The Consortium

The PICH Project has been a collaborative exercise of academics, policy makers and civil society in Italy, the Netherlands, Norway and the United Kingdom. This project has been led from the academic partners but also involving local government and other partners in the case study investigations. This combination of partners has enabled an investigation that covers four different dominant traditions of urban planning and governance. Italy has an largely imperative planning regime with great emphasis given to the design of urban form and zoning. Norway has an imperative planning system that emphasises the regulation of land use. The Netherlands is pre-eminent in countries that have a more strategic and integrative form of planning. The UK has an indicative and discretionary form of planning that uses non-binding policy guidance.

The partners of the Consortium are:

Delft University of Technology, the Netherlands
Newcastle University Global Urban Research Unit, UK
Università IUAV di Venezia, Italy
Norwegian University of Science and Technology, Norway.
(University College Dublin, Ireland, also played a part in PICH building on previous collaboration with the team, although it was not funded as part of the JPI project.)

Three settings

We know from previous research that the governance of the built and intangible heritage varies considerably in different settings. For example, there have been very different practices and attitudes in well-established historical town centres and old industrial zones. In the PICH project we investigated the planning and governance of the cultural heritage in three different urban settings.

In the historic urban core the built environment is generally widely valued and protected both for the value of historic buildings, and also for its recognised value in contributing to the collective identity and place identity of the community (Lewicka 2008, McCabe & Stokoe 2004). Incremental change over many years in the historic cores has produced complex, highly differentiated urban fabrics in terms of ownership, urban structure and building histories, creating a primary European cultural asset (Pendlebury, 2009; Pendlebury & Strange, 2011). However, despite conscious recognition of the importance of place, planners' interventions may sometimes over-emphasize particular historical design features (Jiven and Larkham 2003).

Industrial areas facing transformation are a commonplace feature of many cities as changing demands of industry and economic restructuring make certain locations such as harbours and primary and secondary industrial sites redundant. Industrial heritage may consist of buildings, machinery, sites for processing resources, transport infrastructure and related social facilities (TICCIH 2003). Industrial heritage tends to be more 'at risk' than other kinds of heritage (English Heritage 2014) although it may embody significant intangible heritage dimensions and place identity such as working culture and associated social traditions. The value of these built environment assets is not always recognised and the urban planning tools are less well developed to consider the impacts on intangible heritage of physical change (Dublin Principles 2011).

Landscape heritage encompasses the interplay of natural processes and human activity, and with that many symbols of place identity that lend cultural meaning and a sense of belonging (Antrop 2006, Palang and Fry 2003; Waterton 2005). In some places it has undergone dramatic change as a consequence of urban expansion and renewal with intensification of some urban areas alongside extensive and dispersed urban development in the fringe and in the countryside creating a complex mix of urban and rural. This is not well understood in urban planning and governance often lying beyond the jurisdiction of individual municipalities, though the 2011 UNESCO Recommendation on the Historic Urban Landscape has raised awareness of the importance of the landscape heritage beyond the traditional historic centres.
Three Cases in Four Countries

Netherlands

Italy

United Kingdom

Norway
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Historic Urban Core</th>
<th>Industrial Heritage</th>
<th>Landscape Heritage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Breda</td>
<td>Rotterdam Shipyard</td>
<td>New Dutch Waterline</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Historic Harbour</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marghera</td>
<td>The ‘Area Gasometri’,</td>
<td>The Riviera del Brenta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Garden City, Piazza del Mercato</td>
<td>Bovisa, Milan</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bigg Market, Newcastle</td>
<td>The Ouseburn Valley</td>
<td>The Tyne Landscape</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trondheim Historic Core</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Nedre Elvehavn</td>
<td>Midtbyen Urban Landscape</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Netherlands
Breda the Historic Harbour
Rotterdam Shipyard
New Dutch Waterline
Restoration of Breda the Historic Harbour

During the 1990s in Breda plans were developed to restore the previously filled-in harbour. From the very beginning, the harbour was of major importance for the city of Breda. Some 700 years after Breda was awarded legal city status in 1964 it was decided to fill-in the harbour in order to facilitate better accessibility by car. The decision to restore the harbour was made because of:

• the significance of the oldest monument in the city;

• the meaning it holds for the identity and competitive position of the city, expressing itself particularly in the growing financial turnover in the retail sector;

• the meaning for value increase of sites and real estate in the vicinity of the harbour.
Challenges

The Breda Municipality did not necessarily want to restore the harbour as it was before and only represent a particular point in its history. Rather, the reconstruction was for a harbour that is able to serve its chosen use, not made in the form of the most picturesque. That was to create an attractive urban area where events can take place, where small boats can moor, and where passengers of water tourist trips can step in and out.

Policy makers and planners called upon associations with the well-known understanding of the history of the city to have an active role in the reconstruction process in order to ensure the desire of strengthening the identity of the city. The aim was to find a good balance between a plan that was financially feasible but also gave a strong sense of the activities of the old harbour without recreating it exactly as it was. The chosen design is a facsimile ‘look-a-like’ version though not authentic in terms of construction. The proposal gained the support of politicians, planners, the local citizens pressure groups, the local traders and real estate owners.

Lessons

- Historic waterways can be an important ingredient in city regeneration, especially when it is supporting a historic rooted identity of the city.

- To evoke memories of the past by restoration a ‘look-a-like’ project that does not exactly replicate the original characteristics may still get broad social and political support.

- Linking the historic built environment with its intangible history is necessary to create collective memories and appreciation of the heritage of a place where citizens have little knowledge of the history.

- Many stakeholders can benefit from the increased attractiveness of the place that is created by intervention in the public realm that generates a strong connection to historic identity.
Transformation of a Shipyard, RDM Rotterdam

The RDM area is the terrain of a former shipbuilding company RDM (Rotterdamsche Droogdok Maatschappij – Rotterdam Dry-dock Company), located on the south bank of the River Meuse, in Rotterdam. By the 1950s the area was one of the largest shipyards in Europe. After various mergers the company was taken over by Rijn-Schelde-Verolme shipbuilding company (RSV). When they went bankrupt in 1983 they left many unemployed workers. Some of the technical industrial activities and container transport continued operations. In 1996 the final shipbuilding activities abandoned the site, followed by submarine maintenance and servicing in 1999. Heavy industry and port activities moved out of the city. In 2002, the Municipal Company ‘Port of Rotterdam’ acquired the site for urban development. In 2004 the Port of Rotterdam was privatised (as the Rotterdam Port Authority) and the land ownership of industrial terrain on southern bank of the river (including RDM) was transferred to Rotterdam Port Authority.
Challenges

The first ideas for the development of RDM Campus emerged in 2004. Both the Rotterdam University of Applied Science (Hogeschool Rotterdam) and the Albeda (Technical) College were looking for expansion space as well as connections with businesses. At the same time, Cityports Development Corporation (Stadshavens) was created and began redeveloping the wharf. Together with representatives from the housing corporation Woonbron, they were looking for opportunities to improve the economic environment of the city and port by creating high-value living and working spaces. Woonbron is the owner of the neighbouring residential area called Heijplaat where the former workers of the RDM wharf were living. When the wharf was closed, the relation between the inhabitants and the river was also blocked.

As a result of the partnership between educational institutes, the Port of Rotterdam, Woonbron Housing Association and the Municipality of Rotterdam, the RDM Campus became a primary component in the process of revival of the city ports area. The partnership agreed to apply a flexible approach, to act with respect to heritage values, but also to postpone the listing of buildings until after the redevelopment. The RDM Campus aims to use the ‘golden triangle’ of development; connecting research, multi-level education (vocational and higher level), and business through clustered start-ups, educational and knowledge institutes and firms on the former RDM shipyard. Recently the RDM campus was renamed the RDM Makerspace illustrating its aim to stimulate the harbour activities-related crafts education and innovative development.

Lessons

- Single ownership of the former shipyard appeared to be an important condition and starting point for redevelopment, making the large-scale redevelopment possible in a short time frame.
- The Triple Helix partnership of university-industry-government, sharing common redevelopment objectives for the RDM area, created a window of opportunity which accelerated redevelopment.
- A more flexible heritage-conscious approach, that recognises and protects the value of the historic environment, but does not resort immediately to legal restrictions, can enable innovative solutions to come forward.
The Restoration of the New Dutch Waterline

The New Dutch Waterline was a large-scale military defence system designed in 1815 by order of King Willem I, to protect the economic and financial heart of the Netherlands. The concept of enabling controlled inundation through sophisticated landscape engineering originates from the twelfth century. However, during the Second World War the concept of a waterline as a defensive device proved to be useless and was abandoned, leaving behind an extensive ensemble of cultural built and natural heritage.
Challenges

The consolidation, protection and revitalization of this unique cultural landscape, which consisted of 60 fortresses, five fortified towns and over 1,500 smaller waterworks, all located in the central part of the country, was announced by the government as a National Project in 1999. The projects aim was to realise three goals:

1. To redevelop the New Dutch Waterline as one recognisable landscape enhancing visibility and accessibility.

2. To enclose the New Dutch Waterline as a national monument in the minds, hearts and hands of owners, visitors, inhabitants and experts.

3. To support a socially and economically sustainable exploitation of the New Dutch Waterline.

With an investment of over 200 million Euros, mainly applied by central government during the period 1999-2010, the New Dutch Waterline was transformed into an icon suitable for branding Dutch creativity and water management. It is expected to stimulate growing tourism and social attention for the cultural heritage. During the period of 2014-2020 the focus is on the use and management of the Line and capitalizing on its nomination for the UNESCO world heritage status. However, the central government has already stepped back from leadership since 2010 and responsibilities were handed over to the provinces, municipalities, private sector parties and volunteers. If and how that will work out is the biggest challenge for the near future.

Lessons

• For a huge project like the Waterline public funding is a prerequisite at the start for basic restoration and to create the right circumstances for private initiatives to follow.

• The financial feasibility of the restoration of historic fortresses by private parties often comes at the cost of significant concessions to authenticity. To find a balance requires a process of public/private negotiation.

• The involvement ‘a civil society army of volunteers’ is crucial for the maintenance of the public owned fortresses, and for strong social commitment.

• The support of local and regional government is needed to ensure that highly motivated voluntary citizens are well trained and have capacity to undertake necessary management.

• Long-term maintenance of a large site, with valuable common good characteristics, will require public funding.
Italy
Marghera Garden City Piazza del Mercato
The ‘Area Gasometri’, Bovisa, Milan
The Riviera del Brenta
In 1917 a new industrial area and harbour was created on the Venice mainland and annexed to the lagoon city, as well as an urban district to accommodate workers. Known as Porto Marghera, it soon became one of the main powerhouses and industrial hubs in Italy. However, the urban district, which was planned as 30,000-inhabitant garden city, grew slower than expected. The original ‘garden city’ design was thus soon abandoned before post-war housing emergency and real estate development further modified its features. Today, the modernisation of Venice and the urbanisation of the Venice mainland are still significant in its impact. The town’s coherent layout, the contained dimensions, and abundant greenery strongly distinguish it from the nearby Mestre.
The città giardino underwent a conservation process as a ‘significant area’ in the 1990s that was carried out by both planning and heritage administrations. As much as the original garden city plan proved innovative in the early-20th century Italian context, such process constituted a rather progressive move decades later. Urban renewal interventions were jointly conducted with a focus particularly on Marghera’s main square: the piazza del Mercato.

Challenges

Marghera is essentially a residential urban district that suffered from the decline of the industrial area’s employment, and a chemical hazard that is still active. Conversely, a large mall inaugurated in 2015 completed the settlement of a shopping centre hub at its opposite margin. The mall had a significant spatial impact, as well as a negative effect on local shops and businesses. Today, Marghera is the district with the highest proportion of foreigners among its inhabitants within the Venice municipality. This has raised issues regarding services (schools above all) and uses of the public realm, but also has an impact on residents’ sense of place.

Lessons

The conservation and promotion of the città giardino as urban heritage was essentially pursued and implemented by experts. Residents in Marghera hardly related to their hometown’s built environment in historic terms, but rather through their own memories and uses of it, which also characterised the significant sense of community. The renewal of piazza del Mercato, which eventually led to the removal of the weekly open-air market from the square, had a significant but mixed impact on residents’ perception and experience of the space. Meanwhile, Marghera is still valued and managed as a mere peripheral district of Venice. Venice instead concentrates local authorities and is figured as the epitome of historic urban cores.
The ‘Goccia’ or ‘Area Gasometri’ in Bovisa, Milan

The north-western borough of Bovisa played a key role in the XXth-century industrialisation of Milan and surrounding areas in terms of its relationship with the development of rail transport. The ‘Goccia’ was given its ‘raindrop’ shape by the railways that surround it, and constituted the main gasworks in the Milan area. Formerly characterised by open fields and scattered farmhouses, the area was progressively urbanised throughout the century. While the borough was often depicted in literature, cinema and visual arts, the working-class memory has faded away, and the two remaining Gasometers stand as mere landmarks of the industrial past. By the mid-eighties, factories and plants had become redundant and were dismissed. The higher education institute of architecture and planning, Politecnico di Milano took this opportunity to develop a new campus that partially reused industrial structures. But this process occurred only in part of the ‘Goccia’; the northern area was fenced off in 1994 and made unavailable to redevelopment due to the contamination of its soils.
Challenges

Since no form of listing was applied in the area, the conservation of its built environment was subject to stakeholders’ interest, which is explicit only regarding the two remaining Gasometers. Facing Italian legislation’s restrictiveness in the field, stakeholders are still struggling to find the resources required to properly decontaminate the site, which in turn is the condition for its comprehensive redevelopment. Both the identification of such resources and the modality of the successive redevelopment imply a strong partnership between Politecnico, the Milan municipality, and private developers as well as civil society. The ‘Goccia’ thus raises singular issues in the Milanese context, which is still a thriving laboratory for the regeneration of dismissed industrial areas.

Lessons

Due to the area’s scarce accessibility but also to its predominant use by Politecnico, the ‘Goccia’ has become much more marginal in Bovisa residents’ experience. Only recently, have attempts at civic engagement and the activities of a local association contributed to draw attention to the ‘Goccia’ again. In the meantime, the dismissed area has been covered with vegetation, and many residents would like to see reopen as a park; a perspective that doesn’t match with Politecnico and other stakeholders’ plans. Greenery and leisure thus appear to be values that could be related to industrial heritage when renewing a sense of place. This applies almost exclusively to the built environment, while working-class culture has blatantly faded away since the plants closed.
The Riviera del Brenta extends between Padua and Venice, along the naviglio (or ‘canal’) Brenta. Included in a land improvement system progressively developed by the Republic of Venice, the naviglio was used as a transport and irrigation infrastructure. Meanwhile, Venetian patrician families elected its banks as a favourite resort destination, making the Riviera famous for its numerous XVth- to XVI-Illth-century villas and gardens.

The Riviera was no exception to the urbanisation process that took place in Veneto from the 1960s. The built environment was significantly densified, especially beyond the naviglio’s banks. Its population increased, and the nearby presence of key transport infrastructures such as the Padua-Venice highway, as well as the intensification of commuting between the Riviera and the cities of Padua and Venice, caused traffic pressure and overbuilding. On the other hand, agriculture has still remained a relevant activity in the Riviera, and tourism offers the opportunity for a new leisure use of historic villas and gardens.
Challenges

In addition to challenges that already exist, such as the Padua-Venice highway and the inter-modal terminal in Fusina (Venice), several large-scale transport and logistic infrastructures have been planned and only partly realised. Further development and a consequent intensification of traffic could have a significant impact on the Riviera’s landscape, as well as on agriculture and tourism development and its residents’ quality of life. The failed realisation of such heavy infrastructures is characteristic of the complex governance of the Riviera, in which local administrations have made attempts to play a bigger role - including the municipality of Mira.

Lessons

Attempts to enhance governance at the Riviera’s level have been made by several local authorities. Municipalities, but also business associations have played a key role in this. Although efforts have been made, citizens call for an improvement of interconnected public realm and green infrastructures. In addition, environmentalist associations have nurtured engagement across the Riviera against large-scale developments. A spontaneous network of farmers, craftsmen, activists and consumers has been promoting a ‘slow’ development of the Riviera’s territory. Although this movement relates to a general environmental sensibility rather than a specific awareness of the Riviera’s landscape as heritage, some synergy is perceivable and may be cultivated further.
United Kingdom
Bigg Market, Newcastle
The Ouseburn Valley
The Tyne Landscape
Bigg Market, Newcastle

Together with the Castle and the Cathedral, the Bigg Market area represents the medieval heart of Newcastle. The area comprises an eclectic townscape, bound together by the medieval morphology of lanes and long narrow plots. Located in the middle of the Central Conservation Area (CCA), about half of the buildings along the Bigg, Cloth, and Groat Market have a heritage designation (local listings as well as national Grade II, Grade II* listings). In the 1980s and 1990s, the Bigg Market area became the heart of Newcastle ‘party city’, a re-branding strategy for post-industrial Newcastle. For many citizens, the area is more strongly associated with Newcastle’s night time, or ‘booze’, economy than with formal heritage narratives.
Challenges

Bigg Market is currently considered a “run down area of kebab shops and no longer trendy pubs”. Whilst long recognised as a public space that needs improvement, over recent decades it has largely been bypassed by regeneration schemes in Newcastle. Vacancy rates are high, buildings are often in a poor condition, and there is a high turnover of operators and tenants. The area lacks a diverse offer, and although it is central to the city’s medieval history, it has a low heritage profile in destination marketing.

In 2016, a ‘revamping’ of the Bigg Market was proposed and the project is now ongoing. The scheme is explicitly conservation-led, with funding support from the Heritage Lottery Fund (HLF) and heritage positioned as a driver for change. The project is led by NE1 however, the business improvement district (BID) company, rather than the local authority. NE1 is rather new to heritage management and has a strong economic and development focus. It has emphasised the strategic use of heritage assets, heritage funding, and urban conservation process in city branding.

Lessons

• Strong austerity measures mean that the local authority is limited to its statutory duties and does not have the capacity to, for example, apply for HLF funding for an enhancement scheme such as in the Bigg Market. NE1 stepping in, has led to a change in roles and responsibilities, which have been (re)negotiated throughout the process. As such, austerity has eroded heritage management as a local government task, with a transfer of some responsibility to others.

• The historic urban core and its management are under great pressure to perform productively and not be perceived as hampering development. More than ever, heritage needs to perform in economic terms, both in spent and earned resources. Its performance in social or cultural terms is a secondary consideration.

• The selection of which aspects of heritage receive attention is driven by the need for heritage to be used as a city marketing tool and as a way to authenticate and brand (re)development. For this reason, only economically viable and socially acceptable versions of the past are employed in the scheme.
The Ouseburn Valley includes a conservation area, several grade II and II* listed buildings, a slice of the Hadrian’s Wall World Heritage Site and a designated wildlife corridor. It is also presented as the cradle of the Industrial Revolution on Tyneside. Industrial decline had left the area marginalised, isolated and forgotten. From the 1980s onwards, the area began to attract a community of artists and a process of creative sector-based urban rehabilitation began. In the 1990s, the Ouseburn Trust was set up that led the area’s regeneration partnership. Today the heritage of the valley is described in terms of its more formal and traditional industrial history, its setting and landscape and the more obscure quirkiness that has developed since its rediscovery in the 1980s.
Challenges

In the boom years of the early 2000s, the area was threatened by proposals for large-scale speculative development but with the financial crisis, development pressure fell away. One of the post-crisis austerity measures was a city-wide reorganisation of the planning department in Newcastle (2011). The structure of area-based regeneration teams was abandoned, including the Ouseburn-based team who had worked in close partnership with the Ouseburn Trust in regenerating the area until then. A voluntary organisation was set up next to the Trust to fill some of the gaps. Now that the area is once again confronted with a wave of development, the direct control of the local authority and the general governance roles and responsibilities have changed significantly.

The vision of key governance stakeholders is that redevelopment should respond to the character formed by the area’s industrial past and an ‘alternative’ present. New uses have to co-exist with ongoing low-grade industrial uses such as a scrapyard and a timber yard.

New (residential) developments have been lauded for their architectural sensitivity to context whilst proving economically successful. However, they are also a challenge as they represent a wider trend of gentrification, leading to the economic dislocation of lower-grade industrial uses and some of the creative industries, as well as potential over-development.

Lessons

• Post financial crisis austerity and small state ideology have reduced the role of the local authority. Third sector organisations have been important as long-term stakeholders, as their responsibility for developing and steering the area’s heritage and identity increased. Their long-term commitment and involvement has been crucial. However, as such, replication of this structure elsewhere would be difficult.

• The in-depth knowledge, enthusiasm, and particularly the long-term involvement of key individuals through both governmental and third sector organisations, has made a significant difference to the management and perception of the area. The sense of place in Ouseburn, often constructed through a nostalgia for a more recent post-industrial past, is very strong and influences the management of change. It is also can be a key factor in why people become involved as volunteers.
The Tyne Landscape

Many histories come together in the landscape of the River Tyne. There is evidence of settlement from the Bronze Age, from the Roman and medieval periods and from early industrialisation in the 17th century. The lower Tyne Valley however, is principally associated with later urban growth and with Tyneside as a globally important centre of shipbuilding and heavy industry, as well as its role as a global port. Topographically, the most dramatic part of the lower Tyne as it meanders towards the sea, is found in central Newcastle-Gateshead where the river narrows through a gorge that today is spanned by a series of high and low-level bridges.

The demise of heavy industry has been extremely significant for the Tyne landscape and the area was left with a highly polluted river and dereliction on its banks. Since the 1970s, various large-scale projects have made the river an attractive urban feature. These range from cultural buildings and new bridges, an interceptor sewer and the subsequent cleaning and greening of the river, to large-scale reclamation works to create riverside parks. They have transformed the central Tyne into an iconic image of the region, instilling a renewed sense of local pride.
Challenges

With the loss of its traditional industries, Tyneside as a region went into a steep economic decline from the 1970s that left it as one of the poorest urban regions in the country, with problems that endure today. Whilst employment associated with the river continues, the significance of the Tyne to the economic life of the region is a fraction of what it once was.

There is currently only weak cross-boundary collaboration in managing the Tyne landscape and new opportunities that may arise. There is also a lack of regional and local branding as well as connections between localities and projects. As such, accessibility and use of the river and its banks could be improved.

The sense of place differs greatly along the river though the iconic central Tyne Gorge is a symbol for the region. Elsewhere, riverside parks and river-front developments constructed in recent decades provide a distinct sense of local character, as do the industrial remnants as well as the ongoing and new industrial and port activities.

Lessons

• Whist the impact of de-industrialisation was economically and socially immense and painful, it also provided new opportunities. It offered the conditions for interventions such as the cleaning and greening of the River Tyne as well as improving access and providing new sites for development, which all contribute towards a new regional identity.

• Such opportunities have been best seized when there have been cross-boundary mechanisms in place. Tyne and Wear County Council (1974-86) undertook strategic planning and the Tyne & Wear Development Corporation (1987-1998) strategic investment. Local authorities can operate holistically but are constrained by their municipal boundaries. Technical agencies operate at a wider spatial scale but are often trapped within their silos. Cross-boundary and cross-disciplinary collaboration only appears to happen if (financially) supported by the government.

• The third sector organisations involved recognise the importance of a strategic and regional approach, but do not have the capacity to develop or connect projects on a regional scale.
Norway
The Warehouses of Kjøpmannsgata, Trondheim

Nedre Elvehavn, Trondheim

The Urban Landscape of Midtbyen, Trondheim
The Warehouses of Kjøpmannsgata, Trondheim

The area selected for this case study is a section of Midtbyen within the historic core of Trondheim called Kjøpmannsgata, where historic wooden warehouses along the river constitute a significant marker of the city’s image. During the second half of the 19th century and as the river increasingly became too shallow for larger ships, the warehouses gradually lost their original intended use and began to suffer from neglect. As wooden buildings they were also vulnerable to fire and so were replaced by new buildings that sought to adopt the warehouse typology in different ways. In 1981, a new zoning plan that aimed to protect the historical values in Midtbyen and the Kjøpmannsgata warehouses in particular, was approved and designated Kjøpmannsgata a conservation area.
Challenges

Some of the warehouses have been empty for many years and are in an accelerated state of decay, leading to a general belief that the warehouses are at risk. Five of the buildings that are most authentic in terms of their physical construction are empty and while they have a high cultural heritage value, they are in various states of disrepair. A political initiative has been introduced to allow residential use of the warehouse buildings and a new use is a prerequisite for investment in, care and maintenance of the buildings. Thus, market demands for residential use would solve the problem of heritage buildings without a viable use although adaptation for residential uses would require large and irreversible alterations to the historic fabric of the building.

Currently the area is subject to several conservation processes with restoration and revitalization as the overall goal. The revitalization project is conservation led, initiating a close and active dialogue between the conservation authority and the owners and users in terms of defining schemes for transformation and use.

Lessons

There is consensus over the value the warehouses in Kjøpmannsgata contribute to the city’s identity as well as strong support for protecting the cultural heritage and retaining the current experience of sense of place. Stakeholders have different views on how the warehouses’ heritage should be managed. However, with an increasing focus on adaptive re-use and value creation in conservation that has also impacted the way the warehouses have been managed.

Interviews with professionals demonstrate some contradictions between a management policy based on the preservation of the warehouses as historic elements and the management of the heritage as contributing to a sense of place as well as the image of the city, where visual management seems important.

The row of warehouses as iconic of the city’s historic character has an important role in branding and marketing for the city’s commercial activities. The commodification of the warehouse facades has required only small investment in heritage but has obvious commercial benefits.

The pressure on the warehouses to allow residential use has triggered a conservation-led process of revitalization. The revitalization project has so far been successful in strengthening the reputation of the warehouses, raising funding for restoration, and increasing awareness of heritage values though the long term effects on heritage, use and area value are yet to be seen.
Nedre Elvehavn, Trondheim

The industrial site of Nedre Elvehavn was acquired for development in 1886 by Trondheim Mekaniske Verksted, a ship-building company which had outgrown its former site and facilities further up river at Bakklandet. A new shipyard was established on the site in 1892-1895, characterized by low brick buildings, docks and cranes. The shipyards at Nedre Elvehavn were shut down by 1983 and most of the buildings stood empty, without use and tenants for many years and so the area was in a general state of abandonment.

The property developer for Nedre Elvehavn was initially a collaboration between private and public parties though the economic crisis in the 1980s, followed by public austerity, rendered the project inactive for a decade. The municipality had to sell their stocks in the project to private companies which then developed the site as a private urban development. The Nedre Elvehavn project drew on experiences from other industrial transformation projects in Norway and Europe, giving much attention to historic structures such as the old buildings, cranes and docks. In 2015 the Nedre Elvehavn is a diverse part of the city with dwellings, offices, commercial spaces including a shopping mall, a kindergarten and a concert facility, in addition to public recreation areas.
Challenges

The development of Nedre Elvehavn has to a large extent been considered a success in the sense that it retained its industrial heritage and created a modern urban district. The challenge is how this heritage will convey its history as a previously vibrant industrial enterprise. Residents express concerns in the interviews that the area has become too commercial at the expense of the recognition and management of the area’s heritage.

Lessons

Nedre Elvehavn is generally regarded as a successful urban development that has balanced social and commercial interests and where architectural heritage was used as an asset to provide character to the new area.

A master zoning plan, drawn up on the basis of an architectural competition, was not significantly challenged when development started. The clarity and flexibility of the master plan as well as strong public/private collaboration has been pin-pointed as reasons for its success. The ambition and vision of the private investor for a momentous part of the development, was significant.

The interviewees talk of the significance of the old buildings for branding purposes as well as for providing character and contributing to a positive experience of the area for the general resident and visitor, including those who did not know about the area’s history.

Most of the respondents commented positively on the special visual atmosphere created by the historic physical infrastructure but some were also concerned that the historic structures are perceived more as conveying scenery that does not convey the industrial history of the place. The use of the industrial heritage for business branding means a greater emphasis on visual elements than the historical significance.
The Urban Landscape of Midtbyen, Trondheim

The historic urban landscape of Midtbyen developed in interaction with the natural landscape, a peninsula plateau surrounded by the river Nidelva. The hills surrounding the city give the distinct impression of the urban settlement as in the bottom of a green / blue pot. The main characteristic of the urban pattern is the monumental, baroque city plan consisting of a grid of broad and open streets with sightliness to the fjord, the fortified island of Munkholmen, the river and surrounding hills as well as to the wider landscape. The medieval pattern is still visible as a fine meshed net within the city blocks, giving access to courtyards and backyard buildings. The historic urban landscape comprises the urban fabric with its open spaces, gardens and parks and is perceived in both tangible and intangible dimensions.
Challenges

Trondheim is well known for its wooden built environment. In recent times, more and more of the traditional wooden houses have been replaced by contemporary architecture, creating a more heterogeneous typology with variations in scale, volume and heights. The 1981 zoning plan of Midbyen gave attention to preserving and developing the character of Trondheim as a low, wooden city with historic sightliness and spaces.

The historic urban landscape has been under pressure from densification with higher and higher buildings in the historic core and in the surroundings. A revision of the city centre zoning plan is preparing to ‘...ensure a more efficient utilization of space where appropriate’, putting the historic urban landscape under pressure.

Lessons

To perceive the historic urban landscape, with its abstract concepts of urban fabric, heights, scale and volumes, as a cultural heritage asset is not well rooted in governance and city planning.

Citizens understand the importance of safeguarding the urban morphology of Midbyen, especially with regard to maintaining visual contact with the fjord, the river, the surrounding green hills and the sky.

Supporting regulations regarding heights, scale and sightlines has not been easy to establish, which shows the need for a stronger commitment to the concept of the historic urban landscape.
Country Reports
Summaries
The Netherlands
Planning Reform: Evolution of the Governance and Planning of the Historic Built Environment

Since the second half of the nineteenth century, the Kingdom of the Netherlands has had a three-tier system of government: a central state government, the province and the municipality. Before the Second World War, spatial planning had been the domain of local government (the municipality). Expansion plans were to be submitted to the provincial authority to be checked on their validity, based on requirements in the 1901 Housing Act (revised in 1921 and 2015). The bestemmingsplan (local land use plan), introduced by the first Spatial Planning Act in 1962, was the successor to the traditional expansion. Up until today the bestemmingsplan (land use plan) remains the key instrument in Dutch planning practice, with the municipality as its key agent.

During the second half of the twentieth century, care for cultural heritage was fragmented into separate policies regarding monuments and built heritage on the one hand and archaeology on the other. The Monumentenwet (Monuments Act of 1968; revised 1988) enabled the tools of urban conservation areas and listed monuments.

The oil crisis and the subsequent economic crisis of the 1980s, inspired change in governance and planning in the Netherlands: since then national resources related to planning were reduced, and statutory powers decentralized. From the 1990s onwards, public-private partnerships for key development projects enter the scene as an effort to pool resources with non-governmental parties. In the 2006 Vijfde Nota Ruimtelijke Ordening (Fifth National Planning Memorandum) the approach of gebiedsontwikkeling ‘area development’ was officially introduced.

Cultural heritage policy development in the Netherlands, as related to built heritage, reached a key phase with the 1999 Belvedere Memorandum (Janssen et al., 2014). In the letter that accompanied the memorandum to parliament, the four ministers responsible stated that awareness of ‘the cultural dimension of spatial planning’ raises the issue of ‘cultural identity and the related protection of regional diversity as a driver for the planning challenge for the future decades’ (DCE/99/28521). In Belvedere, the interests of preservation and spatial development were balanced under the motto: preservation through development.

The 2007 banking crisis accelerated the trend, already evident in the 1980s, towards decentralization and deregulation. The 2005 Nota Ruimte was accompanied by the motto ‘decentralize when possible, centralize only when necessary’. Discretionary powers for spatial development were to be focused primarily at the municipal level and this neoliberal turn is evident also in the replacement of the original 1962 Spatial Planning Act with the 2008 Spatial planning act. Since 2017, the Heritage Act (erfgoedwet) has come into effect and it is through this act that the central government seeks to safeguard the Dutch cultural heritage as it incorporates several previous acts and regulations from before 2016. In 2016, the environmental act (omgevingswet) was approved by the central government, will be operational in 2021 and proposes the motto, ‘room for development, guarantees for quality’. ‘Decentral unless’ is an important principle of the environmental act, which intends that tasks and responsibilities are, in the first place, to be taken by municipalities and water-boards.
The Management of Change

The Belvedere mantra ‘conservation by development’ appears to be valid in the three Dutch cases. In Breda, the restoration of the harbour was initiated to restore a buried monument which was of major importance to the city from its very beginning. Its cultural meaning with regard to the city’s identity and competitive position also played a significant role. At the same time, it was important to create a high quality public space which would be attractive to Breda’s citizens. The huge former machinery buildings on the Rotterdam RDM site could be conserved because they appeared to be perfect for harbour related crafts education and start up purposes. The waterline is transformed from a desolate defence structure into a major tourist attraction.

Because of cut backs in public resources, private funding is needed to restore cultural heritage buildings and sites but this is often not fully financially profitable in terms of the standards of the private sector. More often than not therefore, public funding is applied to cover the unprofitable part of the investment and the investment for the restoration of Breda’s harbour was almost completely covered by local government funding. It was an investment in public space whose positive effects for the value of private owned real estate along the harbour was difficult to prove. For the RDM re-development as well as for the Waterline re-development, a considerable initial public investment was needed to create the right circumstances for the private sector to participate. For the RDM a very successful ‘triple-helix’ (Port authorities/ local government, education institutes and housing corporation Woonbron) partnership was established. The partnerships within the waterline area are mainly related to the fortresses and are negotiated and custom made for each specific situation.

The concept of authenticity is always part of the debate over plans for conservation and the re-development of cultural heritage. The meaning of the concept is not unambiguous and is interpreted differently by the various stakeholders. In Breda, the choice was made for a ‘look-like authentic’ as an acceptable compromise that took into account the available budget. For the RDM development the approach chosen was flexible and aimed for a practical re-development that took into account authentic heritage values. For the Waterline, authenticity of reference to its former function as a defence line was and remains, essential. No concessions can be made, in relation to the UNESCO nomination of the line.

Experience of Sense of Place in the Different Types of Areas

The research, as related to the different case studies, has conducted interviews with visitors and end-users of the places as well as with professional planners alongside the analysis of policy reports and newspaper articles. We were interested in the way various stakeholders and users experience sense of place and if they relate that experience to cultural heritage, whether tangible or intangible.

Professional planners, civil servants and politicians from local, regional and central governments make a strong relation between the restoration/redevelopment of the tangible heritage and the intangible place related heritage. This relation is expected to contribute to the identity of the place. This identity, which is rooted in the history of the place, plays an important role in the branding and marketing of the project as well as to generate social, political and financial support. An interpretation of branding and marketing is chosen that is, in the actual social context, positive and supportive of a sense of identity.

In Breda, the professionals’ notion of sense of place emphasizes the importance of a recognizable past in order to distinguish the city from other cities. Citizens and visitors have a different perception as most do not know the history of the place very well and they do not express the value of the place in terms related to heritage but rather, in terms of ‘cosiness’ and ‘atmosphere’.

The history of RDM is still fresh in the collective memory and the identity of Rotterdam’s citizens as strongly related to the harbour working classes is very much still alive. The transformation of RDM site into a ‘Maker Space Education’ hub, where a new working class is educated and where innovative harbour activity related start-up’s are given an opportunity, is highly appealing to the historic embedded identity of the citizenry, the Rotterdam DNA.

The New Dutch Waterline is an icon of typically innovative Dutch water management and as such, it is inextricably connected to the Dutch history and sense of identity. On the local level, the support of an ‘army’ of volunteers is important for the conservation and management of the fortresses but also for a broad social support required to obtain the UNESCO status for the waterline.

43
1917: A royal decree plans the creation of a harbour, an industrial area and an urban area.

1922: Pietro Emilio Emmer delivers this general plan for the new urban area "on a human scale."

From 1929: More or less spontaneous constructions sensibly modify the original plan.

1944: The harbour, the industrial plants and the urban area of Marghera are heavily bombed.

After the war, many refugees from Istria and Veneto settle in Marghera.

Between the 1960s and 1970s the industrial area reaches its maximum expansion. The urban area annexes nearby small centres like Catene and Malcontenta; industrial activity and employment then collapse.

2005: The municipality of Marghera is created; it counts about 30,000 inhabitants (20% foreign citizens).
Reforms in Urban Planning and Governance

There is a strong focus in Italy on historic urban cores (città storiche) and landscapes (paesaggi), the responsibility of conservation falls to both planning and heritage authorities, but with some ambiguity. A legislative framework based on the listing of cultural assets has been progressively elaborated and systematised in the 2004 ‘Cultural Heritage and Landscape Code’ (Codice dei Beni Culturali e del Paesaggio). Within local master plans, “A” zones are subject to restrictive planning norms and standards, which limit further construction and interventions on the built environment. Listed buildings and areas require the application for permits to the local heritage administrations, which verify the submitted projects’ congruity with the listed assets values.

With respect to industrial heritage, significant innovations were introduced in the 1990s that had an impact on this framework: the introduction of direct election for mayors, tools for negotiated planning in local contexts, and the opportunity - as well as competition for - EU Structural and Cohesion funds. Altogether, these factors resulted in an advance of project-based planning in which private stakeholders often took the initiative over local authorities. This brought opportunities for local (re-)development, primarily in deprived areas. Industrial heritage indeed still has an ambiguous status: it was mentioned in the Codice dei Beni Culturali e del Paesaggio, but erratically conserved in practice where adaptive reuse of particularly distinctive buildings stood out over the comprehensive conservation and regeneration of entire areas. In addition to heritage legislation, which set a 50- to 70-years term for listing, regulation on the decontamination of brownfield areas was very restrictive and raised a critical issue as for responsibilities and the availability of funds.

Reform in public authorities, from the institution of the regions in 1970 to that of metropolitan districts in 2014, had various effects on heritage management. Regions were made responsible for planning discipline and heritage promotion whilst conservation was still entitled to the central State through its local offices, the Soprintendenze, which have been thoroughly reformed over the last few years. There is still some confusion on the division of responsibilities between regions and metropolitan districts, which government in some cases is not yet fully effective. Furthermore, the strong role given to regions resulted in a somewhat fragmented framework: for instance, masterplans are threefold (including a ‘Plan document’, a ‘Services plan’ and a ‘Norms plan’) and called Piani di Governo del Territorio in Lombardy, whilst they are twofold (including a ‘Spatial management plan’ and an ‘Operative plan’) and referred to as Piani di Assetto del Territorio in Veneto. Furthermore, Regional landscape plans, which were made compulsory by the legge Galasso in 1985 and reconfirmed by the Codice dei Beni Culturali e del Paesaggio, still have to be completed and/or adopted in some regions. A regulatory approach was adopted in environmental policies as well, first through the adoption of the national ‘Environment Code’ (Codice dell’Ambiente) in 2006.
The Management of Change

Case studies have shown that a variety of actors are involved to some extent in heritage management, depending on the categories adopted by the PICH project - historic urban cores, industrial heritage and urban landscape. Local authorities including, in particular, municipalities have played a decisive role in all cases for planning and (re-)development, and sometimes experimented innovative policies and/or operations. Instead, heritage administrations - namely the Soprintendenze - capacity is limited to the conservation of listed assets and areas. In addition to a dramatic reduction of resources undergone by all public authorities, recent reforms in the heritage administration have further weakened the Soprintendenze.

Disused industrial areas may raise the interest of cultural organisations or a higher education institute, for example in the case of the ‘Goccia’ in Milan, which Politecnico di Milano has opted for in the 1980s to realise a new campus. In order to face costs implied by the area’s regeneration, Politecnico partnered with private developers, in agreement with the municipality. Significant real-estate operations as well as heavy infrastructures also endeavoured in the Riviera del Brenta and at the margins of the città giardino in Marghera, sometimes with the support of the Veneto Region. A significant part of them was blocked by regulation, but also by the commitment of civil society. The role of local associations has been relevant in all three cases; significantly though, such associations are characterised by environmental preoccupations rather than a sheer interest for heritage. Finally, business associations show some interest in heritage as a resource for local development, both in terms of promotion and activities. This is particularly evident in the Riviera del Brenta where tourism and leisure are being increasingly cultivated.
On the whole, heritage conservation and planning appear incompletely articulated. Listing, rather than management of change, seems to only secure a monitoring of heritage emergences. On the other hand, it may be bypassed by special legislation that introduces exceptions. This is the case, for example, of regional applications of the ‘housing programme’ Piano casa, and of specific infrastructure operations endorsed by upper-tier authorities such as regions. Finally, whilst some civic engagement is foreseen in planning practice, it is rarely considered in heritage management.

Heritage and Sense of Place

The planning and heritage framework in Italy doesn’t foresee civic engagement in heritage; associations such as FAI or Italia Nostra pursue it instead. On the other hand, heavy-impact real estate or infrastructure developments generally raise opposition among active citizens and associations, which are often able to obtain wider support, and thus to exert decisive pressure on authorities. Such action has played a decisive role in heritage conservation, although they would rather focus on the safeguard of the environment and quality of life.

The three Italian cases show how public uses determine sense of place; an illustration of this is the renewed interest for the ‘Goccia’ area following its partial accessibility and experiments towards citizens’ involvement. Rather than a strong awareness of the case areas heritage, there seems to be a keen appreciation of qualities such as greenery and opportunities for leisure. Last but not least, citizens can also relate to heritage through their personal memories.
United Kingdom
Reforms in Urban Planning and Governance

From the 1960s onwards a robust conservation planning system developed in the UK, consolidated in the 1980s and 1990s. In this period, regulation and policy matured and tightened and there developed a greater sense of the use of heritage-led conservation ventures into new, more economically instrumental relationships (Pendlebury, 2002). This intensified in the aftermath of the 2008 financial crisis, as the Coalition Government (2010-2015) decided austerity, public sector reform and further de-regulation were the means to deal with this crisis. It also abolished regional planning frameworks and introduced a new 'streamlined' National Planning Policy Framework (DCLG, 2012). In Newcastle the NPPF is considered a flexible planning framework which allows for a smoother process, but also for more opportunity for developers to argue for change.

These austerity measures, public sector reform and further de-regulation have accelerated other longer terms trends, such as the outsourcing of activities traditionally undertaken by local authorities to consultants and volunteers, and fierce competition between urban centres. The impact on heritage and heritage management is significant, because as the process changes, roles and responsibilities change and the uses and concepts of heritage do too.

Throughout the different thematic cases we saw that austerity and small state ideology led to decreasing levels of local authority capacity and scarcity of human and financial resources. As a result, local authorities have to focus on their statutory duties and the role of the (conservation) planners has become more reactive and moved from participating in and initiating development, towards facilitating it. This was present all through the research in Newcastle but also came up in the interviews with conservation officers in the region involved in the landscape case. Conservation officers also felt they had to be more selective in the cases, projects and places they comment on in detail and cannot be as thorough as they’d like to be when it comes to planning applications with conservation requirements.

Furthermore, there is intense pressure upon Newcastle to compete for investment, be attractive for new business(es) and create opportunities for development in order to generate local revenues. Decisions around heritage are strongly influenced by the feeling that to be legitimate they have to show that heritage performs in economic terms, both in spent and in earned resources. How it performs in social or cultural terms comes second.

Austerity and reform do mean that the planning and heritage departments are better integrated, as they have to share the work amongst a reduced number of employees. Further integrating departments and services also makes the process of getting approval for development as streamlined and easy as possible.

As a consequence of austerity, sectoral funds for heritage projects have largely disappeared, although opportunities can remain in funding for activities such as job creation and transport or through more novel sources such as crowd funding. The Heritage Lottery Fund is the main heritage specific funding source in the UK and has developed an important role in defining ‘what heritage is’ and ‘what heritage is for’.
The Management of Change

The changing and diminished role of the L(P)A has led to the redistribution of roles and responsibilities. In all three cases across Newcastle and the region, we saw other local actors taking up lead-roles in heritage-led projects and governance. In the case of Ouseburn Valley, a Community Trust (Ouseburn Trust) and a voluntary organisation (Ouseburn Futures) are taking the lead in steering the regeneration of the area. In the Bigg Market case, we saw a more commercially-run not-for-profit organization, the NE1 Business Improvement District (BID) Company taking the lead.

In all the cases, we see a 3rd sector that has rapidly professionalised, has formalised its position and is more capable than ever to take on larger heritage projects. Through e.g. ownership of property, mobilising a mix of funding sources, (co)writing developer briefs, and organising public participation processes and events, they gained a strong foothold in the governance of conservation areas or projects. The approach or direction taken, while framed by policy and often developed in collaborating with the local authority, depends strongly on a new lead actor. Whilst the 3rd sector sees the importance of a strategic approach it does not have the capacity to develop projects on a regional scale. Acting at a project or area level, the 3rd sector is important for setting precedents of good practice. As such, the 3rd sector organisations have gained soft power and influence in the process and strategies of the regeneration of place, although this does not necessarily come with formal responsibility, recognition or appreciation.

The lead roles the 3rd sector organisations take in heritage-led projects and strategies also changes the value-frame when it comes to the uses and concepts of heritage. Heritage by all such organisations is seen as a contribution to urban development, rather than a restriction. As a consequence, the narrative around heritage has shifted even further towards capitalising on selected and utilitarian understandings of heritage. Heritage is seen as a tool; it is one of the ways to gain funding, helps to create an authentic place brand, a regional connection, and/or support or develop an emotive, affective sense of place.

In this process, most 3rd sector organisations are not limited by local authority boundaries and are more likely to look beyond them and create a regional narrative, because they feel it important, see the cultural, environmental, or economic value of it, or because it is beneficial to them as it widens their scope for work. They are also not as bound by the inter-local competition that seems to hamper regional collaboration at a governmental level.
Heritage and Sense of Place

Throughout the three cases we can identify two different types of heritage discourse being mobilised. The first is the formal and traditional narrative of historical significance. In the Bigg Market it is the mediaeval market place, in morphology and use and in Ouseburn it is the mostly industrial materiality and use. In the Tyne Landscape the industrial past is important throughout but there are a range of areas along the river where the Roman and the mediaeval histories are mobilised in addition.

The other type of heritage discourse mobilised recalls a much nearer past and is strongly related to a sense of place. In all three cases this narrative develops in recent decades. It mobilises the histories of the late 1980s, the different ways Newcastle overcame the immense losses suffered in the post-industrial decline, and the memories of those involved. In the case of Bigg Market it is the (results of the) Newcastle Party City strategy and the Bigg Market as its central location, that is used as an alternative history. In Ouseburn it is celebrating the memory of the more obscure quirkiness of the area upon rediscovery in the 1980s and in the Tyne Landscape it is the iconic image of the central gorge, as well as the memory of a regional collaboration, and the pride taken in the process of cleaning and greening of the river, which helped with coming to terms with the loss of the industrial Tyne. Those histories and memories mostly commemorate and celebrate a post-industrial revival (rather than industrial loss).

Third sector organisations use those alternative histories to claim (or claim back) stories and histories for the benefit of urban development in a way the local authority is unlikely to (e.g. affiliate with a dark, alternative history, a drinking culture). And built heritage structures are interesting because they authenticate and support such claims without necessarily losing their formalised heritage value.

In some cases, these different narratives are used in a complementary manner, in others they are potentially competing. Either way they reveal differences (and potentially multi-vocality) in the approaches to the historic environment and relate to different imagined futures. That they are potentially competing seems to be a result of the stronger role for non-governmental stakeholders in the process. However, they also show that heritage easily becomes a tool to create a heritage-feel (trusted, mobilise memories, authentic, recognisable) with a particular set of heritage-aesthetics (materiality is important, crafty, looking hipster, quirky, classy).
Norway
Reforms in Urban Planning and Governance

Wooden urban built environments are a characteristic feature of Nordic built heritage. As wooden towns they have been subject to frequent fires, destroyed and reconstructed, but mostly reproduced in the same fabric, typology, and materials. Ancient Norwegian towns can have traces back to medieval age in their urban fabric. Building regulations, established in 1904 a ban on building in wood in urban areas. Historic cores mostly contained wooden buildings, were no longer maintained and started to decay and became an easy victim of the modernism’s renewal projects with demolition and new constructions. It was followed with new legislation to make it easier for the municipalities to demolish and rebuild urban areas.

A new building and planning act in 1965 established tools for both urban conservation and urban renewal. Economic growth stagnated at the turn of the 1970s and was followed up by criticism of the urban renewal policy. The point of departure for urban conservation was a reaction to the ravage of urban areas with important social and cultural qualities. Financial tools were developed to safeguard the cultural environment and heritage. From a weak position in the 1960-1970s where the wooden built historic cores were characterized by decay and threatened by urban renewal plans, the protection of cultural environments and the quality of urban life in general were strengthened through the 1980s and 1990s.

The economic crisis in 2008 had little effect on Norway’s economy and the construction sector, stabilized by the government initiatives and a strong economy. A shift in governance and planning practice can nevertheless be detected. Real estate companies have increased influence in urban development and a stronger position as negotiating partners. To give more predictability for developers, guidelines for densification and urban design were carried out, without having the desired effect. Establishing collaborative project with private sector for safeguarding and vitalization the historic core, has been successful.

The Management of Change

Three case studies are representing different challenges regarding safeguarding and developing the urban heritage. The row of warehouses in the historic core of Trondheim represents a cultural environment where heritage values are connected to the buildings’ performance, authenticity, age and context; the old shipyard, Nedre Elvehavn, represents transformation of an urban heritage district and the third is the historic urban landscape of Midtbyen. They are examples of how heritage values manifest itself on different levels in the urban scale from the building scale till the urban landscape.

The historic wooden warehouses in Kjøpmannsgata facing the river, address the questions of adaptable reuse and conservation through development. An initiative to convert the warehouses to apartment buildings is an example of letting the market solve the problem of heritage buildings out of use. Comprehensive reconstructions have to be implemented if new use shall be carried out in these vulnerable buildings. Collaboration between private and public actors in urban development has contributed to a new momentum in preservation the warehouses.
The industrial site of Nedre Elvehavn shows how cultural heritage increasingly get a clear utility perspective, using historic elements for branding commercial activities. The study addresses the question of how does this industrial heritage succeed in conveying history from the past, or is it just visual management?

The historic urban landscape of Midtbyen is developed in interplay with the natural landscape and has been a prerequisite for the development of the city with its urban fabric and morphology, heights, scale and volume. The historic urban landscape should be maintained and protected, but is under pressure from the real estate market where a revision of the plan to facilitate a more efficient land use is requested.

A shift in governance and planning practice follows the pattern of neoliberalism. Property developers are strengthening their positions and have become significantly stronger as negotiating partners. Planning practice shifted, with greater emphasis on public-private cooperation and negotiation rather than strict regulation from the government. A shift in conservation policy towards a more utilitarian line where heritage meet social benefits and
contribute to value creation. This shift towards a more liberal, dynamic and pragmatic conservation policy also includes emphasizing management of change, and adaptable reuse. It seems also to influence valuation of the heritage where visual elements are more dominant.

From considering cultural heritage as a scientific document, we can experience a much broader and dynamic concept of a cultural heritage management. The study shows inclination to more liberal and pragmatic solutions, emphasising visual management, opening up for negotiations and compromises. The liberal turn also means more focus on utilitarian aspects, cultural heritage as a competitive edge, branding and promoting commercials, but also stronger emphasising on the meaning of cultural heritage for sense of place and affiliation.

Experiencing the urban heritage

The study is addressing questions related to sense of place, conservation policies and management and shows how cultural heritage can be experienced on different levels in an urban setting, from the urban landscape till the performance of buildings. Interviews with planners, antiquarians, politicians, real estate developers and citizens express support to the perception of cultural heritage as basic for our experience of sense and place and affiliation. The study also supports a more utilitarian policy where heritage is branding and visual framing commercial projects, making the historic city more competitive. “It is social, cultural, but most important commercial”. “No shopping center can compete with the atmosphere of Midtbyen (the historic core)” (Real estate developer). The values of the cultural heritage and place identity as a competitive edge for commercial activities seem important, not only for stakeholders within business.

This may be more clearly seen in the case study of Nedre Elvehavn where those interviewed emphasized the importance of the historical traces for the experience of the area’s special historic atmosphere without expressing understanding of or interest in what story was conveyed. The industrial heritage was perceived as a scenography for the commercial and cultural activities.

Experiencing the historic urban landscape with its morphology and urban fabric is a more complex and abstract issue, but is perceived as a valuable feature of the city. The views, heights and volumes of the buildings, the widths and openness of streets and urban spaces are from the citizens regarded as a significant expression of the city’s character and atmosphere.
International Comparisons
• Historic Urban Core
• Industrial Heritage
• Landscape Heritage
Historic Urban Core

The following summary provides an overview of findings in the case studies of the Nieuwe Mark-harbour of Breda, the Bigg Market in Newcastle upon Tyne, the Piazza del Mercato in Marghera in the municipality of Venice, and the old warehouses in Kjøpmannsgata in Trondheim. The selected case study areas are sections of their respective city’s historic urban core, all designated conservation areas. As such, they may be said to represent a traditional urban heritage, the urban core in the European context more often than not being the oldest, and first to be identified as a historic identity marker for the city. Both the nature of the case study areas and the findings demonstrate that neither a central location, high age nor significant identity value, automatically generates rewards in terms of activity, economy or status.

Governance and Planning Reform

Even though the idea of urban conservation can be traced back to the strong urbanisation that followed the industrial revolution, it took a long time to define and put into practice the necessary legal and institutional measures. Implementing legal instruments in conservation of architectural and urban heritage was almost a parallel process in the partner states. The first legislation for preservation of buildings and monuments was implemented around 1920, while legislation to designate urban areas came in the second half of the 20th century, with implementation especially in the 1970s and 1980s. This is identified as a trend throughout Europe.

By the early 1960s a momentum in favour of a radical and comprehensive redevelopment of urban areas was growing rapidly. As the social and cultural consequences of redevelopment in city centres became apparent, a reaction against the modernisation of historic neighbourhoods and urban cores gradually took place all over Europe. The 1970s in many ways initiated a new paradigm in the
protection of cultural heritage, with urban conservation and regeneration part of the new planning practice which replaced the modernist movement in urban planning and architecture. From the 1980s, there has been a consensus that conservation is intrinsic to urban identity and development, the question not being whether to preserve, but rather to what extent, and how.

In the 1990s, conservation planning practice began to embrace and promote the idea of the historic environment as an asset beyond its historic and aesthetic dimensions. The potential of heritage to be a positive force in economic regeneration was increasingly argued for. Adaptive reuse and the potential for value creation were stressed to promote conservation as a means to achieve both environmentally and economically sustainable development. This trend seems to be voiced with increasing intensity after the 2007 market collapse.

Today urban conservation has at its disposal a rich and diversified toolkit which also includes international guidelines. The Venice Charter adopted by ICOMOS in 1965 provided an international framework for the conservation and restoration of historic buildings. The Council of Europe declared 1975 the European Architectural Year and put the conservation policy on the political agenda. The Declaration of Amsterdam 1975 includes strategies for urban conservation and was a milestone in developing a common understanding of the cultural significance of urban heritage in the West-European countries. The Québec City Declaration on the Preservation of the Spirit of Place (2008) and UNESCO’s Recommendation on the Historic Urban Landscape (2011) have provided a yet wider scope.

Neo-liberalism ideas in planning entered the stage in the 1980s, referring to the idea that economic and social challenges should have a market solution. Infrastructure investments were increasingly transferred to private developers, while public influence on planning and conservation was reduced. The financial crisis was felt in terms of ongoing austerity measures and lack of capacity for
local governments, with an exception of Norway where the crisis did not affect the economy significantly. Still also here, neo-liberal ideas seem part of a wider ideological objective.

Leaving initiatives to the market, neoliberal practice leads to a more reactive form of urban management, focusing on statutory functions. Austerity measures have implied severe cuts in conservation management and its financial and operational tools. The Bigg Market case exemplifies a market-led urban regeneration scheme where the business improvement district (BID) company NE1 sets the agenda, with economic vitalisation as primary goal, and heritage as a means to this end. While conservation authorities place significance on the medieval urban fabric in the surrounding quarters, the BID project focuses investments on the market square where the potential for economic regeneration is higher.

In Breda, increasing the competitiveness of the city through strengthening its historic identity was a central motivations for the restoration of the harbour. In the final design, general attractiveness and usability were stronger considerations than authenticity, evoking a historic character considered good enough for the intended heritage branding.

In the Trondheim case, the course has taken a slightly different turn. The Town Council’s initiative to allow conversion of the wooden warehouses into apartments to facilitate a market-led, quick-fix for regeneration, spurred a response in the form of a vitalisation project where knowledge development, traditional repair and activities so far has led to optimism and a slower, more conservation-friendly restoration of the buildings and area. A new area plan aims at providing stronger protection of the buildings. The area plan is guided by the planning tool DIVE which aims at defining heritage values and capacity for change, with conservation through active use as an overall goal.

The Management of Change

The protection of cultural heritage is often referred to as managing change. Cultural heritage is not a static object but subject to a dynamic development, adapting to changes in societal usage, technological improvements and functional requirements. Management of cultural heritage is often a matter of balancing change against protection of cultural values, a struggle between different perceptions of conservation values. The concepts of preservation through development and conservation through use create an overall belief that conservation and development are allies.

The local planning authorities have the primary responsibility for the management of the historic core but a variety of other public, private and voluntary sector agencies may also have a significant role. This broad selection of actors influences the core values and the priorities of managing the cultural heritage. The role of local authorities in urban conservation has changed over the last decades, the planning system tending to be weak and statutory protection considerably diminished in the countries strongly affected by the financial crisis. Strong austerity measures cause the disappearance of a proactive conservation management,
while economic benefit takes precedence leaving building projects in the historic urban cores to the estate market.

A recurring challenge in many cities is that only part of the business community actively contributes to solving common tasks. Without active involvement, responsibility and commitment of all stakeholders, the situation in the historic urban cores of many cities in many respects should be precarious.

Experiencing Sense of Place

The case studies from historic urban cores in the different countries are unique and unlike in character (as is indeed the nature of cultural heritage) and appeal in different ways to the sense of place. In the case of Breda, it is hard to establish that the reconstruction of the harbour has caused any change in the experience of sense of place. In Marghera we recognise a similar pattern. The expression of the Bigg market in Newcastle as a rundown area and its current image as wild party scene blurs the perception of the square as a significant historic environment and part of Newcastle’s medieval heritage. The warehouses in Trondheim from the riverside have an indisputable position as an iconic scenic view, while its city side is perceived as dilapidated due to some empty and unused warehouses which infect the entire row.

It seems that professionals place greater emphasis on the value of the intangible aspects of heritage than citizens do. In fact, heritage is valued by most for its aesthetic and utility value. If it gives the impression of being well cared for and used, it is considered significant.

A characteristic in this examination of sense of place is the position the visual characteristics have at the expense of heritage values. There is a tendency in the general public discourse on cultural heritage to view visual elements such as the facade, as more significant to the experience of heritage values and sense of place than the totality of the cultural value, i.e. the object as a whole. This view is contested by conservation professionals, who argue that both heritage values and the experience of these, as sense of place, are safeguarded and enhanced through a more comprehensive conservation approach where the totality of the heritage is considered. In the case of Bigg Market, the consequence of this discrepancy is most obvious. While the BID investments focus on enhancing facade fronts facing the square, conservation management strive to keep attention averted from the medieval grid within the building blocks to avoid development which may interfere with the structure. Although more significant as documentation of the city’s history, these structures are harder to sell.
The four industrial heritage cases represent different industrial periods ranging from 17th century pottery and glassworks in Newcastle to the 20th century gas and chemical industries in Milan. They are:

• The Netherlands: RDM' Rotterdam – former shipyard
• Italy: La Goccia in Bovisa, Milan – former energy, gas, chemical plant
• United Kingdom: Ouseburn Valley, Newcastle-upon-Tyne, England – mix of small-scale industries
• Norway: TVM' Trondheim – former shipyard

Based on industrial heritage case studies in the four countries, this thematic summary provides an overview of the comparison findings based on the similarities and differences in planning approaches and heritage management of transformation processes in post-industrial areas.

In the 1970s and 1980s we see a growing response to modernism and civic activism that advocated approaching the historic environment with more care. All four countries also saw a growing professional and cultural interest in heritage, both in general and more specifically in industrial heritage. Local governments gained more power to negotiate area-based decisions and partnerships befitting the local situation, and then apply this to post-industrial areas. Negotiations at this stage focused on developing partnerships and area deals with investors and (potential) new users, and were government-led. This has continued although more recently, partnerships are unlikely to be government-led though the local state still has a position in the partnerships. All case studies saw a form of partnership development (Public Private Partnership, Triple Helix) that was relatively flexible in its ability to make area deals, negotiate the future use, heritage value, and planning of the area as well as a wider range of financial and heritage management tools, and strategic area development and branding. The post-industrial areas have also become, to some extent, experimental areas for new approaches though planning traditions and normalised approaches are also strong influences.
Partnership Approach

In all the case studies, partnerships were set up for management and redevelopment. The partnership composition depends on a wide range of circumstances, including local and national structures and traditions, (previous) ownership structures, former and new uses, the planning system and the latent development potential.

The level to which the planning system regulates is of influence in these negotiations. In the Dutch and the Norwegian cases, it was used as a carrot (we only list after heritage-sensitive development) or a stick (you can only develop if you also pay for heritage). In the Italian and UK cases the process is mainly driven by people having a vested interest in the buildings and the heritage, facilitated by the local governmental planning frameworks.

What the partnerships have in common is that they are generally set up to some-how generate funding for future development. They do this amongst themselves, or in the market, or through applying for central sectoral funding (subsidies, area regeneration moneys, national project investments or loans). In more recent cases, community funding (e.g. crowd-sourcing) is added into the mix. In most cases, especially more recently, the total funding comprises a mix of these options. National and EU sectoral funding or area-regeneration funds can mean large incentives to develop certain areas in particular ways. Funds are very competitive and the cases benefited from being able to set up a strong (national) lobby, and the presence of a delivery framework and or a pre-existing consortium.

Partnership configurations bring new knowledge into the planning field. They for example, utilise or develop governance and area-management mechanisms that are fairly new in the heritage context. These are mechanisms to make the area more attractive and guide development such as developing area character guidelines, branding tools, financial mechanisms and generally creating favourable development conditions, for example making it attractive to specific groups of
users (i.e. artists, education, start-ups) that ‘fit’ the brand, by providing low rent and/or longer lease options, rent and facilities ‘package deals’, shared facilities, as well as a say in future development e.g. by collaborative planning options, or (co)organisation of place ‘branding’ activities and events (cultural events, pop-ups, markets, festivals, expositions) as well as support and guidance on how to deal with the historic buildings.

These new approaches appear to be a result of the partnerships and especially the new non-governmental stakeholders, bringing their own knowledge and expertise to heritage area development practices. They (e.g. port authority, university) are used to working in different systems and have approaches that through these partnerships get adjusted and applied to area development. This is stimulated by a variety of issues that are context dependent, including low amounts of direct policy on what industrial heritage is and how it should be protected, a lack of funding, and pressures to develop for commercial uses. Involved actors have tried to find creative ways ‘around’ to support, use, develop, recycle, the heritage in their own way, using sense of place, place identity, and quality of place. This is often facilitated and/or stimulated, but not led, by the local state, and the approaches in the post-industrial case study areas can generally be described as more flexible and pragmatic than the approaches seen in the historic urban core cases.

Ownership structures are related to former use, and influence how both the areas and the partnerships develop. With only one or a few larger landowners and a fairly singular industrial use, there tends to be a more sudden shift, e.g. after bankruptcy, from active to inactive as well as the other way around. The former use has impacted upon how cases develop and their frame of reference for redevelopment. In former port areas for example, we see practices reflected in other port cities across the globe rather than local traditions, and the teams involved in redevelopment invested in study trips to see other port cities. This influence extends to the architectural references used and processes of development, as well as a connection to places in their (former) global networks. Finally, the need for decontamination and other sometimes very challenging conditions (retaining walls, very robust or very fragile ruinous buildings) have also impacted on partnership-formation and transformation processes, slowing them down or bringing them to a halt all together sometimes for several years.

Managing Heritage and Sense of Place

In addition to a more flexible and pragmatic approach, different attitudes can be distinguished in approaches to industrial heritage. Those are not different ‘per country’ or ‘per case’, but can be detected throughout all four of the case studies. In each case you have some people that follow what could be called a more traditional, material focused, heritage approach, (i.e. focus on ‘this is an important building / element’) and consequently focus upon ‘preserving’ those buildings. Other participants are looking to continue and add to the character of the area (let’s keep it industrial or quirky) focussing on finding uses and developments that fit this character.

The heritage management that is used in the areas reflects this dichotomy. Sometimes the focus is on an approach with a more material and aesthetic focus, negotiating the future use and the material remains. Other times, the approach is more about negotiating between future use and mobilised pasts, with much less focus in materiality, but more upon atmosphere,
representation and meaning. In both approaches though, there seems to be more space and freedom for experimentation, change, and new elements than observed in the historic urban core cases. The UK case is the only designated conservation area; elsewhere other governance mechanisms have been used to ensure re-use. For all but the Italian case, formal tools have been developed to guide development.

Gentrification and Appropriation

The planning and development approaches used post-2008, while often framed in an austerity discourse, represent an ideological shift, and all cases show a move to competition, often accompanied by more negotiating powers for the local state, but generally decreased direct state involvement, especially financially. There has been a push for more market-driven approaches and finance mechanisms and market-led partnerships. The competition provides a general push for branding through place identity and tends to lead to forms of gentrification and commodification.

Geographically, each of the areas has been historically disconnected from the surrounding urban fabric. Their location is however, inherently urban and the transformation processes they are now experiencing is partly about re-connecting these places with the wider city. Whilst initially post-industrial areas were treated as urban districts that expand city centre uses, more recently they have been used to develop creative quarters offering an alternative to the city centre. The strategic location and the trendiness of post-industrial areas makes them attractive for development. This development tends to aim to benefit from ‘industrial character’ while only loosely engaging with or conforming to it and in some cases, adversely impacting this character. In all cases, we saw the industrial heritage being used as an attractive setting for 21st century development, especially for certain industries and business (e.g. creative, digital, crafts, manufacturing, as well as cafés, bars, restaurants). Throughout the cases, we see that links to the industrial past are mostly made in the reuse of buildings and focus on aesthetics and materiality (details, elements). Space and structure are also relevant but more because they are relevant for the new uses (e.g. large, open), less so in a link with past uses.

In all cases, heritage has been commodified and used for place-branding. Industrial aesthetics have been used to create a brand for the ‘creative industries’ SMEs, with reference to a history of engineering, manufacturing and innovation. New developments are portrayed as seemingly frictionless continuations of a glorious industrial past and much less attention is paid to the trauma of lost industries and jobs. The projects rarely address questions of belonging or, if they do, they ignore the ‘sharper edges’ of heritage narratives. The aim is to commodify the heritage sites, make them attractive and ‘investment worthy’ rather than reflect a balanced story of their history. None of the sites provide much interpretation of the heritage, the remnants of the past are assumed to be largely self-explanatory and self-evident.
Landscape Heritage

This report presents an overview and comparison of the four urban landscape cases described above, namely the Riviera del Brenta in Italy, the historic core of Mitbyen in Trondheim, Norway, the New Dutch Waterline (Nieuwe Hollandsee Waterlinie) in the Netherlands, and the Tyne landscape in the UK. It focuses on the respective management as well as legislative and policy frameworks for such historic environments, with an emphasis on their governance and the values with which they are associated.

The four analysed cases are diverse in terms of dimensions and typologies and their very definitions have often been debated. Still, all four cases are to some extent perceived, defined, and managed as landscapes. Thus, thanks to their very diversity, the comparison of such landscapes from the perspective adopted by the PICH project enables a focus on the landscape dimension of heritage and planning (in relation to citizen perceptions) and to frame such a dimension across the respective national contexts.

Landscape Policies: an Overview of the Italian, Norwegian, Dutch and British Approaches

Landscape has become a pervasive concept in planning, as endorsed by the European Landscape Convention and by the UNESCO Recommendation on the Historic Urban Landscape (respectively undersigned in 2000 and 2011). Perhaps more so than the previous themes tackled within the PICH project - historic urban cores and industrial heritage - landscape is thus much addressed by policy at the international, and in particular European level. Although the European Landscape Convention, which provided a conceptual and policy framework for landscape planning and policy, has been ratified by all four countries considered, different approaches characterise each respective national context. Such approaches have been systematised in documents of varying ambition, from statements and guidelines to legislative and administrative frameworks.

Among them, only two may be characterised as ‘landscape documents’ for the key relevance given to the theme: the Italian ‘Cultural Heritage and Landscape Code’ (Codice dei Beni Culturali e del Paesaggio) adopted in 2004 and the Dutch ‘Landscape Manifesto’ (Landschapsmanifest) of 2005, two diverse documents in origin and nature, the former was produced by the Italian Ministry of Culture as the normative framework for heritage (including landscape) management, while the latter was promoted by civil society and focused on civic engagement and sustainability. Also from the Netherlands is the Belvedere Memorandum which, similar to the European Convention and signed a year before, empha-
sised the opportunity to involve citizens in heritage. In the four countries considered, landscape is also tackled in other documents of national relevance regarding planning or policy fields including heritage conservation, the environment, cultural activities and tourism, economic and social development.

Diverse prioritisations among such fields and the respective nature of those documents delineate national approaches to landscape policy. This is a key theme in Italy where landscape is primarily addressed as heritage and regulated rather than managed but also in the Netherlands, where civic engagement is a priority associated with sustainable development. Civic engagement is also prompted in the UK where landscapes are characterised individually rather than considered as a coherent theme. In Norway, where natural environments are particularly relevant, a new attention has been dedicated to urban landscapes, explicitly inspired by the relative Recommendation on the Historic Urban Landscape issued by UNESCO in 2011.

Although such national approaches shouldn’t be over-characterised, they are significantly reflected in case studies. At the same time recent reforms show forms of convergence, notably towards strengthened environmental standards, a strategic rather than regulatory orientation, and the promotion of landscape as a key component of spatial quality.

Managing Landscapes: Complex Governance and Complementary Values

The management of landscapes seems to present more complex issues than other heritage sites, not so much due to their physical extents than to the different values they are associated with as well as to the complex governance that characterises them, where both public bodies and private actors operate at different scales and levels. All of the case study areas are characterised by multilevel and cross-boundary governance - the Italian, Dutch and UK cases all extend cross-country, which distinguishes them from the Norwegian case - whose evolution has had an impact on the management of the respective landscapes. In particular, after some constructive devolution appeared to represent an opportunity for local development, they have since suffered from post-crisis austerity.
Local forms of partnerships have been experimented with in order to tackle governance complexities and to pool resources, also in consideration of the respective landscapes’ cultural and geographical cohesion. The ‘Joint Committee for the Improvement of the Banks of the River Tyne’, set up in the 1960s and which fore-saw the institution of a Tyne ‘Park Authority’, constitutes an early example of this. Similar experiments were carried out in the other cases, such as the municipal partnership Unione dei Comuni Città della Riviera del Brenta and the successive ‘pacts’ for the New Dutch Waterline’s management between the central government, provinces and municipalities involved. The first two cases are essentially local initiatives while the third was prompted by the Dutch government, initially due to the ‘national interest’ character of the New Dutch Waterline but then also as a progressive transfer of management roles to lower tiers of government. In general, such agreements between local authorities suggest that the strengthening of intermediate (both provincial or county and regional) tiers of government has been insufficient to tackle issues and opportunities specific to the landscapes considered here. While not always preventing forms of competition between local authorities, they also seem to have been further prompted by the collapse of resources caused by post-crisis austerity, as well as neoliberal policies. This is particularly evident in the UK case, where the regional planning framework was abolished in 2012.

Of the four landscapes considered, only the Tyne Gorge is deprived of any form of listing or designation. Instead, specific studies and tools have been dedicated to all, either to support forms of partnership or merely aimed at improving knowledge. Similarly to the national approaches evoked above, such documents vary in their nature and aims, as well as the values upon which they draw. Thus the Urban Landscape Study of the Tyne Gorge, commissioned by English Heritage, the Commission for Architecture and the Built Environment (CABE) and the City Councils of Newcastle and Gateshead, is more focused on the Tyne landscape’s heritage than the Tyne Landscape report produced by the Joint Committee evoked above. All inspired by Panorama Krayenhof (or Linieperspectief, Line Perspective), which in turn referred to the Belvedere Memo-randum, Pact van Rijnauwen and Pact van Altena were dedicated to the New Dutch Waterline’s management as heritage of national or greater relevance, as an application for its listing as a World Heritage site is under way. Midtbyen’s urban landscape is also being considered in an increasingly dynamic and articulate way by Trondheim’s municipality. Instead, the Riviera del Brenta’s landscape is but mentioned as a potential resource for development in the ‘Territorial agreement for the Riviera del Brenta’ (Patto territoriale della Riviera del Brenta) and ‘Programme for Urban Re-qualification and Territorial Sustainable Development’ (Programma di riqualificazione urbana e sviluppo sostenibile del territorio, PRUSST) for the Riviera del Brenta.

Although diverse in their approaches, the documents
mentioned above share a perspective focused on, and positively value, the four landscapes considered in the case studies. Rather than a weaker potential in the Riviera del Brenta's landscape, the absence of landscape-focused tools and/or documents here may be due to a poor awareness of the landscape dimension promoted (to varying extents) in the Tyne gorge, in Midtbyen and through the New Dutch Waterline.

A Landscape Dimension? Expertise and Sense of Place

Professional practice and everyday life frame diverse experiences of the landscapes considered. Heritage experts are the first to address a landscape and the four considered have been the subjects of many studies such as the Urban Landscape Study of the Tyne Gorge already cited, which provide knowledge of each landscapes' heritage, but also aim to shed light on the opportunities they offer for development as much as on the threats they are subject to. More bottom-up initiatives like the Centro Studi Riviera del Brenta, a 'study centre' which has produced publications and regularly organises public lectures and courses that act to promote exchanges between experts and the public's curiosity. More or less informed by such knowledge, experts in planning and other fields have shown interest in the landscapes considered and addressed their economic and social relevance. This is particularly clear in the 'national project' for the New Dutch Waterline, which intertwines the Waterline's conservation and pro-motion as heritage with local development and quality of life in all areas involved. Such relevance given to the considered landscapes has prompted their use for promotional purposes, either in terms of cultural heritage or not. Citizen relationships with the landscapes considered in our case studies differ from those of the experts, notably in that they are more 'personal' as well as more partial. In other words, a citizen's sense of these landscapes is built through their memories and use of specific places within these landscapes. At the same time, although they are generally sensible of the iconic character of such landscapes, they seem to perceive single qualities or components such as the Riviera's historic villas or Midtbyen's wooden houses, rather than a landscape's complexity and cohesion that experts put forward. Leisure seems to play a key role in a citizen's sense of place in a landscape that offers open-air, public spaces (with distinctive views) for cycling, walking and other activities including cultural events.

On the whole, such a focus on public use and quality of life in the landscapes considered seems to be increasingly addressed by planning and policies, remarkably so in the New Dutch Waterline example where attractiveness for leisure has been associated with the conservation and promotion of its heritage.
Conclusions

The JPI PICH project has generated a wealth of information about the changing relationship between urban planning and the historic environment - in Italy, Norway, the Netherlands, and the UK. The project has provided 12 in-depth case studies covering the heritage settings of the historic urban core, former industrial sites and urban landscapes. We give comparative assessments both across the countries and across the settings. The individual case study reports, and summaries of the comparative findings are available on the project website. This chapter gives an overview of the findings and the lessons learned.

First, we should note that a cross-national research project such as this should take care in making comparisons between cases that arise under very different conditions. It is difficult to draw valid conclusions that apply internationally. The countries involved have very different histories of managing the built environment arising from their particular histories and social, economic and legal circumstances. There are also difficulties in applying concepts uniformly in the various cases, even the notion of the ‘cultural heritage’ varies from place to place. Rather than imposing rigid definitions, the PICH project recognises the differences and makes a contribution to understanding them. Nevertheless, the limitations of cross-national research should not prevent us from sharing the findings and lessons from the collection of cases.

PICH investigated two broad questions:

• How is the planning and governance of the historic environment changing and why?
• What are the implications, particularly for the relationship between people’s experience of the historic environment and its management?

As anticipated, the formal institutions around managing the historic environment have, and are, changing in all the countries studied. Reform in macro-economic policy and the application of the principles of new public management are having an impact on urban governance generally. In the planning of the historic environment we see the role of government shifting from active ‘hands on’ management and investment, to encouragement, steering and regulation of other actors. In some places, notably the UK, these changes are long-standing and regarded as effects of ‘austerity measures’, but even where public finances are less strained, as in Norway, the shift in the role of the public sector in managing the built environment are still clearly apparent.

Changes in the planning and management of the historic environment are more pronounced in the urban core where there are very well-established policies and procedures. Industrial settings have been much less important in government policy and there has been more scope for innovative approaches. In these cases, it is not so much a case of reform of existing institutions as of the creation of wholly new approaches. There is variable attention to the heritage value of the urban landscape, but it has presented specific challenges of working across administrative boundaries for which planning authorities are not always well prepared.

Although experiences vary in the three settings and across countries, we conclude that there are three broad consequences of this shift in governance of the historic environment involving actors, processes and policies.

71
Actors

The role of the public sector in the historic urban environment is changing as in all forms of public policy. The corollary of a reduced public-sector role is an increase in the contribution of the private and civil society sectors, and that is what we found in many of the cases studied. Generally, the governance of the heritage environment is becoming more diffuse, more actors are involved sharing responsibilities and leading to more complex decision-making arrangements. The starting points for these changes vary. The role of the private sector in urban management is well established in the UK, and it has moved furthest in shared governance of the historic environment, with the private sector taking a significant role in management. But a similar trend can be seen elsewhere.

The increasing range of actors playing a part in the planning and management of the historic environment reflects a more general trend from 'government' to 'governance'. It happens in different ways both in terms of the actors involved and for the effects on the form of decision making. For some places, formal partnerships have been established bringing together public and private actors (and sometimes civil society) for re-development and management. In these cases, the formulation of policy for the historic environment is shared. In the UK this is part of a wider process of the transfer or sharing of responsibilities with the private sector and civil society.

In other cases, we have seen a more bottom-up process of civil society actors forming interest groups and volunteering to engage in heritage conservation activity. In Italy, civil engagement has been weaker, but municipalities are beginning to activate interest groups to support heritage environment regeneration. The willingness of non-public and non-expert actors to engage demonstrates the wide range of stakeholders who benefit from historic environment conservation. The ambition of the private sector and/or voluntary resources of civil society actors have been very important, with partnership working in many cases being the key to successful initiation and completion of projects. The role of civil society seems to have been particularly marked in relation to the urban landscape which has attracted less attention in public policy. We found that citizens tend to be more aware of value and are willing to organise and engage especially on related environmental qualities. Government support is still a prerequisite since it is difficult for civil society organisations to intervene effectively at the urban landscape scale.

A key driver for the widening of interests and more adaptive planning is the private funding that is needed to realise heritage conservation objectives. There is concern that this may only be possible at the cost of heritage values. Even in
the Netherlands and Norway which have enjoyed high public resources for conservation of the historic environment, more private investment in heritage assets is the norm, although public sector resources remain vital, especially for large urban landscape conservation efforts. In the UK, there is a longer history of private sector investment often facilitated by freestanding government agencies, but the role of the local authority remains important through organising and regulating projects.

It is inevitable that where private and civil society sectors are engaged there will be more discussion and argument about priorities and actions, and fundamentally, about the meaning and value of ‘heritage’. Professional definitions of heritage no longer take precedence, although this trend is less marked in Italy where urban heritage conservation is still largely pursued by experts.

With a governance approach, public perceptions of the historic environment become more important. They are very positive, but rather different to professional views, especially in the significance given to the way the historic environment creates a distinctive identity. The attachment of citizens to historical places in general – the sense of place - and the functions of those places, usually stands above an appreciation of particular heritage assets or their historical authenticity.

The cases here suggest that the actors may not be well prepared for negotiation over the complex issues of heritage conservation. The public sector in particular, may be in a weak position to defend the public interest, because of limited experience in private financing of development and risk management. We see that the public sector is having to adapt its planning management tools to mediate the interests in conservation, and specifically to guide and regulate other private and civil society actors to deliver on its priorities for the historic environment. This is a change in approach but not necessarily a weakening of the place of the historic environment in public policy.

Overall, the cases here suggest that it is necessary possible to accommodate a wider range of actors, interests and funding, but that government has to reassess its role and the tools it employs towards collaborative solutions and providing incentives and sanctions to guide investment and other activity around public goals.

Processes

The institutions of planning for the historic environment are changing. To date, the changes are primarily in the informal rather than formal institutions, that is, the formal rules are being applied in a more flexible fashion. The ‘ways of doing’ heritage management are changing to accommodate the interests of other actors through the more flexible or adaptable interpretation of law and policy.
This is a shift from imperative planning which relies on formal regulations and codes, to more indicative planning which makes use of broader policy statements and a process of negotiation. This is a distinctive feature of management of the historic environment in all four countries and in all settings. The UK has long had a mixed system with indicative planning that allows for more negotiation at the time that changes to the built environment come into question, together with a strict approach to historic building conservation. We see more flexibility coming into play, although as yet, in the way law and policy is interpreted rather than changes to the policy itself. The Netherlands and Norway come from a more imperative tradition and are making their systems more adaptive. In Italy, the imperative approach still seems to dominate in formal terms in planning the historic environment, although here too we see a change towards more informal ways of working.

This general reform towards a more adaptive and discretionary style of planning is particularly pronounced in the cases on the industrial heritage. There is a shorter history of conservation here and in our cases, a willingness to compromise with less imposition of rigid policy. For example, cases show how changes to the fabric of buildings are allowed in order to attract economic use of the buildings and to give more importance to the visual attractiveness of the place than the preservation of particular elements of the heritage.

**Policies**

The balance of debate in decision-making on the historic environment is tending to move away from questions of maintaining the integrity and authenticity of the historic environment, towards finding economic uses for the urban fabric and a more general ‘heritage brand management’. Here, we note that ‘authenticity’ is one of the concepts that does not travel well between countries; there are very different understandings. Nonetheless, the cases show that the general character or image of a place – its place identity - is becoming more prominent in decision-making than the conservation of the physical historic fabric. This can lead to projects that produce ‘look-a-like’ designs which give only an approximation to historical characteristics but nevertheless command broad political and public support.

There is an increasing emphasis on the historic environment ‘performing’ in economic terms, to assist in revitalisation of areas, or more generally promoting the attractiveness of a place. In some cases, this is closely related to the demands of private sector investment and commercial interests in conservation of the historic environment, where creating economic value is interrelated with heritage value. When marketing of the historic environment or branding takes priority, there is a bias towards
accounts of the heritage that are more socially acceptable and that support the economic viability of projects. The difficult question of the priority to be given to the preservation of historic elements of the urban fabric and the cultivation of a more general sense of place and visual attractiveness is not fully addressed in the planning of the historic environment. This is important given the uncertainty of long-term impacts of these trends.

The balance between heritage conservation and use value varies from place to place. For example, in Norway the ‘function’ of the historic environment has been an important factor in legislation from the outset in the early twentieth century, but now we see a strengthening of this argument in conservation. In the redevelopment of heritage places illustrated in the cases here, we see how the preservation of distinctive but isolated features of the historic environment that evoke heritage become more important than the conservation of the wider physical fabric. The value of the place and its image remains high but the value of the historic environment less so. Place branding is not new, particularly in the UK, but what we see in the cases is a more concerted use in policy of heritage related development-projects to enhance ‘the brand’.

Overall, there is no doubt that since the 1980s there has been a general shift in approaches to the management of the historic environment. Change accelerated in the late 2000s, reinforced by economic recession and/or neoliberal public policies.

In sum, the general trends in the planning and management of the historic environment are towards a broader governance involving more actors and more negotiation in decision-making; a more adaptive planning process where formal rules are interpreted in ways that will accommodate different commercial and civil society interests; and a shift in priorities which give emphasise the importance of the historic place as much as to historic buildings.

The cases show that these trends are certainly a challenge for all involved, not least the municipalities charged with protecting the public interest in heritage. However, they should not be regarded as necessarily a threat to the historic environment – although the long-term implications are uncertain and have not been anticipated very well in policy. Rather they demand different approaches and tools in management, ones that are able to manage the many competing claims over the historic environment.
PICH Colophon

Delft University of Technology, Faculty of Architecture, Department of Urbanism

Vincent Nadin, Wout van der Toorn Vrijthoff, Azadeh Arjomand Kermani, Kasia Piskorek, Nicole Alewijn, Azadeh Mashayekhi, Gerdy Verschuure, Nikki Brand

Global Urban Research Unit, School of Architecture Planning and Landscape, Newcastle University

John Pendlebury, Loes Veldpaus, Geoff Vigar, Philippa Carter

Norwegian University of Science and Technology

Dag Kittang, Mette Bye, Marianne Skaar, Birgitte Blekesaune Rosen

Università IUAV di Venezia

Enrico Fontanari, Remi Wacogne, Julia Rey Pérez (visiting researcher)

School of Geography, Planning & Environmental Policy & Earth Institute, University College Dublin

Mark Scott, Declan Redmond, Arthur Parkinson

The Funding of the project:

JPI-JHEP JOINT PILOT TRANSNATIONAL CALL For Joint projects on Cultural Heritage

---

ISBN/EAN: 978-94-6186-923-4

You can find us here: www.planningheritage.wordpress.com

All the pictures and illustrations in this report are from public/open access sources or with copyrights permission.