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“Territorial Planning and Economic Development of Rural Areas”

Booklet of Didactic Material

Module 6

Territorial Administration, Planning and Governance

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Introduction: Theory and Concepts

Topic 1 - Introduction to Geography and Space

Topic 2 - Rural restructuring and new challenges for sustainable rural development and territorial planning

Topic 1 - Territorial Administration, Planning and Governance

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This topic introduces to key concepts of Geography, Spatial and Regional studies such as space, place, territory, and sustainable territorial development in order to understand social organization of space in different parts of the Earth ranging from the local to the global at a given time and throughout time; i.e. how people use and alter their environment and in which way environment, including space and places impacts on people and their everyday life. In doing this, the topic will allow students to become familiar with theoretical and methodological approaches regarding new principles and criteria for the sustainable planning of human communities (geographical mobility, territorial integration, promotion of place identity etc.) and a democratic territorial governance within territorial administration policies.

Keywords: space, place, location, territory, geography (human, physical), territoriality

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1.1. Introduction to Geography and Space

1.1.1. Defining key concepts in Geography

Why Geography matters? Geography is more than memorizing names and places! To help administer and plan a territory we need to know its physical features, who live in it, what they do for a living, what relationships have they built with each other and with the outside milieu, what is the local history and how does it shape identity and the sense of belonging to a place. Notably in recent decades, the urging problems of environment and climate change, demographic pressures in the Global South, food insecurity and unequal distribution of wealth on different geographical areas on Earth (and many more) underline the speeding up of globalization processes and worldwide interconnectedness, while stressing the need for regulation through planning policies as well as inclusive tools for territorial governance.

Geography in a broader definition is the study of Earth's landscapes, peoples, places and habitats, and the interaction between environment and humans; people tend to transform their surrounding space in an attempt to appropriate it and make it functional and usable while the latter affects social practices, cultures and ways of living. Geographers are also interested in exploring built environment that provides the setting for human activity; the culture that an individual lives in, and the people and institutions with whom they interact; flows (of people, commodities, cultures, information, capital assets, money, etc.) and mobilities between geographical areas, spaces and places; social changes and cultural turns; spatial distributions and unevennesses, as well as the mechanisms that generate and reproduce them. In fact, they are interested in understanding the unfolding of social and spatial interactions that create our ever changing surroundings, including the distribution of populations and resources, social and demographic phenomena, and political and economic activities in space and time spanning. *Geography is fundamentally a social science.*

Space and time are very important for understanding mechanisms, functions, change processes of both physical properties of Earth's surface and social phenomena identified across it; spatial patterns of geographical phenomena can be explained only in their *historic context* and the *temporal and/or spatial scale*. Furthermore, geography is not limited at spatial distributions of features, indices and phenomena, but goes further on "how and why". As such, researchers seek to understand and interpret "What is where, and why –and so what", to quote Hoover and Giarratani (1985), how long had it been there and how it develops and changes over time. For example, climate change or droughts are not just plain natural phenomena only considered as such in the realm of climatology and natural studies. A geographer would emphasize that climate change is an anthropogenic phenomenon linked with consumption patterns, demographic pressures, cultures and lifestyles of modern societies. If sociologists talk about poverty, a geographer will ask why is it there, and not somewhere else, which mechanisms produce and reproduce it, how it is distributed spatially and what are its impacts on a given geographical space. While agro-economists talk about the decline of small family farming due to its low competitiveness (lack of economies of scale) in the global market, geographers point to the dynamic emergence of origin-based agri-food products that integrate biophysical and cultural attributes of the production place and are marketed through short supply chains enhancing the value of agricultural products in favor of rural SMEs (economies of quality). On the other hand, the production, distribution and consumption of food in the globalization era, tells us a lot about corporate concentration in the food chain, impeding rural regions to control their own future and paving the way for spatial and social inequalities that highlight the power of global capitalism. Finally, they definitely highlight advanced interconnection and interdependence of

localities across the world, reflecting *the compression of time and space*. To answer to such a broad spectrum of issues, geography as a discipline has been traditionally divided into two major subsidiary fields: physical geography and human geography.

Physical geography concerns the understanding of the dynamics of landscapes and biophysical systems, including the marine, the atmospheric and the terrestrial environment. It explores how features in the landscape are formed over time (geomorphology) and how organisms, climate, soil, water and landforms evolve and interact. For example, the non-sustainable management of natural and territorial resources, the degradation of the environment and rural landscapes by modern agriculture, or the increasing urban sprawl and encroachment of highly productive agricultural land are too crucial issues to be considered only by politicians, technocrats and policy makers that implement territorial administration and planning.

Human geography concerns the understanding of the spatial dynamics of cultures, societies and economies, how humans conceive, construct, manage and affect space. It focuses on the ways in which social relations, identities and inequalities are created across geographical space in different scales and how they vary and evolve throughout time. All in all, it focuses on the theorization and modeling of the spatial structure, on spatial organization and control by society, and the understanding of the processes of shaping and signifying place, space and landscape by social agents.

BOX 1 - Nature and extent of Geography

Geography is the study of place, space and the environment. Geographers investigate the character of places, the distribution of phenomena across space, biophysical processes and features, and dynamic relationships between humans and environments. Geographers ask questions about why these phenomena and relationships are like they are and how they could be; how societies and environments are connected to one another; how and why they change; and how and why their characteristics vary across time and space at different scales. Geography answers questions spanning the local to the global, in the past, present and future.

Geography is fundamentally interdisciplinary. It is one of the few disciplines that encompass very different ways of knowing, from the natural and social sciences and the humanities. Geographers are therefore uniquely equipped to understand and address critical problems facing the world. Geographers are motivated by issues such as social and environmental justice, and the efficient, equitable and sustainable use of resources.

Geographical thought develops knowledge and understanding from three complementary concepts.

- The first is the concept of place. Geographers explore what places mean, how people shape places, and how places *shape* our lives. This brings many areas of geography together in a holistic approach to understanding the characteristics of, and relationships between localities, cities, regions, countries and continents.
- The second concept is environment. Geographers investigate biophysical environments encompassing terrestrial, marine and atmospheric systems. These investigations include the nature, *dimensions* and causes of environmental change; the reciprocal relationships between the environment and people; the resources biophysical systems provide and their sustainability.
- The third concept is space. Geographers examine how, why and with what effect diverse phenomena vary across the surface of the earth. Geographers understand space to be configured by the movement *and* organisation of people and materials as well as being a location for social and material action.

This definition of Geography was endorsed in November 2010 by the: Australian Academy of Science's National Committee for Geography, Australian Geography Teachers' Association, Geographical Society of New South Wales, Institute of Australian Geographers, Royal Geographical Society of Queensland, and Royal Geographical Society of South Australia. Retrieved from: <https://www.iag.org.au/what-is-geography->

The role of space in the production of these human creations is what essentially distinguishes sociology from human and social geography; whereas sociology emphasizes in society (e.g. poverty), geography emphasizes the spatial dimensions encompassing the social, economic, cultural and economic aspects of the geographical phenomena (where, how and why). However, this division is only for academic purposes since boundaries are artificial and far from mutually exclusive. In fact, *geography is unique in bridging the social and natural sciences, and thus fundamentally an interdisciplinary academic discipline.*

Let's explore some basic –but not uncommonly blurring and confusing– terms of Geography, such as space, place, location and territory:

- **Space** is considered as the fundamental stuff of Geography. A particularly polysemic term, the word “space” is used with different meanings as much by a geographer as by a philosopher or a mathematician. Yet for a geographer space represents, in the ordinary meaning of the term, a location or a delimited earth/ terrestrial area, thus material (e.g. a classroom, a square, a country, a continent, the planet), measurable (km, m², ha) and cartographable (in different scales).

This simplicity in describing the term has to do with its *neutral* and *absolute* character in common parlance. Thus a ‘wooded space’ reflects, in classical geography, a well delimited vegetated area covered with wood. In the same way, geographers speak of urban or rural spaces, mountainous or plain spaces and so on. It is the same for the adjective “spatial”; the geographer studies the spatial dimensions of social phenomena such as poverty or the aging of the population, spatial discontinuities and fragmentations or unequal spatial development. Besides, as already mentioned, geography has primarily been defined as the study of spatial distributions or as that of the organization of space.

If the neutrality of these terms allows a convenience of language, it is necessary to highlight that the terrestrial space (which occupies the whole globe) is opposed to the humanized space; i.e. concerning the spaces inhabited by man. That said, the space is *not absolute* but *relative and relational*, since a given geographical space is shaped, modeled, “produced” and “reproduced” by societies through human activity, as well as by the nature and historical heritage (Massey 2005). The difference is that “spatial relations are to be defined between objects and events (not between the fixed points of an external coordinate system) and thereby made relative to the objects and events that constituted a spatial system or spatial structure” (Gregory et al: 708). We might rather abandon the idea of any pre-existing space, an “unchanging box”, in which objects exist and events occur for an idea of space as undergoing continual construction. As Nigel(2003) notes “This is a relational view of space in which, rather than space being viewed as a container within which the world proceeds, space is seen as a co-product of those proceedings”. This relational perception of space is consistent with what is regarded as an “*espace vécu*”, a lived space, by the French geographer A. Fremont(1976). The space is indeed lived, seen and felt by its inhabitants who have practices of places, preferential paths and memories of places. That means that space is folded into social relations through practical activities.

- **Place** in a generic sense is part of a geographical space, a geographical locale of any size or configuration referring to its physical and human aspects. All places have features that add personality and uniqueness that distinguish them from each other. Altitude, hydrology, pedology, landforms and other physical aspects, shape patterns of human habitation, agricultural production systems and landscapes, dietary and consumption patterns and distinct lifestyles.

Geographers emphasize the understanding of both these aspects, physical and human, and their integration each other. The concept of “place” enables to distinguish, for example, Antarctica

from the Sahara Desert. While Antarctica is cold, uninhabited, with endless ice landscapes and penguins, the Sahara is populated with nomadic tribes moving on the endless sandy desert with camels and/or small ruminants. Therefore, mentioning a particular place (toponym) gives a clear picture of the place in our minds.

1.1.2. The Five Themes of Geography

The Five Themes of Geography were developed by the National Council for Geographic Education (USA) in order to provide an organizing framework for the presentation of geographic education material. They are the following¹:

i. Location: Position on Earth's Surface. Where is it located?

Location is defined as a particular place or position on the earth's surface. Location can be of two types: absolute and relative.

Absolute location of a place answers the question "where is it?". It relates to the latitude and longitude of the place or its exact address that allows situating on a map. For example, the absolute location of Korçe is 40.62 degrees North (Latitude) and 20.78 degree East (Longitude)

Relative location is defined in respects to other locations. For example, Korçe is located 166km south-east of Tirana.

ii. Place: Physical and Human Characteristics. What's it like there?

Physical and human characteristics shape the special character of the place that distinguishes it from others making it unique.

The physical characteristics of a place, including landforms, soil, water, climate, the fauna and the flora, make up its natural environment reflecting longtime geological, hydrological, atmospheric and biological processes. A topographical map is one common tool used to illustrate the physical characteristics of a location.

The human characteristics of a place illustrate human action and social/ cultural practices including land use, architectural styles, density of population, forms of livelihood, religious practices, language patterns, common foods, local folklore, means of transportation, and political systems.

iii. Human/Environment Interaction: Shaping the Landscapes. What is the relationship between humans and their environment?

Humans have so much modified the planet to achieve their goals of living that this human-environment interaction deserves to be emphasized. It involves three key concepts: dependency, adaptation, and modification.

Humans depend on the environment (biotic and abiotic) to address their basic needs such as food, shelter, and clothing. For example, in India farmers wait the monsoon season so that their

¹Sen Nag, Oishimaya. "The Five Themes In Geography." World Atlas, Apr. 25, 2017, worldatlas.com/the-five-themes-in-geography.html <<https://www.worldatlas.com/the-five-themes-in-geography.html>>
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rain-fed crops thrive. But if rainfall is inadequate a large part of the country might be at risk of starvation because of the droughts. During summer time, transhumant herders from the Mediterranean basin move in high mountain pastures in search of fodder to feed their animals.

Humans adapt to the environment by modifying their lifestyles, attitudes, and practices to live in new natural settings. Thus they receive impact on every part of the earth though in different ways. The ways people adapt to the environment illustrate the political and socioeconomic context in which they live and their technological abilities, while also revealing their cultural differences. For example, people living in cold climates, e.g. in Scandinavia, are dressed in warm woolen and fur clothing, while in warm areas such as the Maghreb countries they choose cotton clothing. In the Cyclades complex (Aegean islands) the houses are white colored with a flat roof made of local materials (sand, reeds, straw and seaweed) to withstand the summer heat. In many other parts of the world people tend to use air conditioning to keep their house cool in summer.

Humans modify the environment, in order to cope with the limits and constraints imposed by nature and to meet their needs in such an extent that we may say that the human species has “conquered” the Earth. People build bridges over rivers and dig tunnels in the mountains to get out of isolation, build dams or drill to manage periods of water scarcity. They also dig mines, build towers in the inner-city, develop railway and airplanes to shorten distance, and have converted wild nature into productive farming areas and human-dominated settlements. Nowadays, the issues of Earth's sustainability through good practices of land management and spatial planning in respect to the environment and the quality of life of local communities are of high priority in the global political agenda.

iv. Movement: Humans Interacting on the Earth. How and why are places connected with one another?

Movements of people, goods, information and ideas across the planet through physical systems for flow and handling or telecommunications bring together places, their people and their cultures. Transport systems, trade channels, migration flows, international mobility of capital and internet traffic, shape human civilizations and cultures through interchanges of ideas, practices, knowledge, and material goods. In fact we live in a constantly changing world, especially in the era of globalization.

v. Regions: How they Form and Change. How and why is one area similar to another?

A region is a basic unit of geographical study that is composed by a unifying characteristic. Those unifying or similar characteristics to qualify a region can be physical, natural, human, or cultural. For example the peaks and valleys of the Alps mountain range set up a *physical region*. A large metropolitan city including its suburbs, like the New York City in the USA or a *megalopolis* complex such as the Tokaido megalopolis around the “east coast road” in Japan, can be regarded as *functional regions*. The Bordeaux area or the Corn Belt in the mid-western USA are distinct large areas from an agricultural productive specialization perspective. In a smaller scale, a neighborhood or a recreational thematic park can also be considered as a region. A region which has formal boundaries as a uniform political/ administrative entity, for example a city, a district, a province, a county, or a continent, can be considered as a *formal region*.

1.2. Territory / territoriality

As **Territory** is considered a contiguous unit of space that is used, organized and managed by a social group, individual person or institution to restrict and control access to people and places (Gregory et al, 2009: 746).

Initially, three definitions of the territory can be given, that are not mutually exclusive (Baud et al. 1995: 112-13). First, the term may mean an *administrative division*. It is often used to identify those parts of a state where there is a minimal political organization. For example, Korçë is a municipality in southeastern Albania. Guadeloupe in the Caribbean is a French-administered territory outside the European continent (also known as "DOM-TOM" until 2003).

Second, a territory is an area corresponding to a *national space*. For example we speak about the French territory or a national territory. Such a given territory is bounded by borders and is home to a particular population, or even a nation. The state has territorial authority, i.e. the political authority over all this space, including territorial waters and national airspace. The nation lives on this territory which it models and develops.

The third meaning of the term is the one most used by geographers, even though this trend is fairly recent. A territory is defined as any *socialized space* appropriated by its inhabitants, whatever its size. The latter have indeed a memory, but also a practice, a representation of this space. A territory is therefore the work of humans and we can call as "territories" spaces that do not necessarily have natural or historical unity and are not polarized or organized by/ as a city.

Whatever the approach of the concept, the territory is "a space transformed by human labor" (Raffestin 1986) and implies the existence of borders or limits. In addition, the territory has a "bifacial" reality, which means that both the physical and the symbolic are constitutive of the territory. According to a geographical and social perspective, the appropriation of a territory is mainly cognitive and symbolic. Spatiality depends on definitions of territorial appropriation. Thus, in the ethological sense of the term, the territory is understood as a single entity, defined and delimited by the control exerted on it (e.g. national territory, home, and neighborhood). Finally, it is necessary to take into account the composite nature of the territory that it is at the same time the product, the support and the object of human communities.

Territoriality reflects either the organization and exercise of power, legitimate or otherwise, over blocs of space or the organization of people and things into discrete areas through the use of boundaries (Gregory et al. 2009: 482).

In any case, it is put into practice in a number of different if often complementary ways (Gregory et al. 2009: 745; Johnston et al. 1988: 483-84, Sack 1983): i) by considering territory as a form of *classification of space* (e.g. 'ours' and 'yours') ; ii) through the communication of a sense of place (where territorial markers and boundaries evoke meanings) as a strategy for enforcing control, as a means of reifying power and as a spatial container of activities and phenomena; iii) by enforcing control over space (by surveillance, policing and legitimization).

BOX 2 - Territoriality

The attempt by an individual or group to influence or establish control over a clearly demarcated territory which is made distinctive and considered at least partially exclusive by its inhabitants or those who define its bounds. Most works emphasize territoriality as a fundamental human need based on identity, defence and stimulation, although some often spurious analogies have been drawn from the ethnological literature between human needs and such animal behavior as the need for an exclusive preserve for reproduction and security. It is therefore important to envisage human territoriality as conditioned primarily by cultural norms and values which vary in structure and function from society to society, from one period to another, and in accordance with the scale of social activity. At the societal level, territoriality becomes a means of regulating social interaction and a focus and symbol for group membership and identity, ranging from the scale of urban gangs and their turfs, through patterns of territorial regionalism, to the compartmentalization of the world into a system of states.

Johnston et al., 1988: 482

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Topic 2 – Rural restructuring and new challenges for sustainable rural development and territorial planning

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This topic introduces to rural restructuring processes and the changing countryside (social, cultural, demographic, and environmental change) after World War II and in particular during the recent decades of post-productivist transition. How much “agricultural” remains the countryside nowadays? How much important is farming in the composition of incomes and employments locally? In the wake of social and economic restructuring, what types of conflicts arise regarding the control and exploitation of territorial resources (land-use conflicts, economic, environmental, social, and cultural)? Which is the role of counter-urbanites and emerging non-agricultural stakeholders in local political leadership? As structures governing rural areas have changed (due to both rural restructuring and state administrative reforms), conventional public planning and development policies are also changing. The topic will provide an introduction to major conceptual approaches in rural change, in terms of both processes and practices that trigger it, as well as of multiple responses (economic, political, socio-cultural) to that rural change under the lens of sustainable planning and governance.

Keywords: rural restructuring; post-productivist transition; rural conflicts; gentrification; territorial governance

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2.1. Rural restructuring new challenges for sustainable rural development

Rural areas have been experiencing continuous changes during the postwar period, shaped by the intensification of agricultural production systems, technological innovation, economic cycles and international trade fluctuations, demographic and social change, environmental conditions, rural-urban mobilities, and finally, policy orientations. The **post-productivist transition**, is a term introduced in the nineties in an attempt to explain and theorize the gradual shift from intensive agricultural production towards societal demands for amenities, ecosystem services, cultural heritage preservation, and overall, a more sustainable agriculture. This allows us to understand contemporary dynamics and complexity of rural space (Almstedt 2013; Wilson & Rigg 2003).

Undoubtedly agriculture is more and more losing its specific weight in shaping gross domestic product and employment in rural areas, and consequently in local power relations (i.e. representation in local government and community leadership). However, it is still an emblematic and dominant element in rural landscapes' morphology and an important factor in supporting non-agricultural activities and functions that have emerged in the countryside and are emphatically advocated in the **multifunctionality** discourse; namely, tourism and recreation services, food processing and traditional handicrafts, protection of natural and cultural landscapes. All these features, phenomena and trends illustrate the **rural restructuring concept**, meaning a process of remodeling socio-economic morphology and spatial pattern in rural territories. This leads inevitably to the need of rethinking and reframing strategies and policies regarding local/rural development and territorial administration and planning shifting from state to 'bottom-up' procedures.

To start with, **modernity** and **globalization** are considered two key processes that shape new landscapes of rurality since the early postwar years, the so-called Glorious Thirty (1945-1975) of capitalist growth and prosperity in the developed world. Significant extensions of rural settlements, new roads and power lines, "geometric landscapes" of mechanized agriculture in the fertile plains, and so on, witness modernization of rural infrastructures and the entire agricultural sector, let alone modernization of rural social and economic life with the adoption of urban consumption patterns and lifestyles. What differentiates postwar rural changes in comparison with previous ones such, as technological innovations and emerging scientific practices during the first agricultural revolution of 19th century (introduction of machinery, new crops, improving agricultural yields etc.), is –as M.Woods (2005: 29-41) points out:

(i) the *rapid pace and persistence of change* due to intense rates of technological developments (e.g. in the transport and communication sector, agribusiness) allowing farmers to modernize their infrastructure (tractor and farming machines, private car, refrigerator, telephone, television, etc.), specialize, and reach larger and more distant markets; rural people have been also allowed to raise living standards and get opportunities to participate in the emerging and prosperous consumer society by embracing urban lifestyles,

(ii) *totality and interconnectivity of change* as new technological achievements have been increasingly adopted by farmers and rural populations since technological goods became affordable in the market; at the same time amplified globalization processes (globalization of technology, trade and markets, consumption patterns, values, migration flows, and so on) tighten the interconnection between regions and between the local and the global, impacting upon all aspects of economic and social life.

Overall, modernity and globalization have resulted in increasing farm yields linked to **productivism**, the dominant policy in agriculture after the World War II until the mid-1980s, together with profound social change in rural areas. As Lowe et al. (1993: 221) state, productivism has been considered as "a commitment to an intensive, industrially-based and

expansionist agriculture with state support based primarily on output and increased productivity". Within the productivist regime, the mission of agriculture was singularly conceived as the production of foodstuffs and fibers, prioritizing increasing agricultural production addressed to the market (economies of scale). In this homogeneously farming area, the spatial planning policy was mainly confined at farmers and landowners taking advantage of land-based economic activities aimed at best serving the central objective of production growth.

The pursuit of higher performances has involved the intensification of productive procedures including important investment in mechanization and farm infrastructure, and introduction of agrochemicals, antibiotics and other biotechnology advances. The major trends dominating the productivist era were summarized by Bowler (1985) and also Ilbery and Bowler (1998) as *intensification*, *concentration* and *specialization* at both sectoral level (agricultural holdings) and territorial level (rural areas); these features were at the same time prerequisites and results of the productivist regime in the perspective of optimizing the cost-effectiveness ratio by creating larger and specialized farms as well as professional, monoactive and devoted farmers endowed by state subsidies. Furthermore, new relationships have been established between farmers and various stakeholders upstream and downstream the agricultural holding weakening the negotiating power of farmers and other local rural actors; i.e. supply companies in farm inputs, agricultural credit, private consulting firms, major wholesalers and supermarket chains, food processing agro-industry companies, etc. In fact, farmers rely on a limited number of companies to purchase the necessary inputs and services to run their farm and an equally limited number of companies to sell their produce; these asymmetric developments highlight the shift in power from individual farmers and local community actors to corporations and extra territorial value chain stakeholders. In this context, the crucial question arises on the territorial governance of food landscapes. More specifically, it encompasses the sustainable management of inherent natural and cultural resources at stake (land, biodiversity, traditional know-how, agrifood cultural heritage), given the plethora of new external actors taking control over local/ territorial resources in the shifting rural power relations brought about by the capitalist market.

It should be noted on this that the productivist paradigm has generated a number of ruptures and dislocations between agriculture and its social and cultural milieu, undermining the very agricultural identity. More precisely, it is about: (i) the rupture of farmer's ties with his land and nature-based knowledge since machinery, chemical inputs and scientific methods replaced manual labor, empirical know-how and practices, (ii) the dislocation of agriculture from rural communities since farming employment has declined, agricultural production has been concentrated in fewer and larger mechanized farms, and artisanal food processing has been delocated to agro-industrial companies which in turn tend to concentrate in the most dynamic and high-performance areas; that means that, from suppliers of food products in local markets, farmers have become producers of raw materials for agrifood industry, (iii) the breaking of the link between farmers and consumers, since there is no contact between them, not only because of the physical distance between the places of production and consumption, but also because of the change in dietary patterns and the homogenization of eating habits due to globalization effects (via advanced marketing and advertising techniques); that means, farmers do not know where and to which consumers their products are reaching while consumers do not know where their products come from, and how they were produced and processed, (iv) the distancing of rural societies from decision-making centers, and subordination of farmers to external constraints and decisions, whether be economic or political; raising again the issue of the management and governance of territorial resources by local communities, (v) the breaking of the relationship between agriculture and the environment; the intensive use of natural resources to achieve higher yields has led to pollution and scarcity (land, water and air), biodiversity decline and landscapes' degradation. Technological innovations applied to farming to control

natural constraints and overcome rural communities' vulnerability have resulted in the loss of attributes that give agricultural products place-based specific qualities.

All in all, productivism was vividly embraced by state policies in the Western world after the Second World War, as for example the Common Agricultural Policy (CAP) in Europe. It was soon celebrated as an undoubted success regarding the central objective to increase agricultural production and feed growing urban population at affordable prices. Nevertheless, it led to serious economic, socio-spatial, and definitely environmental concerns. In the 1980s, over-production problems rooted in state subsidies to farms along with public concerns led to the urgency of reforming agricultural policy and practices. As an indication, it was about the environmental footprint; uneven spatial development due to natural handicaps (mountainous and less favored areas); social inequalities (i.e. increasing gap between small and large farm holdings, poor and rich farming areas); farmer debts related to over-lending for investments; and finally, food risks and diseases attributed to productivism.

In fact, the first reform of the CAP, in 1992, introduced a set of structural and agri-environmental measures to reduce agricultural commodity surpluses and halting environmental degradation due to agricultural practices: gradual removal of farm-level subsidies, set-aside schemes implementation on larger holdings, farm diversification, support for organic farming, payments to farmers for environmental improvements. At the same time, a stimulatory rural development policy to reduce farm households' dependency on agriculture and supplement declining farming incomes has encouraged the development of non-agricultural activities and off-farm employment (pluriactivity of farmers and of farm households). All these occurring changes resulted in what academics later described as a **post-productivist transition**, which was most evident and widely studied in the UK and Western Europe (Almstedt 2013).

The post-productivist transition conceived in such a way as to reverse the intensive pace of agricultural production systems and halt its detrimental impact, could be summarized in the following key policy fields: *extensification of agriculture* slowing production systems and being more respectful of the environment; *on-farm diversification* enhancing off-farm incomes through pluriactivity strategies of farmers; environmental regulation with emphasis on *countryside stewardship* recognizing the vital role of agriculture in maintaining natural and cultural landscapes; *enhancing the value of agricultural products* shifting from quantity to quality in food production (organic, terroir label, PDO/PDI, Geographical Indication/GI) and promoting specific origin-based labeled quality (Argent 2002; Woods 2005: 54-57). Each components parked changes on both farm and territorial level and thus capture various aspects of rural issues, such as concerns regarding land-use management, rural development, and social and economic change.

FIGURE 1 - Key components and dynamics of rural development processes in the post-productivist transition

	Productivist phase	Post-productivist phase
Model	Agricultural modernisation	Territorial Economy (revealing and activation of territorial resources and synergies)
Dominant principle of rural development	Economic growth	Sustainability, territoriality, local participation, community driven development
Development goals	Intensification, increasing competitiveness (farm yields and incomes)	Competitiveness of rural areas, enhancing latent resources, valorization of territorial assets
Predominant sector	Agriculture	Economic diversity (tourism and leisure, heritage, landscape, industry, etc.)
Tools	State funding support mainly intended for price guarantees and subsidies for agricultural production	Investments in rural development (public, private, cooperative)
Role of the farmer	Food and raw material production	Production of quality food, important contributor in natural and cultural landscape preservation and environmental management
Territory function	Support/ Background Passive element of rural/local development	Resource/ Actor Active element of territorial development
Key actors	State, farmers	State and different levels of local government, entrepreneurs, territorial collectives, tourists, farmers, ecologists, new residents, etc.

Source: Author elaboration based on: Campagne & Pecqueur 2014 ; Kunnen et al. 2014

The spatial dimensions and complexities of contemporary rural restructuring related to post-productive tradition draw attention to the fact that: rural areas, long conceived and administered as a space of production, have become a space of consumption. This involves emerging multi-functionalities, non-conventional-agricultural activities and investment schemes, through notably tourism and recreation, the expansion of second homes, the development of artisanal food processing and traditional crafts emphasizing on an idealized imaginary countryside. These developments are reflected in rural conflicts and gentrification impacting land use, social and cultural controversies and raising concerns about government administration and land use policy. (Evans et al. 2002; Woods 2011).

2.2. Rural conflicts and territorial resource governance

The economic and productive diversification of rural areas, strongly supported by the CAP through the Leader programs in a post-productive transition perspective, has given rise to new social groups and stakeholders claiming the rural space for various activities and land uses, notably in tourism and residential investment, but also as a natural scenery of “authentic rural life”. Inevitably, this leads to rural conflicts; namely, conflicts between old and new functions, between indigenous people and newcomers, and finally between different perceptions and social representations of rurality. The once unified and undifferentiated rural space, which mainly reflected the interests, needs, and expectations of farmer-producers, has evolved over the past decades into a complex and multi-actor service-oriented space. In this context, different representations of the rural overlapping on the same physical space may lead to contrasting land management practices and strategies (resource conservation, land-based productive uses, and services) sparking tensions and conflicts. This illustrates what Mormont (1990: 35) describes as the symbolic battle over rurality.

BOX 1 – Rural conflicts. Divergent views on rurality by different local social actors

The divergent views on the organization of daily life, the natural environment, and the exploitation/ preservation of rural landscapes are obviously based on distinct cultural representations and meanings attributed to rural space by different social groups acting locally:

- i) to some, and typically to new users, rural space is identified as a space of investment opportunities through the sitting of new industrial infrastructure, touristic and developmental projects, signifying land use modifications, landscape change, and a transition towards multifaceted patterns of production and consumption in the countryside;
- ii) to locals, especially farmers, it is a space of work, production, and economic livelihood, shaping social and professional identity; to yet others, a place of life experiences and strong emotional ties, it is the material imprint of collective memory and a symbol of reference to a common cultural identity which must be protected at all costs;
- iii) and, finally, there are those who defend residential and touristic development in the name of promoting natural and cultural heritage (this group includes local farmers as well as newly-arrived urban dwellers) through the discourse of sustained agricultural yields based on the controlled exploitation of land resources and environmental stewardship.

As such, the character and the environment of everyday life in the countryside are threatened by a number of factors associated with rural restructuring, counter urbanization processes and the commodification of rural heritage resulting inland use changes and spatial re-configurations.

Source: Petrou (2018: 169)

Tensions and conflicts usually emerge around the appropriation of territorial resources and the legitimization of uses and practices carried out by the actors involved. As an indication, controversies between the representation of the rural as a productive space, whose activities are based on the exploitation of natural resources, and the representation of the rural as a pleasant

space to live in, whose attractiveness is linked to the absence of harmful activities as well as to landscape preservation. Controversies could also arise between the representation of a meadow as pasture land for livestock production purpose and as a habitat to be protected for its high nature value biodiversity. Indeed, the multifunctionality discourse affirms the plurality of rural uses: e.g. residential and recreational function (living environment), productive function (land-based and extractive activities) as well as environmental function (biodiversity, landscape and cultural heritage preservation). That is to say, tensions and conflicts of use are representative of socio-spatial recompositions of rural areas, what is known as *new rurality* (Campagne&Pecqueur2014).

The main types of use conflicts in rural space can be identified as follows (Anthopoulou & Petrou 2013):

a) residential and tourist function vs. agricultural productive function

Agricultural land is directly threatened by urbanization and building development, as long as productive rural space is perceived as a recreational and living environment space (demand for space to housing, roads, car parks, lighting poles and other facilities). The risk of urban sprawl and implicit agricultural land encroachment increases in the case of small farms primacy in the local productive system in combination with farm crisis (related to the productivist model decline, climate change), the reluctance of young people to take over farming, and especially in the absence of an institutional framework for the protection of agricultural land (e.g. General Urban Planning Plan, Land Use Planning) (Guri 2013).

b) agricultural production vs environmental function

The widespread adoption of the productivist model by farmers in their efforts to maximize yields and livelihoods has adverse effects on the natural environment (pollution by the use of pesticides and chemical fertilizers, destruction of habitats and loss of native species due to specialization, deforestation to create arable land etc.). The conflict over the use of natural resources in rural areas reveals the concern to find a balance between agricultural production purpose (subject to the interest of professional agricultural groups - individual level) and environmental conservation embraced by the ecological discourse (responding to societal demands - collective level).

c) tourism vs environmental and landscape function

Natural spaces and landscapes of high aesthetic, ecological and cultural value are threatened with degradation and loss in the face of tourism development. Tourism projects are usually considered by both local authorities and, even more, local communities as levers for modernizing and reinforcing local economy. This is also facilitated by decreasing agricultural incomes (due to farm crisis) or/ and it depends on the local socio-productive structures (e.g. small agricultural lots, as in the case of Greece and Albania). Tourism industry is thus needed to create employment and supplement incomes as agricultural yields decline. Public concern regarding sustainable land use planning is how to strike a balance between development needs and preservation of natural resources, as well as the local "rural character". It is worth noting that environmental and landscape assets are both sought after by tourism –cultural heritage to be conserved as a common good, and misused – consumed for individual interests. The conflictuality here implies strong political issues around the appropriation of space and public control of urban uses and preservation.

The above typology highlights the divergent interests and tensions that can turn into conflicts of use in rural areas undergoing socio-spatial recomposition. The multifunctionality of territories goes hand in hand with new systems of relations between farmers and other users of rural space. Different views on the same space then become a source of misunderstandings and confrontations between old and new users. But these conflicts actually go beyond simple oppositions between different actors. They involve cultural issues and power relations in an effort to legitimize land practices between different actors and social groups. In addition, the inadequacy of legislation on spatial planning and land use as well as local political patronage accentuates discontent, confrontation and conflict.

2.3 Counterurbanisation and gentrification impacts: Spatial planning concerns

The idealistic image of rural areas combined with the urban crisis (deterioration of the quality of life in cities, economic recession related to deindustrialisation) have generated, since the late 1970s, a trend of reversal of the typical migration flows from rural to urban areas in the western world. This phenomenon of “counter-urbanization” is widely documented in the literature in both North America and Western Europe of the “old industrialization and urbanization” (Woods 2005: 73-84). However, the movement of population from urban to rural areas is rather selective and small in scope compared to massive rural exodus after World War II. In fact, what is happening in the countryside as a whole is a more ambiguous situation where, at the same time that city dwellers move into rural areas, remoted areas and small village communities still lose population as a result of the out-migration of people seeking employment opportunities in cities. In any case, for areas with a net positive in-migration balance, the arrival of new residents of urban origin, together with the development of second homes and rural tourism accommodation, have a significant footprint on landscape morphology as well as on land and housing market to the detriment of local communities (Halfacree 2008).

Which are the urbanites’ motivations, including newcomers and returnees, to move into the countryside? The “rural idyll”, related to the perceived quality of the physical environment and rural life, is the key driver in urbanites’ decisions to move to the countryside. The aesthetic quality and calmness of natural environment, the slower pace of life, the greater feeling of community bonds, and the open space and leisure potential, are some of the main features about rural attractiveness, highly cited by counter-urbanites in relevant field studies. This kind of narratives strongly reflects social construction of rurality as opposed to dystopian urban life (Halfacree 1994).

The employment opportunities triggered by the introduction of non-farm activities and services in the countryside are also an important motivation for city dwellers and aspiring investors in innovative, place-based businesses. Yet, we should also include in this category of job seekers, low-income city dwellers affected by the economic crisis, as happened with the recent debt crisis in Greece after 2008/09, but also across southern Europe (Gkartzios 2013, Scott and Gkartzios 2014). Rural areas are usually perceived to be more resistant and persevering against deprivation and poverty compared to the urban areas. Crisis-counterurbanization is fueled by idealistic considerations of rural areas as a refuge in turbulent times. That is to say, rural community ties and the reactivation of social and family networks are expected to make possible access to affordable housing and food, whereas providing employment opportunities in farming and para-agricultural activities, particularly for returnees, owners of inherited family property (Anthopoulou et al. 2017). Overall, counter-urbanization processes are the complex result of economic restructuring of urban and rural communities, in combination with socio-cultural and technological changes facilitating greater geographical and social mobility than was offered to previously (Halfacree 2012).

Rural gentrification is one of the most debated issues regarding the impacts of counter-urbanization on rural communities. It reflects the extensive property redevelopment generated by the increased consumption demand for land and housing by higher-income urban newcomers leading to upward trends in values and prices in local real estate markets. According to the literature, it mainly includes middle-class newcomers, the so-called "service class", who, motivated by the rural ideal, purchase at a low price while they repair small cottages, dilapidated farms and warehouses to convert them into second home, tourist accommodation and other recreational facilities or simply as a for-profit investment (Urry 1995; Stockdale 2010).

Nevertheless, rising prices in the real estate market may simply be the result of increased consumption demand, whether from higher-income social groups or the urban poor seeking refuge and survival in the village, given the limited housing stock in rural settlements. In any case, price inflation trends exclude indigenous rural populations from their place while creating problems of housing precariousness; especially in peri-urban zones and localities of high aesthetic value. In view of these developments, local authorities should focus their efforts on both social policy, including the problems of farmers' precarious housing, and spatial and urban planning, in order to address issues of uncontrolled construction and housing expansion (see next topics 3 and 4).

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The European context of Territorial governance and Spatial Planning

Topic 3 - Territorial Administration and Spatial Planning

Topic 4 - Sustainable planning and governance in rural areas

Topic 5 - The institutional framework of European territorial policies

Topic 6 - Territorial reforms in Europe

Topic 3 - Territorial Administration and Spatial Planning

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The scope of this topic is to familiarize students with the terms of spatial planning and its relation to territorial administration and governance. More particularly, it analyses the links between space, administrative-spatial structure, planning and territorial governance in view of the contemporary challenges of decentralization and centralization, the role of government and the shift to governance and finally the role of participation in a bottom-up approach and the process of democratization.

The aim is to look at the links between the process of local government reform and the administrative-territorial structures and to understand the process of transferring powers and resources to local authorities in relation to Urban and regional planning at multiple scales (i.e., the neighborhood, city, regional, inter-regional, and national levels).

Keywords: territorial administration, spatial planning, local self-governement, advocacy planning, participatory planning

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3.1. Spatial planning and Territorial administration: terms and policies

3.1.1. Introducing the concept of spatial planning

Spatial Planning has been a policy subject in the EU for many years. The EU Compendium of Spatial Planning Systems and Policies that was published by the European Commission in 1997 and the European Spatial Development Perspective (ESDP), a document with no binding status that was signed in 1999 by the ministers responsible for regional planning in the EU member states, are the two documents that have deeply influenced spatial planning policy of the European Union member states (for more on the evolution of European spatial policies see Topic 5). According to the EU Compendium of 1997 definition, the term spatial planning “...embraces measures to co-ordinate the spatial impacts of other sectoral policies, to achieve a more even distribution of economic development between regions than would otherwise be created by market forces, and to regulate the conversion of land and property uses” (ESPON, 2018, p.7).

Why? Spatial planning is used by governments to influence the future spatial distribution of activities and to manage spatial development. It coordinates all activities that relate to space and environment in order to balance the demands for development with the need to protect the environment and to achieve social and economic objectives. Therefore, spatial planning deals with the allocation of different land uses and controls not only the location of human activities such as housing, education, industry, retail and agriculture, industrial areas, tourist units, transport networks, places for social equipment (schools, hospitals) to ensure harmony among them, but also to shape the intensity, form, amount, spacing and the interlinkages between various land use activities (Acheampong, 2018). In other words, it deals with the competing interests over land so as to balance development with the protection of land and the public interest. Sustainable development, environmental protection, citizen engagement, infrastructure and economic growth are commonly mentioned objectives of planning (ESPON, 2018).

Who? Spatial planning is largely a public sector function. It involves separate professional disciplines which partially encompass spatial planning, including land use, urban/ urban renewal, regional, transportation, economic and community planning. Some other related terminologies that are used include: land use planning, physical planning, urban planning, town and country planning, regional planning (EU compendium, 1997).

How and What? Spatial planning refers to the methods used by the public sector to influence the distribution of people and activities in spaces of various scales in order to improve the built, economic and social environments of communities. This means the various institutional arrangements for expressing spatial planning objectives and the mechanisms employed for realizing them.

BOX 1 - Spatial planning

It refers to the methods used by the public sector to influence the distribution of people and activities in spaces at various scales as well as the location of the various infrastructures, recreation and nature areas. Spatial planning activities are carried out at different administrative or governmental levels (local, regional, national), while activities of co-operation in this field are also implemented in cross-border, transnational and European contexts (CEMAT, 2007).

Spatial planning often results in the creation of a spatial plan or a strategic document with spatial reference. Types of instruments can cover different areas of the administration levels (national plans, local spatial plans etc.) with different responsible planning authorities. A broader ‘spatial planning approach’ goes beyond the regulation of land use and urban form to the coordination of the territorial impacts of sectoral policies.

Policy institutions and Spatial Policy instruments. ESPON (2018) considers 'spatial planning' as the collection of institutions that seek to regulate the change of use of land and property. Given that in most cases spatial planning policy is closely linked to territorial administration units and is predominantly a public sector responsibility, there are several institutions empowered with the formulation and implementation of a spatial planning policy. Competences and responsibilities of regional and local authorities in the field of spatial planning depend on the level of **decentralization** and autonomy in exercising power (e.g. who is responsible for the elaboration, the approval, the amendment, the revision and the monitoring and control of different types of town/spatial plans and zones, what are their financial resources, etc, specific ministries with specific responsibilities in monitoring, ratifying e.g. for national level or local and regional authorities).

Moreover, different government agencies and public sector organizations may exist and intervene in the spatial planning process. At the same time various planning systems exist in different countries, depending on various administrative and socio-economic contexts, and are characterized by considerable differences in types of instruments used.

3.1.2. Linking spatial planning levels and instruments with territorial administration and governance

Early legislation on planning is closely linked to housing and the physical improvement of cities. From the mid 60's regional planning gained prominence in both theory and practice of planning in Europe and North America and its scope has largely expanded. **From the initial emphasis on national land use regulation planning system, design, regulation and development control, planning has evolved to a more strategic and visionary approach and to a place-making strategy, embracing economic, social and environmental dimensions of development, also creating synergy between sectoral policies and actors involved in territorial development.**

➤ Types of Spatial Planning Instruments

What are the institutional and legal arrangements for spatial planning? Given that definition of spatial planning includes instruments that mediate competition over the use of land and property, and regulate land use change and development to promote preferred spatial and urban form, we can see various categories of planning instruments according to the degree of their regulative character (**regulative, statutory, visionary, strategic, framework setting**, see Table 1).

According to the study of ESPON (2018), most national spatial planning instruments in the EU are statutory. Of the non-statutory planning instruments, most are national spatial plans or territorial development strategies, which define principles and/or strategic guidance for spatial development and planning. Types of instruments vary according to the geographical area covered, their form and content and the responsibilities for their production and approval. Legal instruments can be approved by Parliament Act, Prefect or Mayor and relative Ministry/ies.

BOX 2 - Definition of 'Spatial planning instrument'

The term 'spatial planning instrument' denotes plans and other tools that are used to mediate and regulate spatial development. Spatial planning instruments are the main means through which spatial planning objectives are defined and pursued. These instruments are usually related to the legal planning framework and the various planning authorities in each country. Planning authorities are usually responsible for preparing these planning instruments or else commission other agencies to do so. Adoption or approval is often performed by directly or indirectly elected political governmental bodies such as parliaments, councils or committees (i.e. those that have a constitutional or legal right to take decisions for a certain territory).

Source: ESPON, 2018

➤ Spatial Planning instruments and state organization

There is a connection between **territorial administration and spatial planning** which extends to the **different levels of government**. Therefore the operation of spatial planning has a reference to administrative units and there are different scales of spatial planning. It can take place on local, regional, national and inter-national/trans-national levels. Within a country, spatial planning is closely linked to state organization and can have national, regional and local levels, comprising thus a large variety of instruments. What gives a general view of the spatial planning system of a country is to link types of instruments and relative legislation (e.g. master plan, strategic framework, regulatory etc) with various levels/ scales (i.e. area covered by the plans) and the responsible planning authorities and main spatial agencies.

Changes in the structure of government levels (e.g. decentralization reforms) or directly elected bodies with decision-making power are closely related to the distribution of spatial planning competences. For example organs that could be responsible for planning can be the Secretaries of the Regions, the Prefects and the Mayors. Moreover, presidential decrees concern the approval of various planning regulations.

- **National level.** This level may include the whole country, or functional planning zones or bigger areas (e.g. coastal zone, islands etc.) or a sector of activities (e.g. industry, transport, environment, cultural heritage and tourism, and energy policies are reported to be the most integrated with spatial planning), broad zones of land use at the regional or even national levels.

In most cases it is the constitution that defines the relationships between the different powers/authorities at national level. Legislation is enacted in the form of laws and it enables ministries and other organs of the executive branch to make secondary or subordinate legislation for planning.

- **Sub-national policy levels.** According to different administrative and decentralized structures, countries can be divided into smaller administrative units (e.g. regions, municipalities, counties, communes) with different levels of decentralization and forms of governance.
 - **Regions** are spatial units, larger than a single town, city, or metropolitan area and smaller than a state. They are created by the need to achieve functional integration between places as well as a basis to improve linkages, to promote balanced development between places and to coordinate the actions of different administrative bodies as, for example, in the planning and development of major infrastructure projects (Acheampong, 2018). In many countries, this level includes regions or big municipalities or greater (metropolitan) areas e.g. regional physical plans, master plans at a regional level (administrative level or planning level). Broad zones of land use at the regional or

even national levels. Some of them focus on the ‘functional planning region’. *Regional policy* attempts to influence the distribution of economic activities and social welfare between regions in order to address ‘uneven development’ phenomena and is usually undertaken by national governments. Regional policy measures may include direct investments in physical and social infrastructure, fiscal incentives etc. For example, at the EU level structural funds have played an important role in regional policy and NUTS were created in order to locate the area where goods and services were delivered.

In this context, *spatial planning at the regional level* can be undertaken for administrative areas such as the territories of regional and provincial governments and administrations or for functional planning areas such as ‘city-regions’. It attempts to shape the development patterns within a region usually through a strategy which links physical change with economic and social policy. It operates at a lower level than the national and above the local, by integrating particular localities in the strategy.

BOX 3 - *Regional planning is a branch of land-use planning dealing with the organisation of infrastructure, settlement growth and non-built areas at the scale of a region. Regional planning generally contributes to regional development, but may also fulfill additional objectives, such as sustainability in the environmental sense. Regional planning is generally understood as the spatial planning activities at regional scale.*

Source: CEMAT, 2007, p.22

- **Local level.** Local authorities might include Municipalities and Communes, Prefectures etc. These local authorities may have a specific role in the spatial planning system that is being defined institutionally according to the local affairs concept. During the last years decentralisation reforms have devolved substantial development management responsibilities to Local Authorities and have in many cases strengthened spatial planning at the local level because they gain more competences.

At the local policy level, spatial planning takes the form of a more detailed regulation regarding land use and building development at the level of local authority (e.g. the municipality, commune etc). In most of the countries, local authorities are responsible for the management of land use and building control under the general supervision of the national or regional government. In most cases at the local level (neighborhood or municipality level), plans are regulatory (regulate the conversion of land and property use), e.g. different types of general town plans, detailed urban studies, neighborhood building plans for a part of the city or area up to a single building plot, land Contribution plans, Zoning instruments containing detailed provisions, the design of buildings, conservation and protection of the natural and cultural heritage and building construction. In many EU countries spatial planning involves the definition and approval by local authorities of the territorial planning and issuing of construction permits. In other cases local responsibility is limited to licensing activities or other sorts of administrative and technical services linked to spatial development. In other cases it is limited to the supervision of enforcement of construction and planning mandates (Spain, Switzerland) or it covers the whole of those aspects (Denmark, Finland).

➤ Decentralisation reforms and territorial administration

In order to discuss the different levels of spatial planning we have to define the level of government to which they are related because these levels have directly elected bodies with decision-making power in relation to spatial planning competences. Spatial planning is an activity

which involves different levels of government and which is subject to multi-level governance (ESPON, 2018).

Changes in the structure of government and the distribution of competences in planning are closely related. Subnational government systems depict the relationship between central and local (and regional) governments which has been changing all the time.

What is decentralization? It is seen as a political process of the empowerment of elected Local Administrations (LAs) linked to their fiscal and administrative dimensions of decentralization (see BOX 4). It is linked to increased accountability and autonomy that “refers to the ability of LAs to adopt policies, implement programmes and issue regulations on their own initiative (i.e. without being directed to do so by any other authority), limited only by the legality of their actions” (EU, 2016, p.24). Many countries are decentralising planning competences from national and sub-national levels to the local level and/or strengthening the autonomy of local level planning bodies as well as that of lower levels of self-government, while a smaller group of countries is strengthening planning at the sub-national level (regionalisation) (ESPON, 2018). Decentralization can also go beyond the state sphere when a transfer of power to semi-public organizations takes place (in that case one speaks of delegation of functions even to civil society bodies) (FAO, 2006, p.14).

Situation in Europe. Reforms involving territorial reorganisations have become quite common over the past few decades in Europe, usually carried out as mergers of municipalities or regionalisation of the territory. In the last twenty years the acknowledgement of subsidiarity as a basic principle for the European Union, the introduction of the West German federal system in the eastern part of the country, and the revival of regionalism in Western European countries, like Portugal, were distinct examples of the decentralisation process in Europe. In addition, this kind of political decentralisation has also been pronounced in most transition countries in the EU (John 2000). Administrative territorial structures are largely differentiated in EU countries and there are huge disparities in the levels and of territorial organization and decentralization reached by each country. European Union consists of 27 states, three of them with a federal structure (Germany, Austria and Belgium). Administrative territorial division in EU countries includes one, two or three levels depending on the specifics of each country (see TABLE 1) For example, in Greece according to the last decentralization Law known as ‘Kallikratis’ (for more information see the Greek example, in the Topic 6), the country has been divided in 7 decentralised Prefectures, 13 Regions and 325 Municipalities, while in Albania there are 38 communes and 65 municipalities (for more information on territorial reforms in Albania see Topics 7,8,9). Territorial decentralisation is based on the idea of decentralisation of political decision-making that has become increasingly popular worldwide, and is also accompanied by fiscal decentralisation in most cases. Adjusting the functioning of local and regional authorities to the budgetary and operational restrictions imposed by the central governments plays a central goal/role in these reforms (Council of European Municipalities and Regions, 2013).

BOX 4 - The functional dimensions of decentralisation

- *Administrative decentralisation* comprises the systems, processes and policies that transfer administration of public functions to sub-national governments. This need not involve autonomous authority over revenues and expenditures or formal mechanisms of accountability to local citizens.
- *Fiscal decentralisation* refers to the formal assignment of expenditure functions and revenues (intergovernmental transfers and own tax and non-tax sources) to LAs. It need not involve formal mechanisms of accountability to local citizens.
- *Political decentralisation* is the set of provisions designed to devolve political authority to LAs and enhance their accountability to the residents of their jurisdictions. Examples include the popular election of mayors and councils that previously may have been appointed or did not exist. In effect, political decentralisation adds democratisation to the more technical mechanisms of administrative and fiscal decentralisation.

Source: EU, 2016, p.26

- **Governmental structures and spatial planning.** Governmental structures and division of powers between tiers of administration has implications for the organization of spatial planning across the EU at national, regional and local level (EU Compendium, 1997):
 - Horizontal coordination of the activities of different units of authorities, departments and ministries
 - Vertical integration of policies between different levelsEach country has different government structure in relation to spatial planning but there is a number of changes taking place:
 - Regionalization = powers have been devolved down from central government or groupings of local authorities prepare regional plans
 - Establishments of city-regions as regional public bodies (e.g metropolitan regions)
 - Reduction in the number of authorities– decentralisation – territorial reforms
 - Changes at central government to improve coordination of different sectoral policies e.g. establishment of a Ministry of Environment and planning

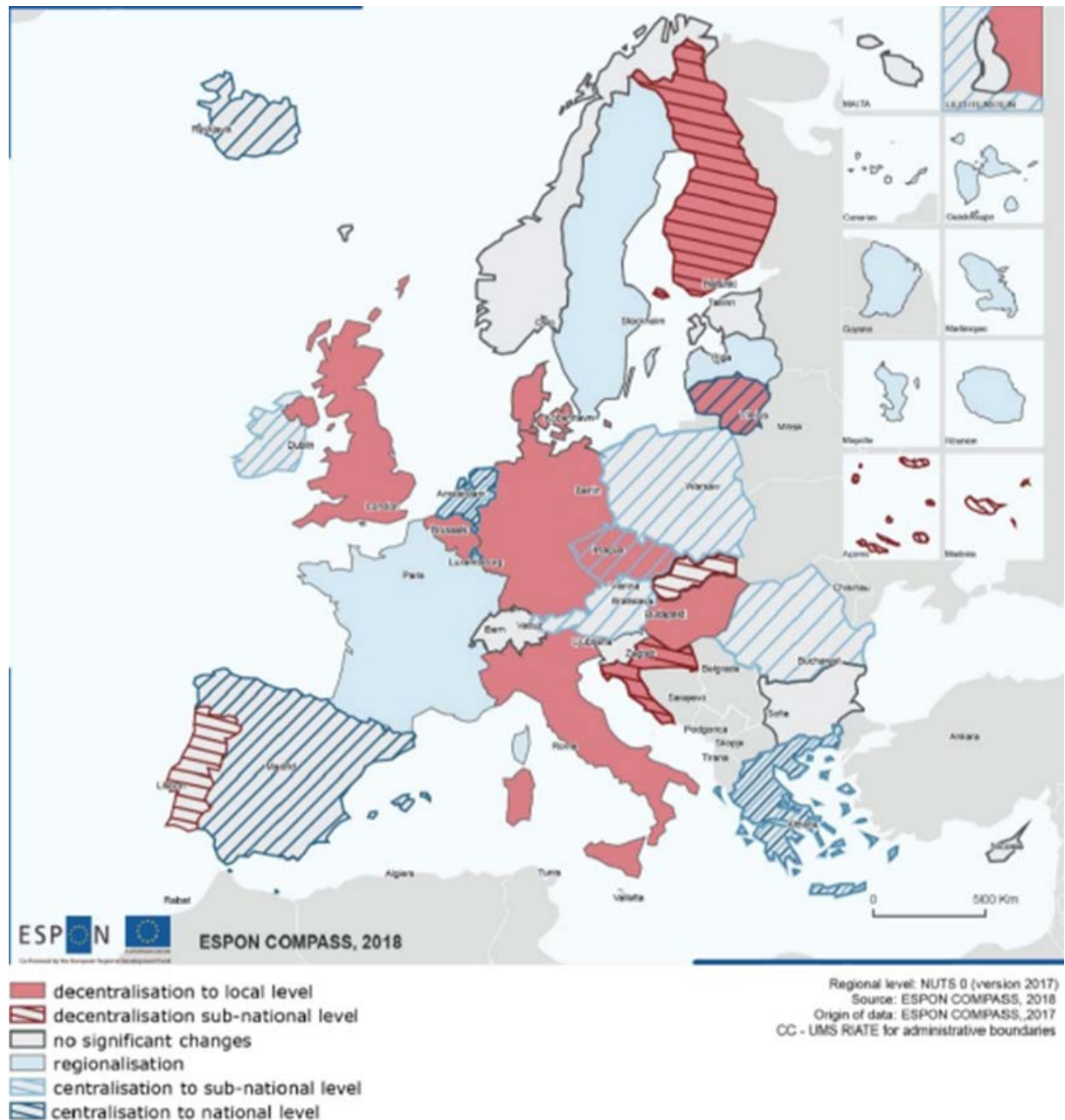
Countries may also face multi-level coordination challenges due to contexts of increasing decentralisation for spatial planning competences; this can cause potential contradictions between territorial strategies (see Map 1).

TABLE 1 - Main Glossary of spatial planning and territorial governance

Spatial planning system	A collection of institutions that mediate competition over the use of land and property, and regulate land use change and development to promote preferred spatial and urban form.
Territorial governance	Active cooperation across government, market and civil society actors to coordinate decision-making and actions that have an impact on the quality of places and their development.
Level of government	A separate level of government administration having directly elected bodies with decision-making power in relation to spatial planning competences.
Functional planning regions	A common administrative arrangement for a special body created to deal with functional areas, such as metropolitan regions, polycentric urban forms and urban corridors.
Planning instruments	Plans and other tools that are used to mediate and regulate spatial development.
Visionary instruments	The setting of a normative agenda of principles or goals for a desirable future.
Strategic instruments	An evidence-based integrated and long-term frame of reference for coordinated action and decision making across jurisdictions and sectors.
Framework-setting instruments	Policies, proposals and other criteria for a territory that provide a non-binding reference for other plans and decision-making.
Regulative instruments	Legally binding commitments or decisions concerning land use change and development.
Statutory	Stipulated or provided for in legislation related to spatial planning, that is enabled or required by the law.

Source, Espon, 2018, Annex 3. Glossary, p. 113

MAP 1 - Shifts in competences for spatial planning in the EU



Source: ESPON, 2018, p.19

3.2.A territorial approach of bottom-up planning

3.2.1. Advocacy Planning vs Rational planning model: towards a participatory approach of planning

'*Rational planning*' was a post world-war model that is a more technocratic, centralistic and elitist view of decision making. Planners are asked to solve planning problems without any interference from the public. Decisions and principles are based on reason, logic and scientific facts with little or no emphasis on values and emotions. This model was criticized by "advocate planners" as a practice that represents the interests of the privileged, is without any social interest since it neglects people's opinions and is based only on **measurable criteria** professional expertise and objectivity of the "knowers". Therefore it is thought to exclude important alternatives – experiential, intuitive, local knowledge (for more see Box 5).

Keywords: technocratic, top-down, experts, quantitative

'*Advocacy planning*' refers to the shift from a top-down view of development to a more participative form of planning practice that enhances open public debate and pluralism (advocating for several small interest groups). Advocacy planning was presented in 1960 by the American professor Paul Davidoff (Davidoff, 1965). It takes into account social complexity of cities, minority/disadvantaged groups, civil rights and the different interests involved in the planning process itself.

'*Citizen Participation*' "is a community-based process, where citizens organize themselves and their goals at the grassroots level and work together through non-governmental community organizations to influence decision-making process" (Greek Presidency of CEMAT, 2015, p.7).

'*Participatory Planning*' is used by planners in order to solve problems and promote development through the direct involvement of people. It is a community based approach that gathers different opinions and various civic bodies through public meetings and enquiries (governing bodies and citizens). The aim is to enhance participation in decision making process through partnerships between communities and governments. *Public participation* in spatial planning can take various forms and strategies: either through a constructive collaboration with planners and local authorities, or through violent reactions/conflicts. What is more important at the present time is that planning authorities and theorists to try to develop new techniques and strategies to address competing interest groups in order to achieve a consensus. (Greek Presidency of CEMAT, 2015. p. 8-9).

(*Public*) *Consultation* is the most common form of participatory planning. It is the action/process of asking (by an institution/authority) the peoples'/citizens advice or opinion on a certain planning matter (e.g. a project, plan etc.) before its approval (public debates, workshops, internet forums etc).

Keywords: bottom-up, democratic, inclusion, pluralism, comprehensive planning, social justice, equity, citizen participation, collaborative planning, citizenship

Who are the participators/actors in the planning process?

Actors involved in public participation in planning might be: a) local politicians/administrators/representatives that can play a positive role in spatial planning process (understanding the context, abilities, communication skills, technical assistance, time), b)planners that can be either typical planning consultants or advocate planners whichadvise public authorities, interest groups, organize public participation etc. c) the public (individual or collective subgroups and agents) that can be categorized as authority consultees (institutionalized groups, organizations, public bodies, civil services) or Pressure groups

(voluntary organizations, local groups of various interests, single issue groups) (Greek Presidency of CEMAT, 2015, p.22)

BOX 5 – Participatory planning

Participatory planning is an approach to designing active, livable cities, which makes urban planning accessible, community-driven, and fun. It is grounded in the belief that blending local knowledge and expert knowledge leads to strong outcomes. We work on the neighbourhood scale, and take an integrated view of planning. Since land use, urban design, architecture, transportation infrastructure, and placemaking all inform residents' experiences of their neighbourhoods, planning involves professionals across these disciplines. We also integrate a health equity lens into our work, and acknowledge the link between participatory planning processes, built environment outcomes, and public health. Each community has a unique, citizen-driven workplan developed in collaboration with various local partners, but our participatory planning approach employs a common methodology.

Source: <https://participatoryplanning.ca/participatory-planning>

Planning models can define up to which degree participation can be included in the planning process. The relationship between the type of planning and the degree of public involvement can vary from rational planning (non-existing participation) to participatory planning where maximum interaction is achieved (Smith, 1973). For more information on the differences between Advocacy and Rational Comprehensive Planning see the Encyclopedia of Urban Studies (Feld and Pollak, 2010)

Partnerships. “The governance of territorial development policies has significantly changed over the past decades in order to face more efficiently the new challenges. While, in the past, territorial governance was mainly of hierarchical nature, often in the context of top-down relations, a number of factors have led to the adoption of more flexible approaches in which cooperation and partnerships play a more important part, especially in the following fields: – vertical and horizontal relationships in public administrations responsible for both territorial planning and sectoral policies with territorial impacts, partly substituted to authoritarian relationships and enabling the progressive coherence of public policies with the aim of producing added value for territorial cohesion and sustainability; – relationships between public administrations and bodies representing the civil society with the aim to strengthen the adhesion of civil society to spatial planning objectives, to harmonise public policies with private decisions, in particular in the field of investments, and to smooth potential conflicts of interest; – relationships between urban and rural areas with the aim to strengthen the development of rural areas through the services provided by urban entities, to alleviate the pressure that metropolitan areas exert on surrounding rural areas and to provide the various functions of urban-rural relations with a sustainable character; – cross-border and transnational relationships aiming at harmonising territorial development policies across national borders” (CEMAT, 2007, p.19).

Top-down or bottom-up planning. “Spatial development projects are projects generated or controlled by public bodies which contribute positively to territorial development at different scales. Spatial development projects may comprise infrastructure works, the economic promotion and development of specific areas, urban rehabilitation measures, the restoration of damaged ecosystems, etc. Generally, spatial development projects are elements of more comprehensive spatial development strategies. While some spatial development projects are of

top-down nature and involve mainly public authorities, others are of more bottom-up nature and may largely involve the civil society as well as private interests (such as public-private partnerships)” (CEMAT, 2007, p.24).

TABLE 2 - Comparison of the rational Comprehensive Planning and the Advocacy Planning Models

<i>Processes</i>	<i>Rational Planning</i>	<i>Advocacy Planning</i>
Assumptions	Perfect information Rational outcomes One solution is best City is a system of interrelated functions	Imperfect information Non-value-neutral decisions Pluralistic society Normative planning is rational Each group is entitled to its own planner Different outcomes benefit different interests
Client	Community as a whole Property owners	“The Negro and the impoverished” or poor, powerless, minority persons One or more interest groups
Public interest	Unitary public interest	Plural special interests
Role of planner	Advisor to political decision maker Technician	Expert advice
Locality of planning process	Municipality bureaucracy	Community-wide
Goals of paradigm	Hierarchy of goals Physical land use goals	Access, skills used for pluralistic clients Represent minority interests Citizen participation
Resource allocation	Through planning process	Redistribution of wealth and public power increases the choices for poor
Public participation	Public hearings	Coalition building
Planning methods	Comprehensive rational process Value-neutral Physical land use based	Policy techniques Rational model
Definition	Value-neutral, factual Procedural process Begin with goals Rationality and choice Decision making	Facts and values as decisions Procedural process and pluralistic society Normative planning is rational Each group has its own advocate Client centered and future oriented

Source : https://pauldavidoff.com/wp-content/uploads/2016/06/AboutPD_Advocacyplanning_MarkerandBaron_2010.pdf

3.2.2. Decentralization and local territorial development

Local authorities have since the 80’s entered as a new actor in the local arena and started to play an important role in intervening in local development (rural development programs, infrastructure etc.). Later on, actor-based approaches and decentralised cooperation schemes have moved towards territorial approaches that combine bottom-up processes of local development enriched by a broader territorial perspective, with the elaboration of supportive national decentralisation policies and institutional changes that help to create the conditions for genuine territorial dynamics (European Commission, 2016, p.13). This means that we move towards autonomous and accountable local authorities that are primarily responsible for promoting territorial development, that have to be capable to plan, finance and manage it. In order to understand the role of a territorial approach in spatial planning, it is firstly important to

clarify the concept of territory and territorial cohesion and their connection to spatial planning approaches.

The concept of territory in spatial planning. The term ‘territory’ was introduced as a new dimension in European spatial development policy (ESDP European Spatial Development Perspective (European Commission, 1999). In a context of increased competition within the Single European Market and the serious economic imbalances among EU members, there was a need to realise regionally balanced and sustainable spatial development for a more even geographical distribution of growth across the territory of the EU (aiming at cohesion). “Territories” were driving forces for spatial development in the EU mainly through local and regional communities that started to play an important role in spatial development. Spatial development issues went beyond purely sectoral policy measures and were resolved through co-operation between different governmental and administrative levels recognizing the various territorial features (identity, cultural differences etc). The famous triangle of ESDP Objectives was a Balanced and Sustainable Spatial Development linking the three following fundamental goals of European policy: a) economic and social cohesion, b) conservation of natural resources and cultural heritage, and c) more balanced competitiveness of the European territory.

Territorial cohesion and spatial planning: The term ‘**territorial cohesion**’ is a European Union concept which builds on the European Spatial Development Perspective (ESDP). The main idea of territorial cohesion is to contribute to European **sustainable development** and competitiveness through a balanced distribution of economic and social resources among the European regions. It is intended to strengthen the European regions, promote territorial integration and produce coherence of European Union policies so as to contribute to the sustainable development and global competitiveness of the EU. This means that resources and opportunities should be equally distributed among the **regions** and their populations. In order to achieve the goal of territorial cohesion, an integrative approach to other EU policies is required. The main resource of EU’s territorial cohesion policy is EU’s structural funds, considered to be delivered to the most deprived areas of EU. Cohesion policy often has a direct impact on physical spatial development through funded projects, and thus there is a strong indirect connection with spatial planning, especially where spending is high.

Territorial planning is not a separate policy but one which associates various issues behind a single coherent strategy. According to the new territorial Scenarios and Vision of Europe (ESPON, 2014) the strategy to make EU smart, inclusive and sustainable requires the European territory to become more open and polycentric through an “open endogenous development paradigm” that reconciles a “place-based” and community-led development approach, together with the imperative openness to global markets and neighboring countries.

The European Territorial Agenda 2020 has set **6 Territorial Priorities for the Development of the European Union**¹

1. Promote polycentric and balanced territorial development
2. Encouraging integrated development in cities, rural and specific regions
3. Territorial integration in cross-border and transnational functional regions
4. Ensuring global competitiveness of the regions based on strong local economies
5. Improving territorial connectivity for individuals, communities and enterprises
6. Managing and connecting ecological, landscape and cultural values of regions

¹ See, https://ec.europa.eu/regional_policy/sources/policy/what/territorial-cohesion/territorial_agenda_2020.pdf, p.6-8

BOX 6 - Linking territorial with local spatial development

“**Territorial development** designates development that is endogenous and spatially integrated, leverages the contribution of actors operating at multiple scales and brings incremental value to national development efforts” (European Commission, 2016, p.39).

■ **Local development is an endogenous process.** It is the mobilisation and leveraging of place-specific resources through enabling political and institutional mechanisms of governance and development administration — which constitutes the critical difference between genuine local development and the simple localisation of national, multi-national or global development objectives and programmes. Such localisation is important, but the reduction of local development to this basis would lose all the policies and programmes that might be autonomously identified, formulated, financed and implemented by LAs in response to, and in partnership with, local communities and the private sector.

■ **Local development is incremental.** Local development is incremental with respect to national development efforts in the sense of having the potential to improve the efficiency (through the adaptation of national policies to local conditions) and scope (through the mobilisation of additional private and community resources that can be combined with national/global resources) in order to contribute to national development efforts. Two further ingredients are needed for a useful definition of territorial development.

■ **Spatial integration.** Local development must have a holistic, spatial orientation to integrate physical/environmental and social/economic considerations and overcome the fragmentation of sector-based policymaking and implementation. Economies of scale and added value may be realised through horizontally integrated and spatially coordinated management by LAs.

■ **Multiple scales.** Local development can be promoted at multiple levels (i.e. local, urban, metropolitan, regional, national and supra-national) and requires cooperation between the various levels.

Source: Feld and Pollak, 2010, p.4

The emphasis of the EU *Territorial Agenda 2020* on rural areas is given mainly through the 2nd priority by a **focus on functional regions, including their peri-urban neighbourhoods.**

Therefore the adjective “**territorial**” typically refers to either, or both:

1. Development which is **spatially integrated** i.e. reflects a spatial vision of a territory’s future [this stresses the importance of **integrating physical/environmental and social/economic considerations** and overcoming the fragmentation of sector-based policy making and implementation.]
2. Development of **specific places at multiple scales** (local, urban, metropolitan, regional, national, or supra-national) [This points at **the multiplicity of scales**] at which local development can be promoted (“local” as a relative concept) and to the **interdependence** of such scales)

The term territorial development combines both meanings of spatially integrated and multi-scalar and the defining characteristics of “local” development (endogenous and incremental).

BOX 7 - Encouraging integrated development in cities, rural and specific regions

*“(27) We declare that We support all the efforts, which help to make cities motors of smart, sustainable and inclusive development and attractive places to live, work, visit and invest in. Accordingly, we recommend applying an integrated and multilevel approach in urban development and regeneration policies. The cooperation and networking of cities could contribute to smart development of city regions at varying scales in the long run. **Cities should, where appropriate look beyond their administrative borders and focus on functional regions, including their peri-urban neighbourhoods.***

*(28) The development of the **wide variety of rural areas should take account of their unique characteristics.** Rural, peripheral and sparsely populated territories may need to enhance their accessibility, foster entrepreneurship and build strong local capacities. Some rural areas tend to be vulnerable territories rich in cultural and natural values. We support the safeguarding and sustainable utilization of this territorial capital, the ecological functions and services it provides. Special attention may need to be paid to underdeveloped peripheral rural and sparsely populated areas where disadvantaged social groups often suffer from segregation. Territories facing severe depopulation should have long-term solutions to maintain their economic activity by enhancing job creation, attractive living conditions and public services for inhabitants and businesses. In rural areas where agriculture and forestry are still important forms of land use, modernisation of the primary sector through resource-efficient investments in new and alternative sectors and preservation of high quality arable land and ecological functions are essential.*

(29) We acknowledge the diverse links that urban and rural territories throughout Europe can have with each other, ranging from peri-urban to peripheral rural regions. Urban-rural interdependence should be recognised through integrated governance and planning based on broad partnership. We welcome place-based strategies developed locally to address local conditions. In rural areas small and medium-sized towns play a crucial role; therefore it is important to improve the accessibility of urban centres from related rural territories to ensure the necessary availability of job opportunities and services of general interest. Metropolitan regions should also be aware that they have responsibility for the development of their wider surroundings.

(30) We recall that specific geographical endowments have significant influence on the development opportunities of many regions and Member States. This is also recognised by the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union (Art. 174). Coastal zones, islands, including island states, mountainous areas, plains, river valleys and lake basins and other types of territories have special – often cross border– features, or suffer from severe and permanent natural or demographic handicaps such as low population density, which influence their development potentials. Outermost regions (Art. 349) have specific and permanent constraints, notably due to the distance from the mainland, and a specific international context. These specific potentials can be unleashed and problems tackled jointly by actors from different states or regions in an integrated way”.

Source: EU, 2011 (Territorial Agenda 2020), p. 6-7

3.2.3. The role of local self-government and the shift to governance

Local governments are responsible for orchestrating sustainable development at the local level and have to deal with questions of energy sources, services and land uses at local level: physical infrastructure – roads, management of water resources, waste management, protection of the environment and biodiversity, provision of and access to public services in urban and rural areas, urban planning and development, cohesion within and between our communities and territorial cohesion in a broad sense. They can also address the needs of their citizens for public health, education (Primary education and kindergartens), housing, local transportation services, cultural and recreational facilities, social and child care, and other public goods and services that are essential to nurturing a healthy, skilled, and reliable workforce (CLRD, 2007; ALDA, 2011).

The responsibilities and mandates of Local governments depend on the levels of decentralisation and the legal frameworks in every country. What is the distribution of responsibilities among local authorities? In this process of decentralization, local governments have to go beyond the role of providing services but manage drafting and implementing short-term, middle-term and long-term programs for development. The *European Charter of Municipal Liberties*², emphasizes the importance of municipalities' political and financial independence from the central states. Furthermore, this charter gave birth three decades later to the *European Charter of Local Self-Government* (Council of European Municipalities and Regions, 2013). A special attention is paid on the principle of **local self-government**.

Local self-government: It concerns management capabilities of local government which “entails freedom in managing and *making decisions for those public authorities that are local because they are separated from central government*”. It is very important economically, politically and sociologically because it centers the **decision making** to local tiers and **balance of power relations** and promotes **participative democracy**.

BOX 8 - Nature and scope of local authorities according to the European Charter of Local Self-Government

- '*Local Self-Government* denotes the right and ability of local authorities, within the ambit of the law, to regulate and manage a substantial share of public affairs under their own responsibility and in the interests of the local population' (Article 3, par. 1).

- '*Local authorities* shall, within the limits of the law, have full discretion to exercise their initiative with regard to any matter which is not excluded from their competence nor assigned to any other authority' (Article 4, par. 2).

Source: EU, 2016)

According to ALDA (2011) some very important issues concerning effective local self-government include the efficient size and number of government units³ (coherent areas as economic and social units, efficient and democratic) and the issue of **responsibilities for local authorities** as a process of devolution from central government. The allocation of local and regional

²Adopted by the Council of Europe in 1985, today it has been ratified, in part or in whole, by all 47 of its member states.

³There are cases of very small countries with only one tier of local government e.g. municipalities (Cyprus, Malta etc.). Others have a two-tier system, i.e. regions and municipalities (i.e. Greece, Netherlands, Romania, Sweden etc.). Some countries with federal or regionalized countries (such as Germany, Belgium, Spain and Italy) have a three-tier local government system. In other countries such as Lithuania municipalities are divided into decentralized neighborhoods or larger cities in France are divided into *mairies de quartier*, or smaller communities are gathered in *intercommunalities* in order to implement local policies.

responsibilities is mainly in the hands of central government; however in most cases local authorities, especially municipalities, are endowed a general competence of administration law.

This shows the shift from the entity that governs (usually the institutions vested with political power) to the processes, the ways in which they manage territories and populations.

Government: the official institutions of the State exercising government authority based on the monopoly of the right to exercise power in a designated territory

(Territorial) Governance: According to CEMAT Glossary *“Territorial governance is a global concept which characterizes the way how spatially-relevant policies, considered together, are applied. Territorial governance is assessed against its contribution to the achievement of the objectives of spatial development policies. It is the result of multi-level and cross-sectorial relationships in the field of public policies. It refers to horizontal and vertical cooperation in the shaping and implementation of these policies. In this respect the principles of subsidiarity and reciprocity are of particular relevance”*.

It is therefore a broader concept that encompasses multiple ways in which individuals, social groups and institutions, public and private, manage their common issues. It is a process by which conflicting and diverging interests can converge and act together (e.g. collective action at local level). It may include “formal institutions of local government and government hierarchies, as well as the roles of informal norms, networks, community organizations, and neighborhood associations in pursuing collective action by defining the framework for citizen-citizen and citizen-state interactions, collective decision making, and delivery of local public services” (Shah & Shah, 2006.:3).

Local government/governance competences: What are the main axes of local government competences that are needed for effective governance in various territories?

a) Planning and regulation

- *Tools*: master plans, zoning, integrated design with the development of alliances and new governance models

b) Financing

Sources of financing: government, lending, investment and property gains, taxes (property, business, use charges)

c) Human resources and management skills

Depends on the *administrative capacity*, highly skilled human resources and programming skills

d) Services

It is the most basic function of local governments: the existence and quality of services (water supply, cleanliness, waste and waste management, housing) are directly linked to the quality of life.

3.3. Territorial typologies and Statistical areas

There are several types of territories that are receiving particular attention by policy makers due to policy developments in relation to EU Cohesion Policy, the Treaty of Lisbon and the description of the European aim of territorial cohesion.

- **Types of territories mentioned in the Lisbon Treaty §174**

Urban/metropolitan regions; rural regions; sparsely populated regions; regions in industrial transition; cross-border regions; mountainous regions; islands and coastal regions

- **ESPON typologies**

Urban-rural, metropolitan regions; border regions; islands regions; sparsely populated regions; outermost regions; mountainous regions; coastal regions; regions in industrial transition.

- **Eurostat statistic regions**

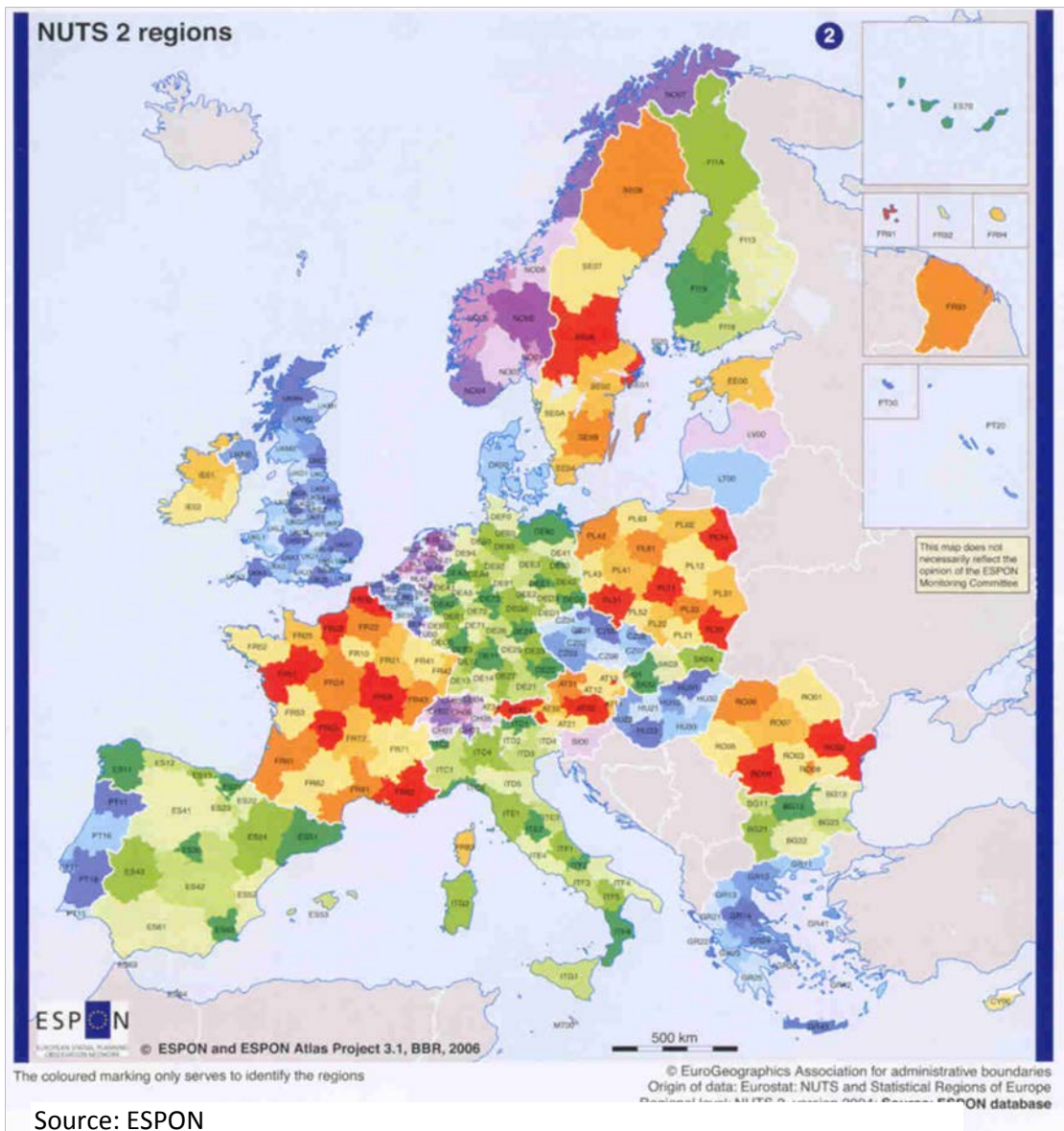
Varying number and size of territorial units, into which individual national economies are divided, have created a primary precondition of forming the so-called statistic regions of the European Union. The target of this system, alias “territorial statistical units”, was to secure a comparativeness of territorial units within the whole Union. Eurostat, the EU’s statistical office, collects and publishes statistics for the EU as well as national and regional data, primarily for the 27 Member States of the EU, but also for the EFTA and candidate countries. EU regional statistics are based on the NUTS classification, the classification of territorial units for statistics, which subdivides each Member State into regions at three different levels, covering **NUTS levels 1, 2 and 3 from larger to smaller areas**. The **NUTS system** works with five-level hierarchic classification. Except three levels of NUTS that refer to the regional level, two lower levels of territorial statistical division also exist, but those are not determining for allocation of finances from EU funds. These are so-called **local administrative units (LAU)**. Eurostat annual regional yearbook as well as the EU cohesion report published every three years both provide a taste of the wide selection of European statistics that are collected on regions and cities across a range of subjects.

- **NUTS**

The “Nomenclature of territorial units for statistics” was created by the European Office for Statistics (Eurostat) in order to apply a common statistical standard across the European Union, those being geographical areas used in order to collect statistical data.

- NUTS level 1: includes smaller Member States such as Denmark, Ireland and Slovenia, the German Länder and other large regions.
- NUTS level 2: includes the autonomous regions in Spain, French regions and overseas departments (DOM), Polish Voivodships, etc. (see Map 2)
- NUTS level 3: includes regional level (e.g, regions - “Nomoi” in Greece, “Maakunnat” in Finland, Swedish Län, etc.)(see Map 1)

MAP 2 - A new urban-rural typology for NUTS 3 regions



At the regional level (NUTS 3) we can see the following typologies:

Rural-urban typology

According to Eurostat, NUTS 3 region is classified to three broad classes of rural areas or regions based on the percentage of the population of a country living in rural communities (see TABLE 3 and MAP 3):

- **Predominantly urban (PU)**, if the share of population living in rural LAU2 is below 15 %;
- **Intermediate (IN)**, if the share of population living in rural LAU2 is between 15 % and 50 %;
- **Predominantly rural (PR)**, if the share of population living in rural LAU2 is higher than 50 %. (https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php?title=Urban-rural_typology&oldid=42414)

More info: <https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/rural-development/background>

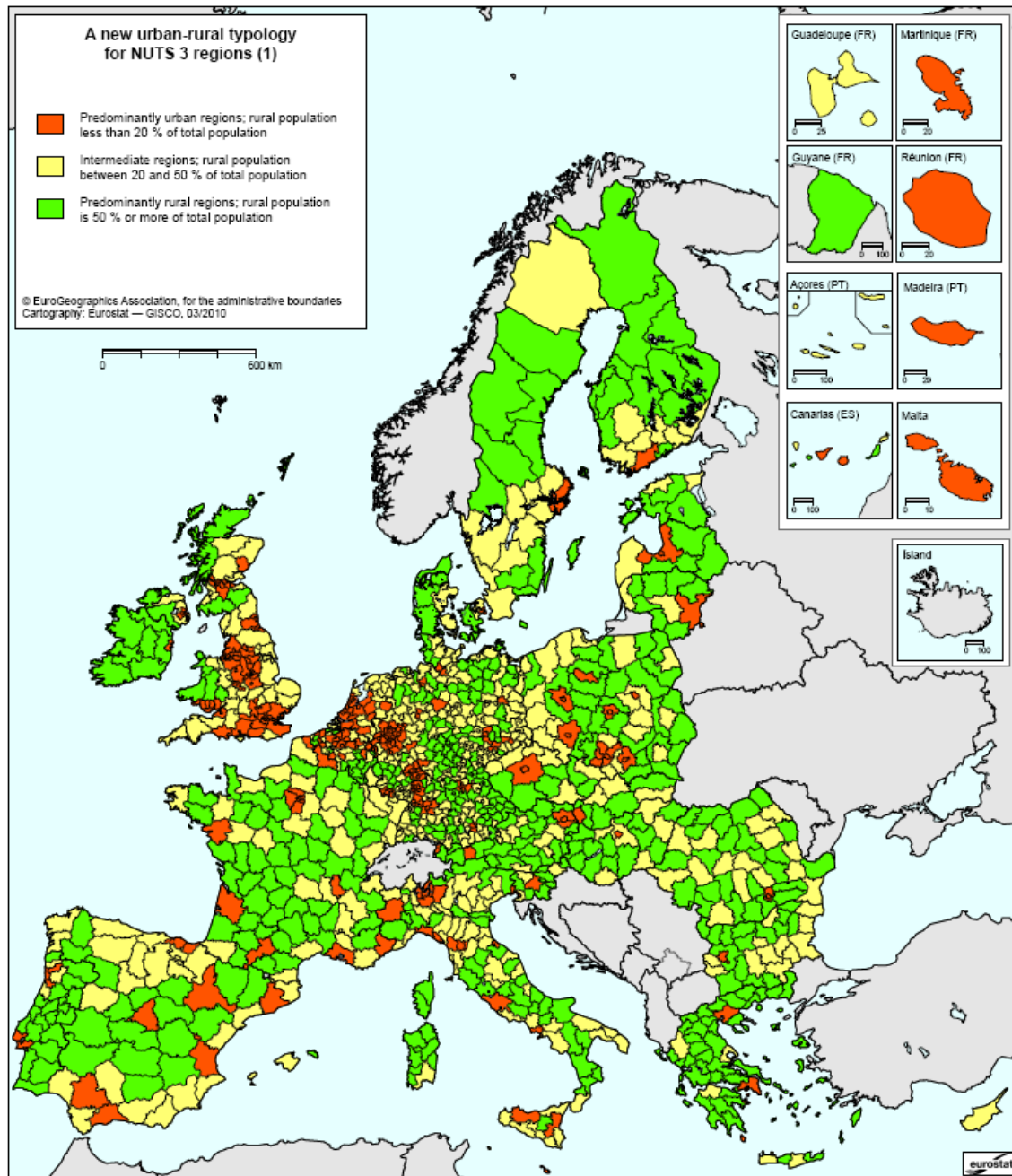
Maps and data: http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/cache/RCl/#?vis=urbanrural.urb_typology&lang=en

TABLE 3 – Principal features generally associated with rural areas based on spatial and functional issues

Predominantly rural regions	Significantly rural regions	Predominantly urban regions
high relative importance of agriculture	agriculture is the main form of land use	intensive agriculture
low productivity	variable productivity	high productivity
high biodiversity	fragmented habitats	urbanisation
shifts in land-use to forestry, tourism and non-farm activities	diversification away from farming	recreation
remote in time or space	stable/variable population	growth in traffic flows
decreasing and ageing population		increasing/stable population

Source: https://www.eea.europa.eu/ds_resolveuid/BT9IZCRU68

MAP 3. – A new rural-urban typology for NUTS 3 regions



(1) This typology is based on a definition of urban and rural 1 km² grid cells. Urban grid cells fulfil two conditions: 1) a population density of at least 300 inhabitants per km² and 2) a minimum population of 5 000 inhabitants in contiguous cells above the density threshold. The other cells are considered rural. Thresholds for the typology: 50% and 20% of the regional population in rural grid cells.

For Madeira, Açores and the French outermost regions, the population grid is not available. As a result, this typology uses the OECD classification for these regions.

Source : [https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php?title=Urban-rural typology&oldid=42414](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php?title=Urban-rural_typology&oldid=42414)

Metropolitan typology

Metropolies are classified according the following two classes:

- Metropolitan regions

- Non-metropolitan regions

More info: <http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/metropolitan-regions/overview>

Maps and data: <http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/cache/RCl/#?vis=metropolitan.gen&lang=en>

Coastal typology

- Classes:
 - Coastal regions
 - Non-coastal regions

More info: <http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/coastal-island-outermost-regions/methodology>

Maps and data: <http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/cache/RCl/#?vis=maritime.gen&lang=en>

EU Regulations contain full definitions and listings of all NUTS regions.

(https://ec.europa.eu/regional_policy/en/policy/what/glossary/n/nuts/)

➤ **LAUs**

Local administrative units (LAUs) are used to divide up the territory of the EU for the purpose of providing statistics at a local level. They are low level administrative divisions of a country below that of a province, region or state. Not all countries classify their locally governed areas in the same way and LAUs may refer to a range of different administrative units, including municipalities, communes, parishes or wards. It depends on the degree of urbanisation of local administrative units to define eligibility for European Regional Development Fund support to carry out innovative actions in cities or towns and suburbs.

Statistics for LAUs may be used to establish local typologies including the degree of urbanisation (cities; towns and suburbs; rural areas); functional urban areas (cities and their surrounding commuting zones); coastal areas (coastal and non-coastal areas).

The upper LAU level (LAU level 1, formerly NUTS level 4) is defined for most, but not all of the countries.

The lower LAU level (LAU level 2, formerly NUTS level 5) consists of municipalities or equivalent units in the 27 EU Member States

At local level (LAU):

Degree of urbanisation (DEGURBA)

Classes: Urban areas, Cities, Towns and suburbs, Rural areas

More info: <http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/degree-of-urbanisation/overview>

Maps and data: <http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/cache/RCl/#?vis=degurb.gen&lang=en>

Functional Urban Regions (FUR)

There is a trend towards spatial planning and territorial governance initiatives in functional areas across administrative boundaries. A functional region is a territorial unit resulting from the organisation of social and economic relations in that its boundaries do not reflect geographical particularities or historical events. It is thus a functional sub-division of territories that depicts “a mismatch between the statutory administrative structure for spatial planning and the variety of (regional) scale(s) of a wide set of spatially relevant societal problems” (ESPON, 2018). The most typical concept used in defining a functional region is that of labour markets (source: OECD). A rescaling of planning competences and new territorial governance arrangements are being established in ‘functional planning regions’ to address the reality of environmental, commuting, economic and other flows across borders such regions. According to the OECD, these areas are delineated according to commuting conditions, and often correspond to labour markets (local employment areas and commuting zones in metropolitan agglomeration). Functional regions are not always compatible with these higher-level or lower level territorial grids. They are defined by their organizational structure around a central or multiple nodes

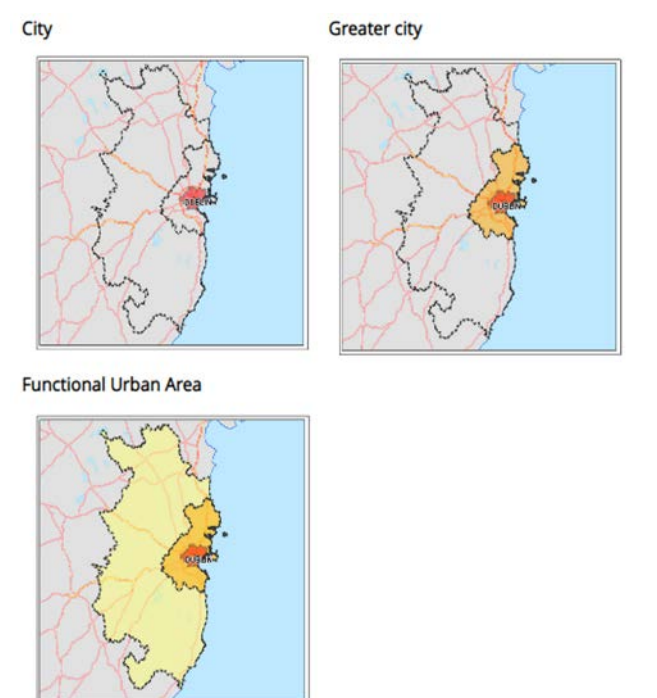
➤ **FUAs**

The **Functional Urban Area** consists of a city and its commuting zone. The commuting zone contains the surrounding travel-to-work areas of a city where at least 15 % of employed residents are working in a city. This was formerly known as larger urban zone (LUZ).

A **City** is a local administrative unit (LAU) where the majority of the population lives in an urban centre of at least 50 000 inhabitants.

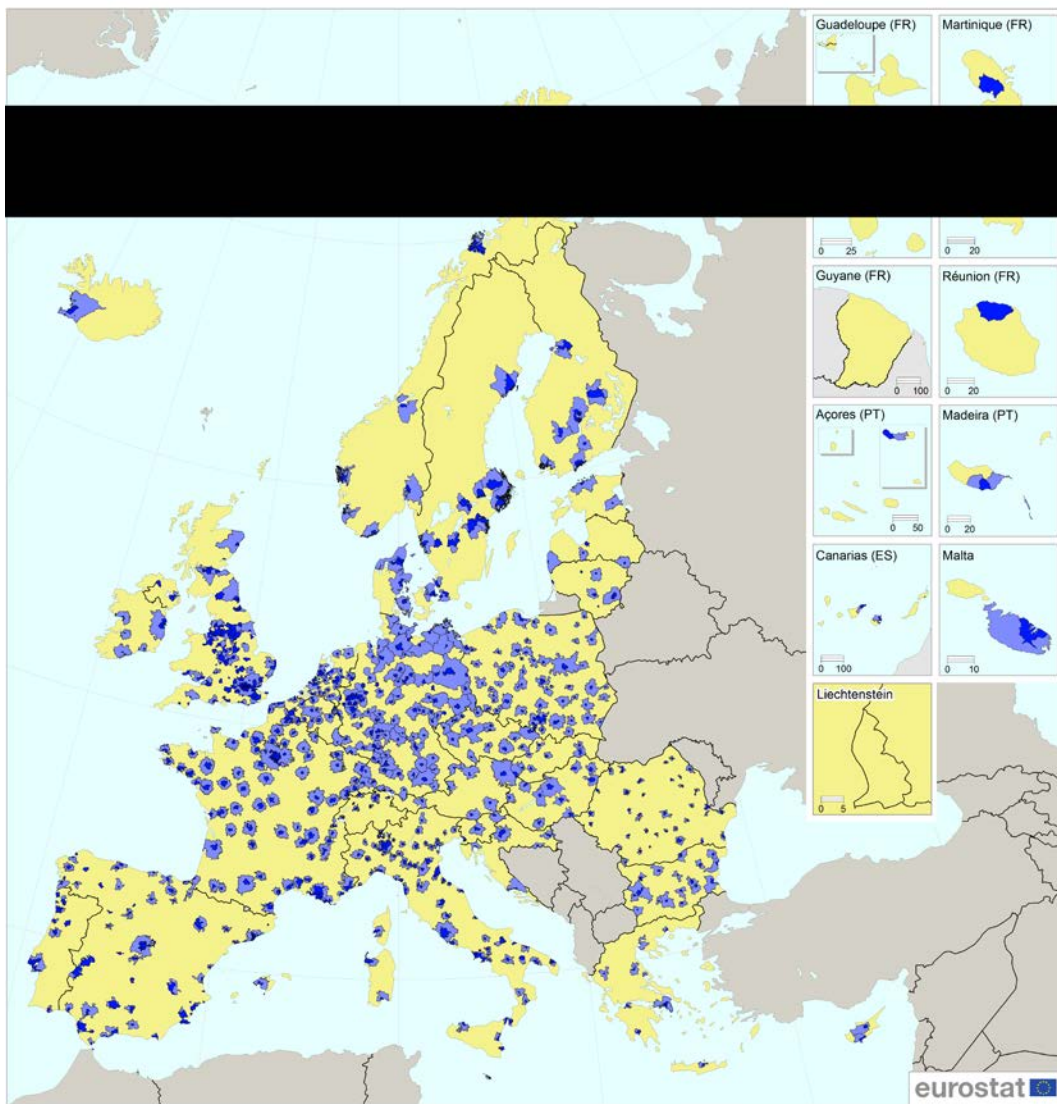
The **Greater city** is an approximation of the urban centre when this stretches far beyond the administrative city boundaries (see Maps 4, 5 and 6).


MAP 4 - Example of Spatial Levels for Dublin



Source: <https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/cities/spatial-units>

MAP 5 - Urban Audit cities and FUAs, 2012

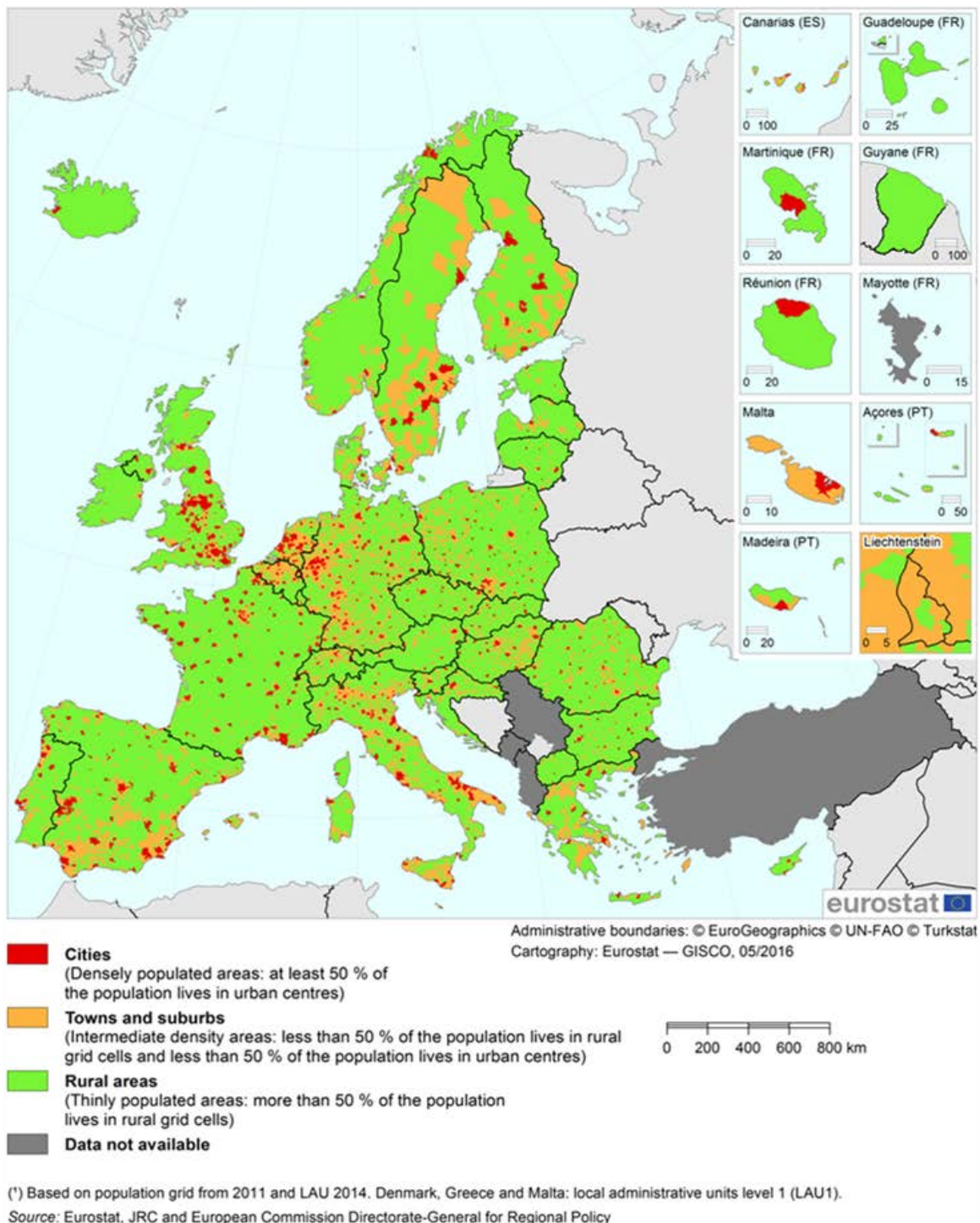


 City / Greater city

Administrative boundaries: © EuroGeographics © UN-FAO © Turkstat
 Cartography: Eurostat — GISCO, 06/2015

Source: https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/images/2/28/Urban_Audit_cities_and_Functional_urban_areas%2C_2012.png

MAP 6 - Degree of urbanisation for LAU level 2 areas



Source: https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/images/b/b0/Degree_of_urbanisation_for_LAU_level_2_areas_Map_2.png

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Topic 4 - Sustainable planning and governance in rural areas

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This topic describes the changing rural areas and the evolution towards an integrated planning approach. It explains the power of the relationship among rural actors and the sustainability aspects in urban-rural partnership. It tries to link land-use planning with rural development by explaining how to plan and draw rural space development based on integrated planning approach for sustainable management of land resources and on an interactive partnership between governments and people (bottom-up procedures).

Keywords: rural-urban partnerships, bottom-up endogenous development, rural heritage, natural protected areas

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4.1 The changing rural areas

Rural regions cover approximately 28% of the population (ESPON, 2020). They have undergone major changes mainly linked to the conversion of land at the expense of agriculture and natural areas. Urbanisation trends and environmental impacts of various policies at EU and national level concerning regional development, tourism, agriculture, forestry and transport have caused enormous changes in land use and landscape, environmental pollution, changing demographics, reduction in agricultural employment, biodiversity loss, and diversification of the rural economy.

Let's see some examples of policies that have impact on rural areas:

- Agricultural policies and farming practices have negative impacts on environmental resources and ecosystems such as soil and water, and nature/biodiversity because of the use of chemicals (deforestation, irrigation, pollutants-pesticides, soil degradation, waste).
- EU transport policies including the TransEuropean Networks (TENs) can potentially affect rural areas in both socio-economic and environmental terms. By creating or improving linkages between major urban or economic centres and dynamic regions, these networks could encourage the “emptying” of the countryside. Conversely, they could increase trends in commuting and actual migration of population into rural areas. Both of these trends have environmental consequences.
- EU regional policy instruments such as the Structural Funds also have positive impacts on rural areas in terms of specific economic and physical indicators such as water supply, transport and telecommunications in Less Favored Areas.
- Energy policies.
- Infrastructure and industrial activities.
- Tourism.

BOX 1 – Defining rural areas

Rural area / Countryside: Rural areas are sparsely settled areas without significant large city or town. The countryside refers to certain forms of landscapes and land uses where agriculture and natural areas play an important part. Rural areas are more and more diverse, as far as their economic base is concerned. While agriculture still plays an important part in numerous rural areas, other sources of income have developed such as rural tourism, small-scale manufacturing activities, residential economy (location of retirees), production of renewable energy, etc. Many rural areas are multifunctional and a number of them are under the influence of metropolitan areas and large cities as a result of ever improved transport and communication facilities.

Both the OECD and EUROSTAT define rural areas in terms of population density. For the OECD, rural areas are those with less than 150 inhabitants/sq. km while EUROSTAT uses a figure of 100 inhabitants/sq. km.

Rural development: Rural development is a specific aspect of territorial development. It originates in the fact that the industrial and urban society which has been prevailing in Europe for more than one century has left out from growth and development trends numerous rural areas, in particular the most remote and peripheral ones. Rural development has therefore become a priority of spatial development policies in most European States. In more recent years, a strong diversification of rural areas has however taken place in Europe, with some rural regions benefiting largely from the proximity of large

agglomerations, others from tourism and/or from the settlement of retirees, while a number of other rural areas are still facing constraints of remoteness and marginalisation leading to out-migration of the population. It results from this that the tasks related to rural development are rather diversified and largely depend upon the context and situation of the rural areas considered. They comprise measures such as the improvement of accessibility, of living conditions, of the environment, the conservation of cultural landscapes and of the cultural and natural heritage, the promotion of soft tourism, the encouragement of small and medium-sized towns as well as large villages to act as service suppliers for their rural hinterlands, the promotion of high-quality regional agricultural, forestry and craft products while adopting environmentally-friendly production practices.

Rural development pole: A rural development pole is an inhabited, significantly rural area where the social, economic and territorial evolutions are led within the framework of an integrated and prospective development plan. A rural pole is not an agglomeration, but a rural territory as a whole, which may include one or more small towns. The territorial development plan determines the objectives of results in short, medium and long terms. It specifies the guidelines for development, the human and material means to achieve the results targeted. The civil society, public and private actors must be partner for its development and its assessment.

Source: *CEMAT Terminology*

4.1.1. Rural, mountainous and remote areas

EU stresses the importance of rural, mountainous and remote areas for balanced territorial development in Europe and the need to strengthen them by addressing their specific needs through EU policies. The EU Agenda for Rural, Mountainous and Remote Areas aims to promote socioeconomic development, economic growth and diversification, social wellbeing, protection of nature, and cooperation and interconnection with urban areas in order to foster cohesion and prevent the risk of territorial fragmentation; urges the establishment of a Smart Villages Pact, with a view to ensuring a more effective, integrated and coordinated approach to EU policies with an impact on rural areas, involving all levels of government, in accordance with the principle of subsidiarity.

BOX 2 - The Agenda for Rural, Mountainous and Remote Areas (European Parliament 2014-2019)

The specific needs of these areas:

1. *“Asks, furthermore, for this EU Agenda for Rural, Mountainous and Remote Areas to incorporate a strategic framework for the development of rural, mountainous and remote areas, coordinated with strategies aimed at lagging and peripheral regions, in order to meet the objectives of rural proofing, smart villages, access to public services, digitalisation, training and innovation; calls, moreover, for smart cooperation and partnerships between rural and urban poles to be reinforced in order to rebalance the rural-urban relationship;*
2. *Encourages rural areas and communities to develop projects such as smart villages, building on their existing strengths and assets and developing new opportunities, such as decentralised services, energy solutions, and digital technologies and innovations;*
3. *Emphasises the need to support the further development of rural tourism and mountain agritourism while preserving the specificities of these areas, for example*

traditions and traditional local products, since tourism has a major social, economic and cultural impact;

4. *Underlines the potential of mountainous volcanic regions and volcanoes, in particular in terms of the contribution of volcanology to the achievement of renewable energy targets and to the prevention and management of natural disasters, such as volcanic eruptions;*

5. *Calls on the Commission to include in the future legislative proposals provisions addressing the specificities of these areas and to provide for adequate funding, especially from the European Structural and Investment Funds, for cohesion policy post 2020;*

6. *Stresses that the European Agricultural Fund for Rural Development (EAFRD) contributes significantly to economic and social cohesion, in particular in rural areas, and has an important territorial dimension; recommends, therefore, that EAFRD spending continue to be linked with cohesion policy, also with a view to facilitating integrated and complementary funding and to simplifying procedures for beneficiaries, so that regions can draw from different EU sources in order to optimise funding opportunities and invest in rural areas;”*

Source: EU Agenda for Rural, Mountainous and Remote Areas

4.1.2. Sustainable rural-urban partnerships

Some of the main challenges that rural space is facing have to do with the negative social and environmental consequences of urban development (Urban Sprawl) and strong rural/agricultural land pressure whereas in remote rural areas there are difficulties in accessing social services (rural inequalities, rural poor, urban migration, demographic problems). At the same time there are quite dynamic small and medium-sized cities in the rural areas, metropolitan regions and their peri-urban rural area and sparsely populated areas with market towns.

Rural areas face multiple problems and a truly integrated approach to development must go beyond intra-city policy coordination and traditional rural issues. Urban and rural areas are increasingly integrated through several linkages and the space considered for governing these relationships should be flexible. The integration with surrounding areas, both urban and rural, needs also to be considered as they often have complementary assets. Rural-urban partnerships describe the cooperation that manages several functional linkages and cooperation between rural and urban areas (demographic, economic, environmental amenities, service provision and other governance interactions). https://ec.europa.eu/regional_policy/en/policy/what/territorial-cohesion/urban-rural-linkages/

The benefits of stronger urban-rural cooperation include more efficient land use and planning, better provision of services (e.g. public transport, health) and better management of natural resources. Therefore Rural-Urban Partnerships are seen as a possible “tool” with **multiple** and **flexible** governance solutions *in order to create a bridge between regional policy, rural development policy* and other policies. According to RURBAN (Partnership for sustainable urban-rural development), which is a preparatory action agreed by the European Parliament in 2010 and managed by the European Commission, the general objectives are:

- ✓ to identify and assess formal and informal partnership practices for towns/cities and rural areas

- ✓ to enhance the role that these partnerships can play in **regional “sustainable” development** and in bridging the coordination gap in policies form urban and rural dwellers
- ✓ to analyse the form and the functions of these partnerships to promote territorial multilevel governance

BOX 3 - Defining Urban sprawl and rural-urban interactions

Urban sprawl: Urban sprawl is the unplanned, uncontrolled spreading of urban development into areas adjoining the edge of a city. The term is also used to designate the expansive, rapid and sometimes reckless growth of a greater metropolitan area over a large area. Urban sprawl is characterised by several land-use patterns such as single-use zoning (commercial, residential, industrial), car-depending communities, low-density land-use but larger scale of development than older established areas (wider roads, larger stores with expansive parking lots) and lack of diversity in design, sometimes creating a sense of uniform urban environment.

Rural-urban interactions can be defined as linkages across space (such as flows of people, goods, money, information and wastes) and linkages between sectors (for example between agriculture and services and manufacturing). In broad terms, they also include “rural” activities taking place in urban centres (such as urban agriculture) and activities often classified as “urban”, such as manufacturing and services) taking place in rural settlements. In recent decades, urban-rural interactions have intensified throughout Europe, in terms of commuter flows, recreation and leisure activities, settlement of former urban dwellers in rural areas, location of formerly urban functions and activities in rural areas, etc. In other words, the urban influence of cities on rural areas has increased. Rural-urban linkages are important to achieve balanced economic development and to reduce vulnerability of less favoured rural regions. Rural-urban interactions have often critical influences on natural resources use and management, especially in the peri-urban interface. In order to promote harmonious territorial development, urban-rural partnerships are being set up between urban and rural communities (generally represented by local authorities but also involving NGOs and the civil society) aiming at providing services, protecting natural and environmental resources, favouring regular contacts between urban and rural communities, developing economic synergies, etc.

Source: CEMAT Terminology

4.1.3. Bottom-up or endogenous process of local development in rural areas

The transition from government of rural areas towards processes of governance has helped bottom-up approaches to flourish, especially those supposed to empower rural populations in relation to disabling structures of top-down government control. This approach means that there is an increasing involvement of local actors, in partnerships with government, participation of citizens and stakeholders. Moreover, collective or collaborative/cooperative approaches enhance dialogue between multiple actors (localism) and the link between community development and local governance systems.

LEADER initiative and the approach of “Community-Led Local Development – CLLD”, is a local development method which has been used for 20 years to engage local actors in the design and delivery of strategies, decision-making and resource allocation for the development of their rural areas. CLLD are bottom-up local development initiatives for

specific sub-regional territories that are implemented by the local community through public-private partnership. They should be implemented by a **local action group (LAG)** composed of representatives of public and private local socio-economic interests and taking over some tasks of the managing authorities like project assessment and selection. The CLLD is carried out through sub-regional and multi-sectoral development strategies and can provide financing for preparatory support, management costs and cooperation activities of the LAG, for running costs and animation of the local development strategy as well as for implementing related operations (including physical investments). The CLLD can be financed from several operational programmes and pool funds from all CSF funds.

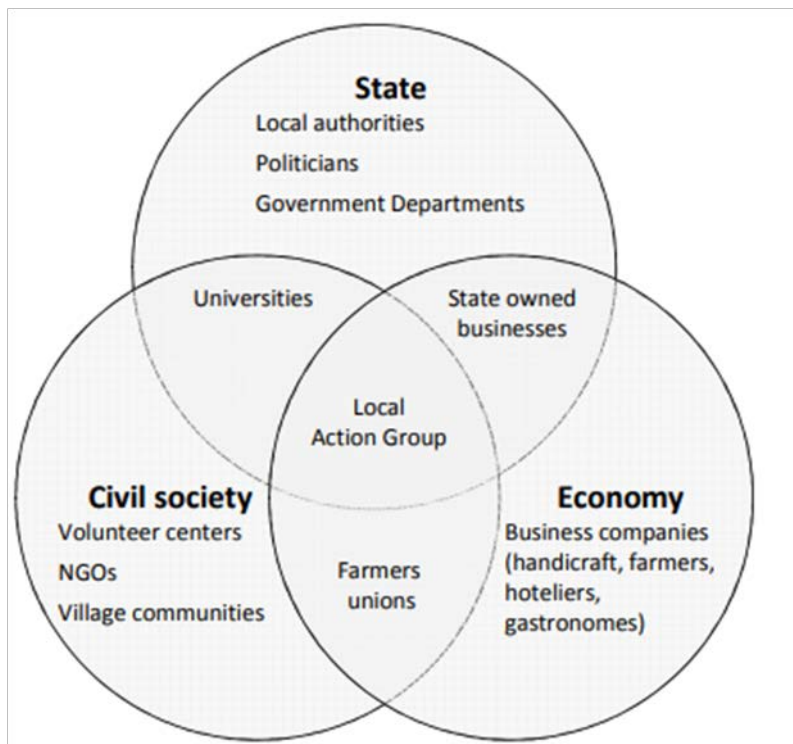
It is implemented by around **2 600 Local Action Groups (LAGs)**, covering over 54% of the rural population in the EU and bringing together public, private and civil-society stakeholders of particular areas (https://enrd.ec.europa.eu/leader-clld_en).

The bottom-up approach in LEADER “*aims to encourage a process of local participation in every aspect of development policy. The involvement of local players is sought at all levels, either through consultation or by involving them in the partnership. It is aimed at the whole community, promoters of ideas and projects, the civic and voluntary sector, economic and social interest groups and representative public and private institutions. Participation is encouraged at every stage: during the definition phase, during implementation, during evaluation and the revision of the programme – either directly or through those bodies representing collective interests (professional organisations, women’s’ groups, cultural associations, etc.)*” (https://enrd.ec.europa.eu/sites/enrd/files/leaderii_teaching-kit_booklet-chap4.pdf)

In the Rural Development policy context¹ of the EU, LEADER is implemented under the national and regional Rural Development Programs (RDPs) drawn up by countries and regions of each EU Member State, setting out strategic approaches and actions to meet the needs of the specific geographical area they cover. The program is co-financed from the European Agricultural Fund for Rural Development (EAFRD).

¹ It is referred to as the ‘second pillar’ of the EU’s Common Agricultural Policy (CAP), complementing the system of direct payments to farmers and measures to manage agricultural markets (namely the “first pillar”). (https://enrd.ec.europa.eu/policy-in-action/policy-framework_en).

FIGURE 1 - Groups of actors in a rural governance arrangement



Source: Pollermann et al., (2014)

4.2 The cultural and natural diversity of rural areas

Rural areas are extremely diverse in nature and character and landscapes are increasingly perceived as complex entities, not only from a bio-physical point of view, but also from social, economic and political perspectives. So rural heritage is seen both as a natural and cultural asset (built, natural, intangible).

4.2.1. Rural space as cultural heritage

The concept of rural space is rather broad and by no means limited to primary sector, i.e. the production of agricultural products. It has historical and sociological dimensions and it is connected with cultural practices that are deeply rooted in time. It encompasses a wide gamut of cultural experiences, a lasting stock of intangible cultural heritage. These cultural expressions were initially formed by preindustrial societies and they have been imbued by their values, but they were transformed over time, and they have acquired a new meaning.

According to the Convention for the Safeguarding of Intangible Cultural Heritage (UNESCO, 2003) the main domains of ICH are: **a.** oral traditions and expressions (tales, myths, storytelling, narrations, epic poems etc.) including language, but not as an element per se, rather as a vehicle for intangible cultural heritage **b.** performing arts (dance, music and songs, folk theatre, etc.) **c.** social practices, rituals and festive events (folk rituals, customs in the annual cycle and customs for the main life events of the people, etc.) **d.** knowledge and practices concerning nature and the universe (ethnobotanical knowledge, folk meteorology, etc.) **e.** traditional craftsmanship such as traditional arts (weaving, pottery-making, vernacular architecture, vernacular boatbuilding, etc.) and handicrafts (embroidery, etc).

As a cultural good, rural space in general includes both tangible and intangible heritage elements (Hellenic Ministry of Culture and Sports Directorate of Modern Cultural Heritage, 2018:6):

- ✓ **“rural landscape**, as it is shaped by the interaction of people with the environment, the development of productive activities and traditional farming landscapes (agricultural production, livestock farming etc.) and of traditional arts and crafts (vernacular architecture, drystone walling etc.) and in general the historical configuration of various experiences of habitation (planning of residential areas, designation of sacred areas, land plots etc.),
- ✓ **agri-food traditions** (cultivation knowledge and techniques, livestock farming, cheese making, fishing etc.) which are still practiced in rural spaces and which are almost always linked to long-held identities and cultural structures,
- ✓ **traditional craftsmanship and arts**, techniques, expertise and professions that were historically and specifically (but not exclusively) linked to the rural space (vernacular shipbuilding, vernacular architecture etc.),
- ✓ **customs and cultural practices**, feasts, festivals, which are also strongly linked to local identities and the sense of belonging in a place,
- ✓ **tourism** might also include cultural heritage: archeological sites, traditional villages and rural architectural heritage: houses and churches, crafts and embroidery, folk and religious music and festivals, local food processing and culinary skills, and so on).

BOX 4 - Example of the Greek rural landscape as a cultural good

Olives, wheat, grapevines, the trinity that shapes the land and the history of the Mediterranean are the most prominent features of the Greek rural landscape, since they are linked to the productive identity of this land. Markets, bazaars, squares, threshing floors, wellsprings and fountains, local management systems of natural resources (of forests, of water, of vegetation etc.), pastures, paths, drystone terraces, masterpieces of vernacular architecture, humble rural buildings and many festivals, festivities and feasts -“panegyria”, along with local culinary traditions compose a cluster of material and intangible cultural expressions thus forming productive identities deeply rooted in space and time.

Source: Hellenic Ministry of Culture and Sports Directorate of Modern Cultural Heritage (2018:7)

4.2.2. Rural space as natural heritage

According to UNESCO (Convention Concerning the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage, 1972), natural heritage includes natural features, geological and physiographical formations and delineated areas that constitute the habitat of threatened species of animals and plants and natural sites of value from the point of view of science, conservation or natural beauty. It includes nature parks and reserves, zoos, aquaria and botanical gardens.

Nature conservation is achieved through several protected areas on international, European, or national protected Areas systems through conventions, directives, laws, initiatives e.g. Natura 2000 sites, biogenetics reserves, RAMSAR sites, biosphere reserves, national parks, nature monuments, wildlife sanctuaries, controlled hunting areas, mountain protection zones, national forest codes, planning documents etc).

European level

- ✓ **Natura 2000 network:** Natura 2000 is a network of core breeding and resting sites for rare and threatened species, as well as for some rare natural habitat types which are protected in their own right. It stretches across all 27 EU countries, both on land (~18% of EU land area) and at sea (~8% of EU marine area). The aim of the network is to ensure the long-term survival of Europe's most valuable and threatened species and habitats that are listed under the Birds Directive and the Habitats Directive. Its structure provides for management systems integrating nature protection with various other (economic) activities (<https://land.copernicus.eu/local/natura>).
- ✓ **Birds Directive (2009/147/EC):** The overall aim of the Directive is to protect all of the 500 wild bird species naturally occurring in the European Union. Thus, the Directive places great emphasis on the protection of habitats for endangered and migratory species. It does so by establishing a network of Special Protection Areas (SPAs), including all the most suitable territories for these species. Since 1994, all SPAs are included in the Natura 2000 ecological network.
(https://ec.europa.eu/environment/nature/legislation/birdsdirective/index_en.htm)
- ✓ **Habitats Directive (92/43/EEC):** The overall aim of the Directive is the conservation of natural habitats and of wild fauna and flora through the promotion and maintenance of biodiversity, taking account of economic, social, cultural and regional requirements. The Habitats Directive ensures the conservation of a wide range of rare, threatened or endemic animal and plant species, plus 200 rare and characteristic habitat types that are also targeted for conservation in their own right (https://ec.europa.eu/environment/nature/legislation/habitatsdirective/index_en.htm). https://ec.europa.eu/environment/nature/info/pubs/directives_en.htm
- ✓ **Convention on the Conservation of European Wildlife and Natural Habitats (Bern Convention):** Is a regional Convention, sponsored by the Council of Europe, that aims to conserve wild flora and fauna and their natural habitats, as well as to promote European co-operation in this field. The convention also takes account of the impact that other policies may have on natural heritage and recognises the intrinsic value of wild flora and fauna, which needs to be preserved and passed to future generations. It also introduces an ecological network made up of Areas of Special Conservation Interest, known as the “Emerald Network”. The objective of this network is the long term survival of the species and habitats of the Bern Convention requiring specific protection measures.
(<https://www.coe.int/en/web/bern-convention/presentation>
<https://www.coe.int/en/web/bern-convention/emerald-network>)
- ✓ **European Landscape Convention:** Is a another regional Convention, sponsored by the Council of Europe, that aims to promote protection, management and planning of European landscapes, both outstanding and ordinary. It applies to

the entire territory of the Parties and covers natural, rural, urban and peri-urban areas. It also includes land, inland water and marine areas.

- ✓ **Integrated Coastal Management (ICZM).** ICZM is a new initiative of the Commission adopted on 12 March 2013 on Maritime Spatial Planning and Integrated Coastal Management. It is a long term management tool for the sustainable development of coastal zones that treats several environmental degradation problems of the coastal ecosystems caused by population growth and excessive exploitation of natural resource (e.g. biodiversity loss, habitats destruction, pollution, conflicts between potential uses, and space congestion problems), as well as by climate change and natural hazards (flooding, erosion, sea level rise, extreme weather events). This is aimed through the coordinated application of the different policies affecting the coastal zone and related to activities such as nature protection, aquaculture, fisheries, agriculture, industry, off shore wind energy, shipping, tourism, development of infrastructure and mitigation and adaptation to climate change. It will contribute by the application of an approach that respects the limits of natural resources and ecosystems, the so-called 'ecosystem based approach'. Integrated coastal management covers the full cycle of information collection, planning, decision-making, management and monitoring of implementation. It is important to involve all stakeholders across the different sectors to ensure broad support for the implementation of management strategies.

(https://ec.europa.eu/environment/iczm/index_en.htm)

- ✓ **Integrated Water Resources Management – IWRM.** The importance of water in the landscape has been underpinned foremost by the European Union Water Framework Directive (2000/60). According to this directive IWRM was defined as: “A process which promotes the coordinated development and management of water, land and related resources in order to maximise the resultant economic and social welfare in an equitable manner without compromising the sustainability of vital ecosystems [...] It incorporates the principles of: a) integration of land- and water-use planning, a) cross-sectoral cooperation, c) environmental sustainability, d) economic efficiency, e) social equity, f) stakeholder participation..” (WWF, 2006:6).

International treaties and initiatives

- ✓ **Ramsar Convention on Wetlands.** It is the oldest of the modern global intergovernmental environmental agreements (came into force in 1975). Its mission is “the conservation and wise use of all wetlands through local and national actions and international cooperation, as a contribution towards achieving sustainable development throughout the world” (<https://www.ramsar.org/about/the-ramsar-convention-and-its-mission>)
- ✓ **UNESCO Man and the Biosphere (MAB) Programme:** The MAB programme is an intergovernmental programme that aims to establish a scientific basis for enhancing the relationship between people and their environments. It combines the natural and social sciences with a view to improving human livelihoods and safeguarding natural and managed ecosystems, thus promoting innovative approaches to economic development that are socially and culturally appropriate and environmentally sustainable. Through this programme the World Network of Biosphere Reserves has been created. Currently 701 sites in 124 countries all over the world, including 21 transboundary sites are participating in the network. (<https://en.unesco.org/mab>)

- ✓ **UNESCO World Heritage List and UNESCO World Heritage in Danger List:** These two lists are created in the framework of the UNESCO Convention Concerning the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage. The first one contains sites that must be of outstanding universal value and meet at least one out of ten selection criteria, while the second one is designed to inform the international community of conditions which threaten the very characteristics for which a property was inscribed on the World Heritage List, and to encourage corrective action.
- ✓ **UNESCO Global Geoparks:** Is a global initiative of UNESCO that lists single, unified geographical areas where sites and landscapes of international geological significance are managed with a holistic concept of protection, education and sustainable development. Their bottom-up approach of combining conservation with sustainable development while involving local communities is becoming increasingly popular (<http://www.unesco.org/new/en/natural-sciences/environment/earth-sciences/unesco-global-geoparks/>).

National level regulatory frameworks

There are several regulatory documents such as national forest codes, planning and zoning documents, and regulations for management and protection areas that according to IUCN methodology are categorized as such: national parks, protected areas, nature reserves, wilderness areas, national monuments features, habitat/ species management areas, protected landscapes, inland water protected areas, sacred natural sites etc. (maps can be accessed here:

<https://www.eea.europa.eu/data-and-maps/explore-interactive-maps/european-protected-areas-1>,

IUCN categories: <https://www.iucn.org/theme/protected-areas/about/protected-area-categories>)

4.3 Planning and Management of Land Resources in the Rural Development Context

According to FAO, “planning and management of land resources are integral parts of any rural development programme with both rural and urban components. Land use does not consider agricultural uses only but also encompasses natural areas, forests, watercourses and urban areas among others” (<http://www.fao.org/3/x3810e/x3810e05.htm>). An integrated and interactive approach to land-use planning of rural areas may provide sustainable and integrated rural development and natural resource conservation and should cover all uses of land. It is characterized as sustainable as long as it combines: a) economic growth and social progress which is sustainable in the future, not only for the present but also the coming generation and b) economic development with protection of the environment and social justice. Integrated rural development refers to an “approach that will take into account multiple factors such as widespread poverty, poor health conditions, illiteracy, exploitation, inequitable distribution of land and other assets and lack of rural infrastructure and public utility in devising a comprehensive strategy to foster development in rural areas (FAO, <http://www.sociologydiscussion.com/india/rural-development/rural-development-in-india-sociology/13519>). As we already discussed in the previous topics, it is connected with decentralization of planning and the so-called “development from below” including the participation of the rural population and multiple stakeholders.

Rural space is multifunctional (agriculture is just one aspect in the development process and socio-economic structure) so in order to plan rural areas we need to take into account the wider range of land uses. Therefore **land-use planning of rural areas** must take into account spatial planning and legal and regulatory framework at several levels (international, national, regional, local) that treat multiple socio-economic and environmental issues. It must be therefore seen as a 'Horizontal action' that promotes geographical integration of sectoral policies:

- Integrated Coastal Zone Management - ICZM
- Integrated Water Resources Management – IWRM
- Environmental planning and Management of protected areas
- Protect and enhance natural and cultural landscapes/heritage
- Upgraded built environment
- Risk and disaster management
- Agricultural policies
- Urban Infrastructure, energy networks and services
- Housing/ urban growth assessment
- Road and transportation
- Population studies and socio-economic planning
- National land-use policies that establish the general framework for land use and local and sub-national land-use plans and policies (urban management and implementation plans)
- Regulation of Land Use and Land Tenure (regulating rights, access and control of land)

Local land-use policies must also be studied for their impact on changing demographic trends and settlement patterns, natural (forest and open space) and urbanized areas through regulation and protection. In order to observe, analyse and present the main trends in rural areas it is therefore important to **map land-use and land-cover changes**.

Land use: *how people use the land from a socioeconomic point of view (e.g. agriculture, forestry, recreation or residential use)*

Land cover: *relates to biophysical land cover (e.g. crops, forests or built areas)*

Some of the most common map inventories at a pan-European level are:

- ✓ **CORINE Land Cover (CLC):** It is an inventory of land cover that was initiated in 1990 (last updated in 2018) and has a wide variety of applications, underpinning various Community policies in the domains of environment, but also agriculture, transport, spatial planning etc
- ✓ **Urban Atlas:** The Urban Atlas provides pan-European comparable land use and land cover data for Functional Urban Areas (FUA) covering EU28 + EFTA countries + West Balkans + Turkey for the years 2006 and 2012). It is important to note that during this period there has been an expansion and/or shrinkage of the boundaries of some of FUAs defined by Eurostat therefore corresponding change layers (2006-2012) might not match in many cases (<https://land.copernicus.eu/local/urban-atlas>)

BOX 5 - Land resources

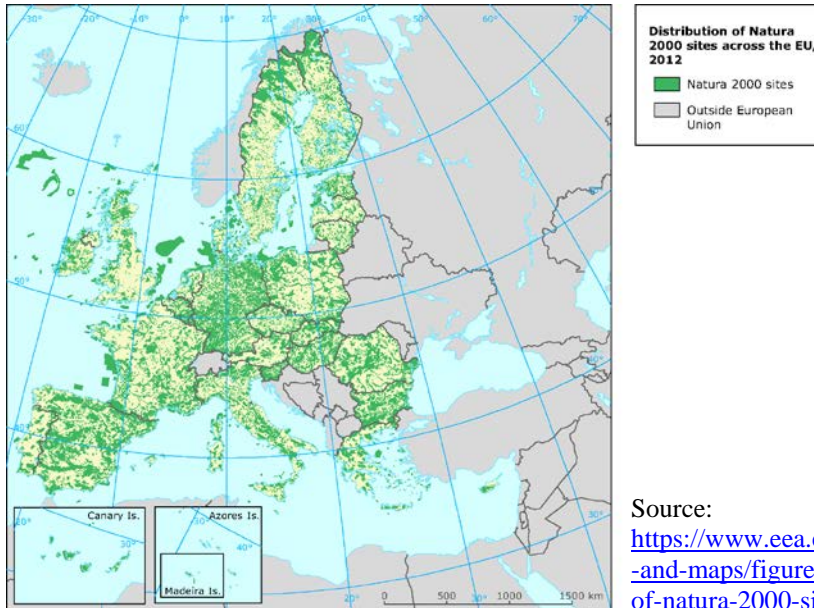
The broad objective is to facilitate allocation of land to the uses that provide the greatest sustainable benefits and to promote the transition to a sustainable and integrated management of land resources. Protected areas, private property rights, the rights of indigenous peoples and their communities and other local communities and the economic role of women in agriculture and rural development, among other issues, should be taken into account.

The following specific needs are identified:

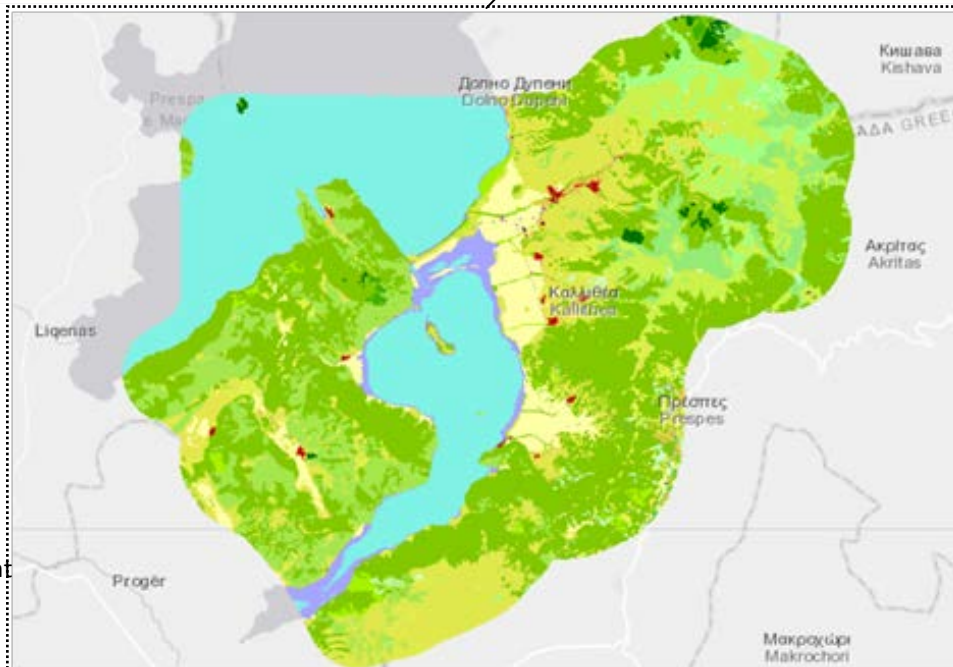
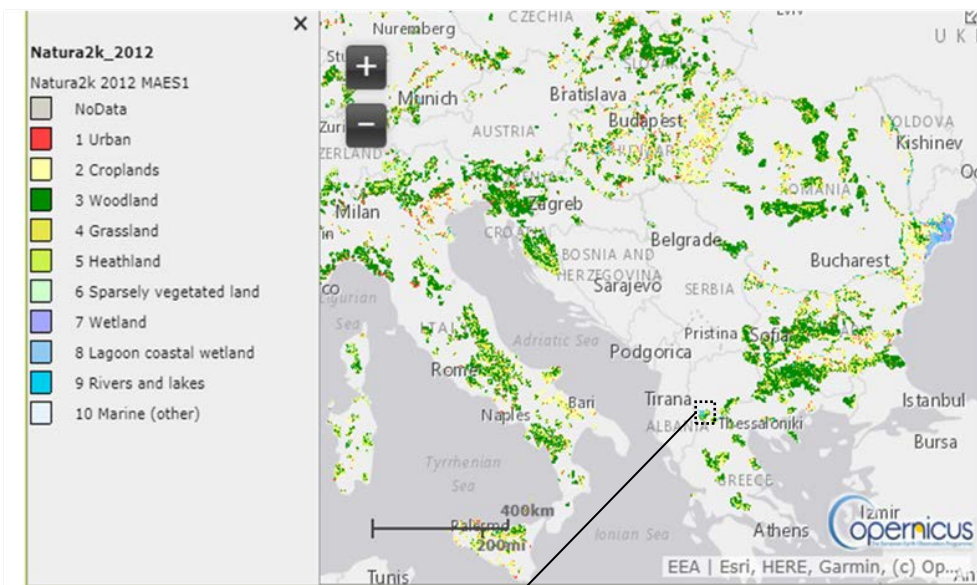
- The need to develop policies which will result in the best use and sustainable management of land.
- The need to improve and strengthen planning, management monitoring and evaluation systems.
- The need to strengthen institutions and coordinating mechanisms.
- The need to create mechanisms to facilitate the active involvement and participation of communities and people at local level.

Source: Agenda 21

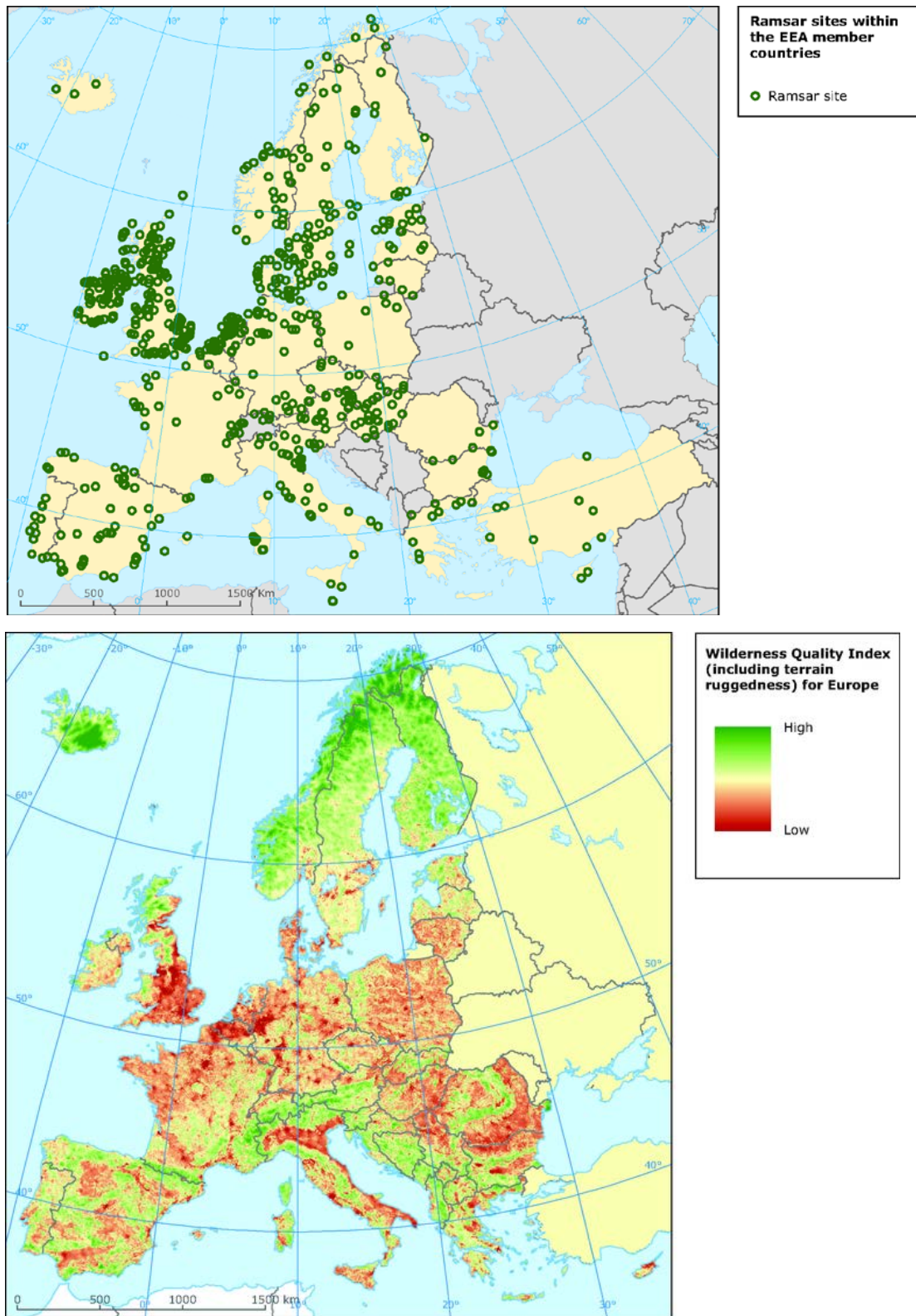
MAP 1: Natura 2000 network in Europe (2012) and the area of Prespes.



Source:
<https://www.eea.europa.eu/data-and-maps/figures/distribution-of-natura-2000-sites-3>



MAP 2 - Ramsar sites within the EEA member countries 2000 network in Europe

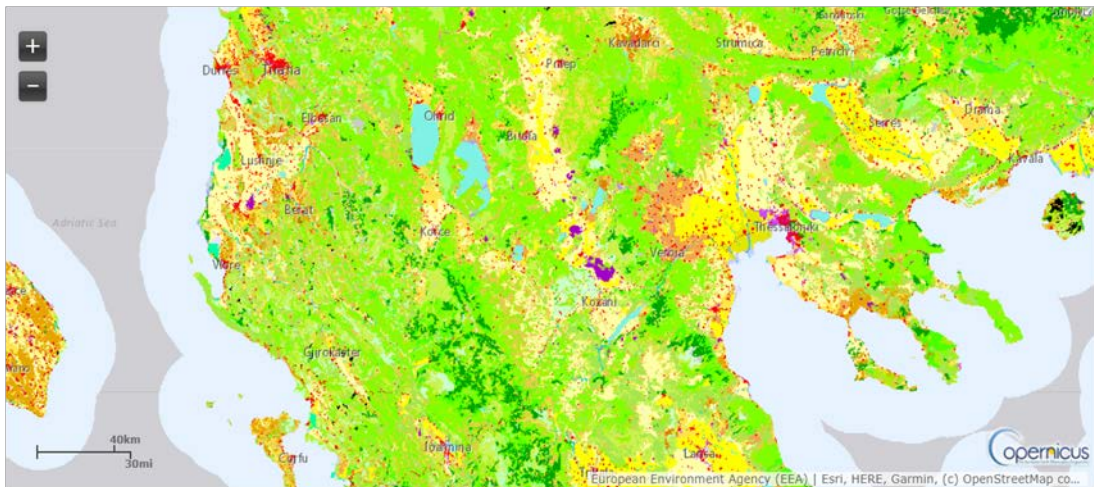


Source: (Up) <https://www.eea.europa.eu/data-and-maps/figures/map-of-distribution-of-ramsar-sites-within-the-eea-member-countries-open-circles-indicating-sites-designated-to-protect-threatened-species-green>

(Down)

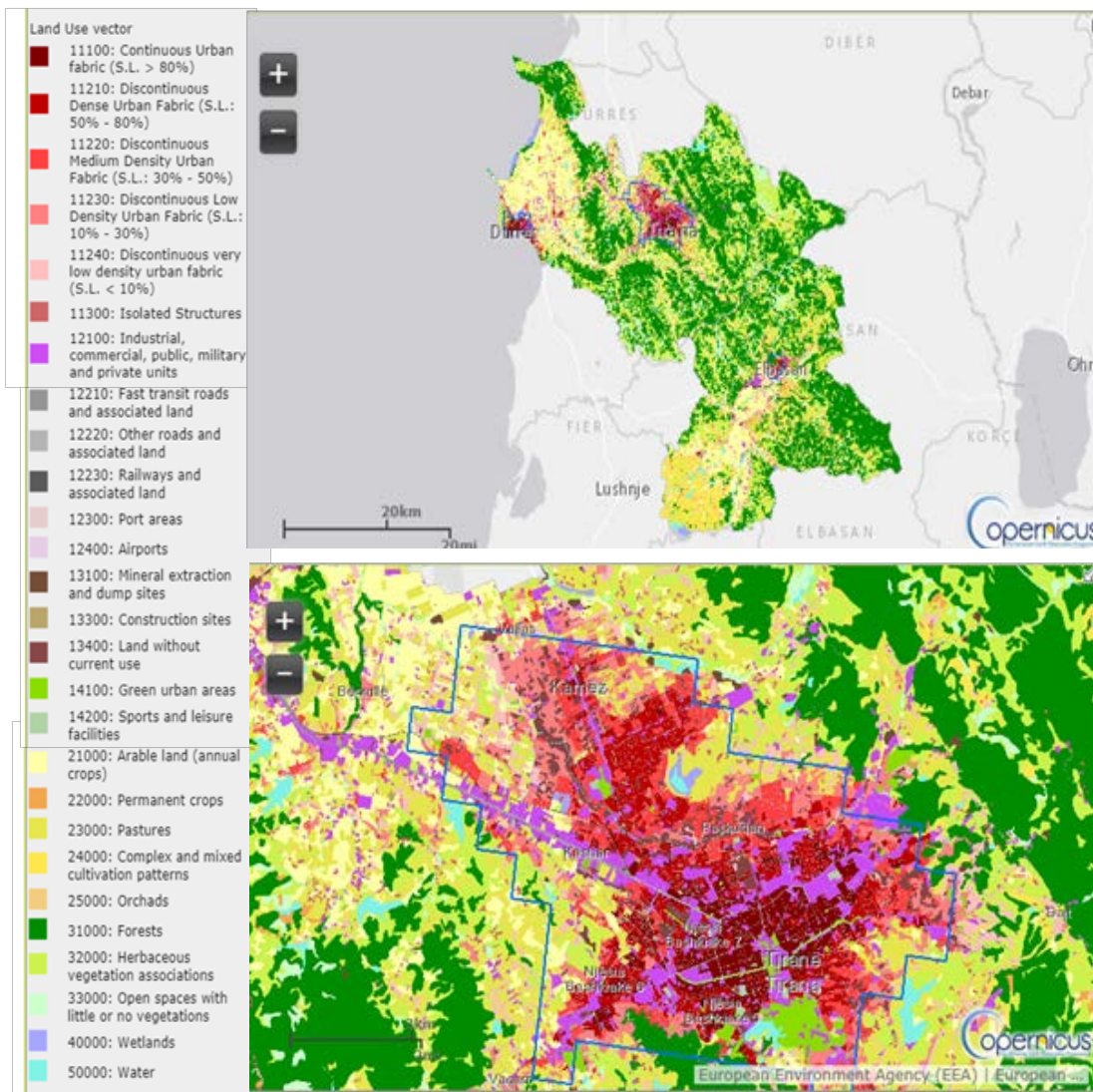
https://www.eea.europa.eu/data-and-maps/figures/wilderness-quality-index/wilderness-quality-index-including-terrain/image_large

MAP 3 - Corine LandCover in Europe (Albania-Greece)



Source: Corine LandCover, 2018, <https://land.copernicus.eu/local/urban-atlas/urban-atlas>

MAP 4 – Land uses in Albania



Source: Urban Atlas, 2012, <https://land.copernicus.eu/local/urban-atlas/urban-atlas-2012>

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Topic 5 – The institutional framework of European spatial policies

Contributor: Elias Beriatos, University of Thessaly

This topic has three aims: to introduce to the students the evolution of environmental and spatial planning policies in Europe, to analyze the main goals and objectives of the European framework for a balanced and sustainable spatial development and to combine and articulate the various sectoral policies at territorial level. Following a comprehensive introduction on the concept of spatial planning and its linkages with territorial governance in the previous Topic 3, students now get familiar with the wider institutional framework of the European dimension of spatial planning and understand the key evolutionary steps and recent developments that led to its current institutional reality.

Keywords: ESDP, spatial planning, spatial development, European Union, Council of Europe, landscape.

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5.1. Brief history of Spatial planning in Europe

Spatial planning policy on a European level started at the beginning of the post war period, when the Council of Europe (CoE) and the European Economic Community (EEC) were established. In the initial phase, countries as those of BENELUX (Belgium, Netherlands, Luxemburg) as well as France and Germany played a significant role. In mid '50s The Netherlands elaborates the first transnational spatial planning document (*Western European Territory-1955*) and in cooperation with the two other countries of the BENELUX, establishes the Permanent Conference on Regional Planning in N-W Europe (PCRPP).

In the framework of the CoE, the above mentioned countries elaborated a new document called "*Spatial Planning, a European Problem*" which serves as a scientific base for the establishment of what will be later called in French as the "Conférence Européenne de Ministres de l' Aménagement du Territoire" (CEMAT). A few years later(1984), in the Spanish city of Torremolinos, is born the first document of spatial planning of pan-European level, having a significant symbolic value (though not legally binding): the *European Spatial Planning Charter*.

In late '80s a new dynamic trend for European spatial planning is developed within the frame of the EEC. Various studies and research projects are elaborated by national scientific institutions, as for instance DATAR (Délégation à l'aménagement du territoire et à l'action régionale) as well as by the European Commission. These studies are dealing with the analysis of Europe's territory in an effort to find the appropriate concept for a spatial model of the European space. This model was mainly expressed by the so called four spatial scenarios: a) The European banana, b) the European blue star c) the European green grape and d) European house with seven apartments.

In 1989, an informal meeting of the EEC spatial planning Ministers, decides the elaboration of a spatial plan of the European space within until the end of '90s. Right next year the Commission establishes the Committee of Spatial Development (CSD), a body of experts and technocrats from all EEC countries, which serves as scientific and technical support to the ministers of spatial planning in view of their task. This new document was called "European Spatial Development Perspectives" (ESDP) or "Schema Directeur de l'Espace Communautaire" (SDEC) in French. Ten years later (1999) in Potsdam the ESDP has been officially approved.

Next year (2000) in Hannover, Germany, the Council of Europe will complete and approve a similar document called "*Guiding Principles for the Sustainable Spatial Development of the European Continent*" (G.P.). It must be noted that both documents (of EU and CoE) are based on common principles and objectives with reference to the, almost, same territory and constitute the background that national spatial policies could take into account.

TABLE 1 - Important milestones of the European Spatial Planning policy (in chronological order 1950 – 2019)

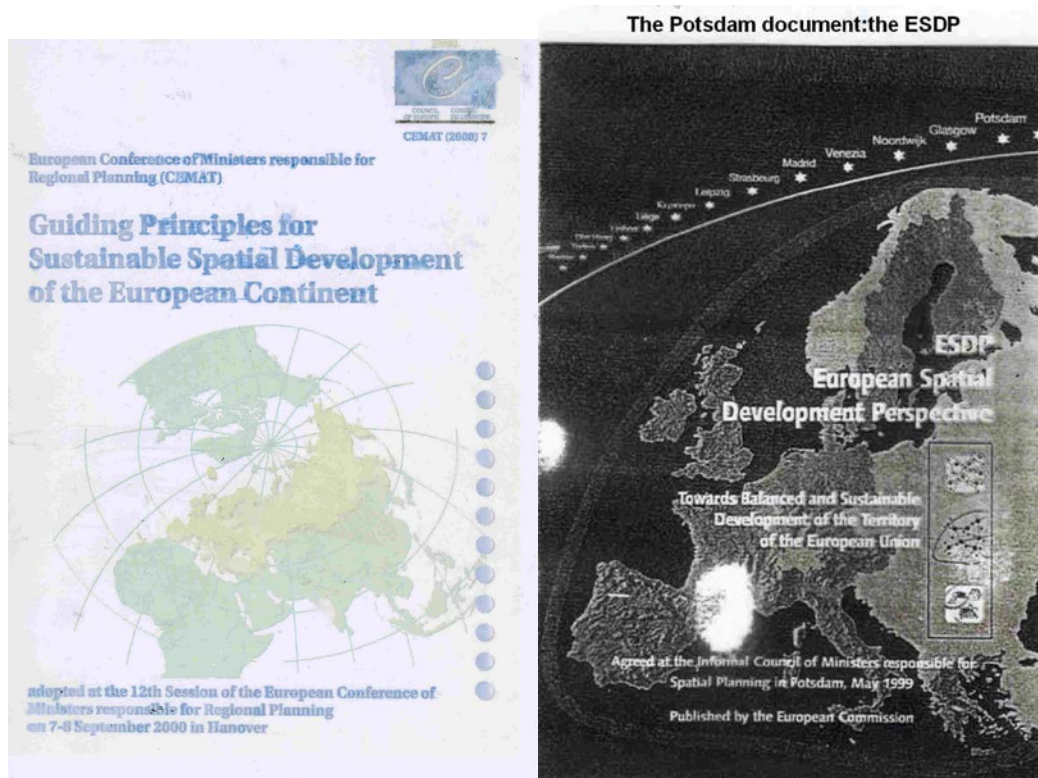
DEVELOPMENTS IN SPATIAL PLANNING		OTHER RELATED DEVELOPMENTS	
		1949	Establishment of the CoE
		1951	Establishment of the ECSC
1955	The Netherlands. The first document: "Western European Territory"		
1955	Establishment of Permanent Conference on Regional Planning in N-W Europe (PCRP)		
		1957	Establishment of the EEC, a.k.a the "Common Market"
1967	CoE. BENELUX–France–Germany. Document: "Spatial Planning, a European problem"		
1968	PCRP: "Structural outline for N-W Europe"		
1968	CoE: Establishment of CEMAT "Conférence Européenne de Ministres de l' Aménagement du Territoire"		
		1972	Stockholm. United Nations Conference on the Human Environment
		1976	Canada, Vancouver. 1 st United Nations Conference on Human Settlements- HABITAT I
1984	Spain, Torremolinos. CEMAT: "European Regional - Spatial Planning Charter"		
		1985	EEC. Adoption of the Single European Act(entered into force: 1987)
1988	Lausanne. CEMAT		
1989	France. DATAR: Studies for Europe's Territory		
1989	Nantes. Informal meeting of EEC spatial planning Ministers		
1991	European Commission: "Europe 2000" and "2000+: Outlook for the development of Community's Territory" [4 spatial Scenarios]		
1991	Committee of Spatial Development (CSD)		
		1992	- Rio de Janeiro, Brazil. United Nations Conference on Environment and Development -Maastricht Treaty. European Community becomes the European

			Union (EU)
1994	Leipzig. Landmark meeting of EEC spatial planning Ministers		
		1996	Constantinople, Turkey. 2 nd United Nations Conference on Human Settlements- HABITAT II
1997	Noordwijk. Landmark meeting of EEC spatial planning ministers: "First draft of ESDP"		- New York, USA. Rio+5 Summit. - Adoption of the Kyoto Protocol to the UNFCCC
1998	Glasgow. Landmark meeting of EEC spatial planning ministers: "Complete draft of ESDP"		
1999	Potsdam. EU: Approval of the final document "European Spatial development Perspectives (ESDP)"		
2000	Hannover. CoE/CEMAT: Approval of the document "Guiding principles for the sustainable spatial development of European"		Florence, Italy. Adoption of the European Landscape Convention
2002	Start of ESPON Programme: European Territorial Observatory Network	2002	Johannesburg, South Africa. United Nations World Summit on Sustainable Development (informally nicknamed "Rio+10")
2007	Leipzig. Meeting of EEC spatial planning Ministers: "Territorial Agenda of EU: Towards a more competitive Europe of diverse regions" & "Leipzig Charter on sustainable European cities"		
2012		2012	Rio de Janeiro, Brazil. United Nations Conference on Sustainable Development
2016			Quito, Ecuador. 3 rd United Nations Conference on Housing and Sustainable Urban Development - HABITAT III

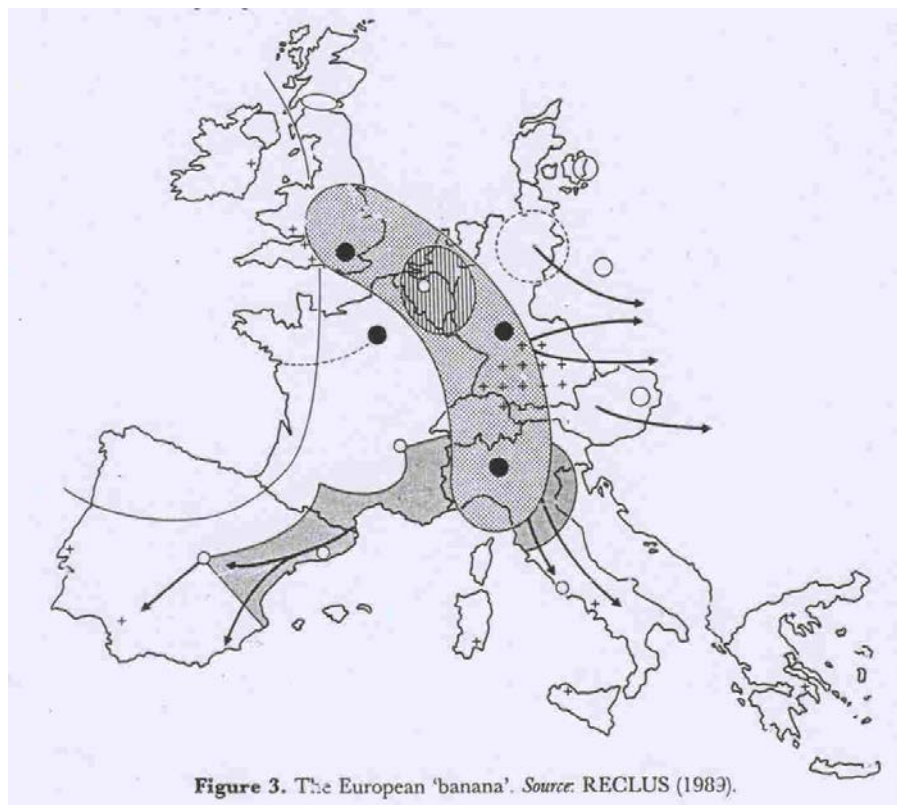
Source: Documents from UN, EEC/EU, CoE

Table 1 presents all developments related to spatial planning in Europe as well as other related developments in Europe or worldwide. Among them an important document of pan-European interest is the European Landscape Convention signed in Florence, Italy by many member states of the CoE. An outline of this Convention is presented in the next paragraphs after a brief presentation of the ESDP and the Guiding Principles.

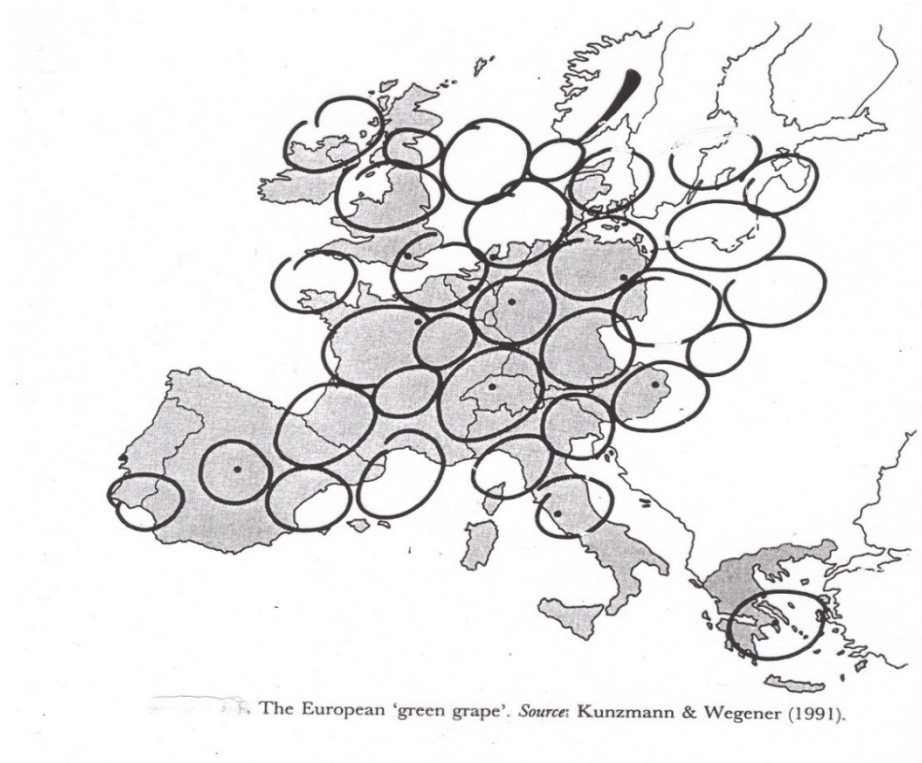
FIGURE 1 - Cover of the Guiding Principles **FIGURE 3**: Cover of the cover of ESDP



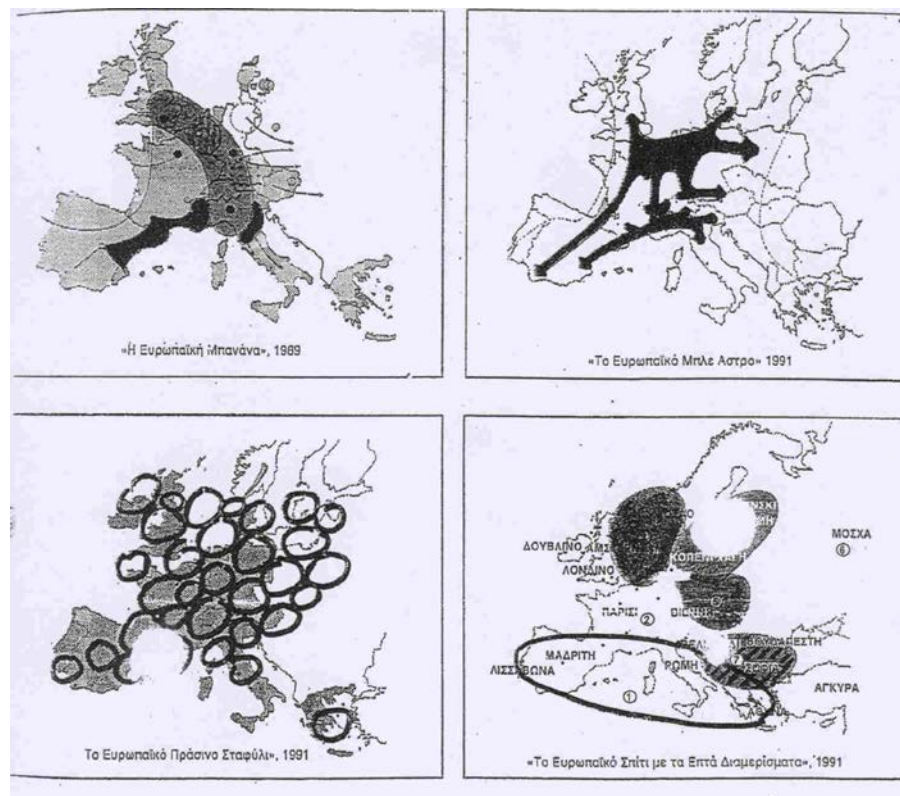
MAP 1 - The European “Banana”



MAP 4 - The European “green grape”



MAP 5 - The 4 Spatial Scenarios for Europe in array (clock-wise: a. The European “banana”, b. The European “blue star”, c. The European “green grape”, d. The European “house with the seven apartments”)



5.2. The European Spatial Development Perspectives - ESDP

The '90s are characterized as the period during which the EU activity related to spatial planning reached its peak. The most important moments have been the ministerial meetings in Noordwijk (1997) and Glasgow (1998) when the Official Draft and the Complete Draft of the ESDP were respectively presented.

ESDP is not a legally binding document for EU member states and therefore there is no obligatory implementation on their behalf. It constitutes a voluntary policy (i.e. "policy document") as spatial planning is an informal policy of the European Union. However, this document has been highly influential to national planning policies. A characteristic example is the spatial planning law of Greece (2742/1999) that completely adopted the principles and objectives of ESDP. Furthermore, this document promotes the territorial cohesion and the strategic planning in Europe as well as environmental protection.

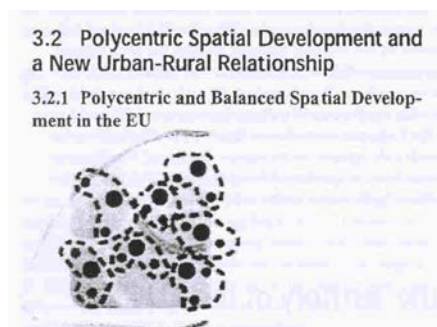
As far as the content of ESDP is concerned: In the first part is presented the impact of sectoral policies and the principles/goals/objectives of spatial development as well as the means of implementation, with emphasis on transnational, transboundary and interregional cooperation. In the second part are presented the most important trends and issues of spatial development in Europe.

ESDP planning proposals include

- **3policy goals**
- **13policy aims/objectives**
- **60policy options**

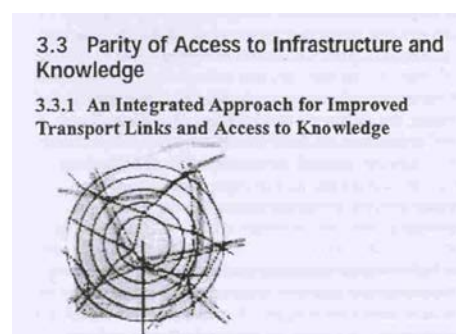
The 3 goals of ESDP with their 13 objectives are the following:

i. Polycentric Spatial Development and a New Urban-Rural Relationship



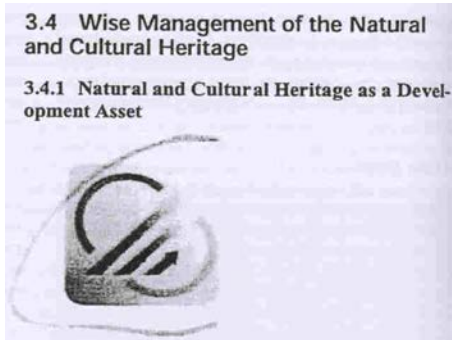
- Polycentric and Balanced Spatial Development in the EU
- Dynamic, Attractive and Competitive Cities and Urbanised Regions
- Indigenous Development, Diverse and Productive Rural Areas
- Urban-Rural Partnership

ii. Parity of Access to Infrastructure and Knowledge



- An Integrated Approach for Improved Transport Links and Access to Knowledge
- Polycentric Development Model: A Basis for Better Accessibility
- Efficient and Sustainable Use of the Infrastructure
- Diffusion of Innovation and Knowledge

iii. **Wise Management of the Natural and Cultural Heritage**



- Natural and Cultural Heritage as a Development Asset
- Preservation and Development of the Natural Heritage
- Water Resource Management – a Special Challenge for Spatial Development
- Creative Management of Cultural Landscapes
- Creative Management of the Cultural Heritage



FIGURE 4 - The 3 Goals and the 13 objectives of ESDP

5.3. The Guiding principles for the sustainable spatial development of the European Continent (GP)

The Guiding principles for the sustainable spatial development of the European continent have been adopted at the 12th session of the European Conference of ministers responsible for regional (spatial) planning on September 7-8 2000 (one year later than the ESDP) in Hannover, Germany.

The GP represent -for all member states of CoE- a flexible framework for facilitating the cooperation between them in the field of territorial planning and cohesion policy. It is addressed to all elected bodies (governments, regional and local authorities) which are involved in the decision making process, the elaboration and implementation of the spatial plans.

The GP has a similar content with ESDP and it is much shorter. It is composed of 6 Chapters as follows:

- I. Contribution of the GP to the implementation of the social cohesion policy of the Council of Europe
- II. Spatial Development policies in Europe: new continent-wide challenges and prospects
- III. Specific role of the private sector in spatial development
- IV. Principles of a planning policy for sustainable development
- V. Spatial development measures for different types of European regions
- VI. Strengthening of cooperation between the member states of the CoE and participation of the regions, municipalities and citizens.

5.4. Landscape and the European Landscape Convention, Florence 2000

Landscape(s)– Paysage(s) – Paesaggi(o)

In Greek language Landscape (=topio) means a small place (place = topos). Reference term: “topology”. There are four stages for the comprehension of landscape:

Perception–interpretation–representation–construction

According to the European Landscape Convention of CoE:

Landscape is an area/zone (*NOT* a region) as perceived by individuals or local societies (inhabitants or visitors), whose visual features and character are the result of the action of natural and/or cultural (human) factors.

Landscapes evolve through time through the interaction of natural forces with human beings/societies. The definition underlines that landscape forms a whole, whose natural and human components are taken together and *NOT* separately.

According to ESDP/SDEC of EU

Landscapes reflect the local identity and history of each place and therefore are of considerable value.

In Europe a number of places, as unique examples of historical and cultural landscapes, must be protected and preserved (e.g. the ‘bocage’ in the Atlantic coast or the “open field” in Central Europe).

In a number of cases the creative development and restoration of landscapes is more important than preservation of the current situation.

The way in which agriculture is practiced is an additional crucial factor for the landscape. Also in many cases extraction of raw materials destroys entire landscapes.

5.5. Developments in the 21st Century

• In Leipzig, (May 2007) the informal ministerial meeting on urban development and territorial cohesion, the Ministers for spatial planning of the European Union adopted the following documents:

- ***Territorial Agenda of the European Union: Towards a more competitive Europe of diverse regions (Territorial Agenda)***
- ***Leipzig Charter on sustainable European cities (Leipzig Charter)***

Taking these two political documents as a starting point, this note analyzes the present (prevailing) state of territorial policy and proposes a number of actions to enhance territorial cohesion and a balanced development of the European regions. Both documents are part of a continuing track record of designing spatial and urban policy on EU level.

- ✓ The **Territorial Agenda** also builds on earlier political documents, of which the *European Spatial Development Perspective* adopted in 1999, was the most influential.

The policy guidelines of the ESDP, are expanded by the Territorial Agenda to six priorities for spatial development measures:

1. Strengthening of polycentric development and innovation through networking of city regions and cities;
2. New forms of partnership and territorial governance between rural and urban areas;
3. Promotion of regional clusters of competition and innovation;
4. Strengthening and extension of trans-European networks;
5. Promotion of trans-European risk management including the impacts of climate change;
6. Strengthening of ecological structures and cultural resources as added value for development.

- ✓ The **Leipzig Charter** on sustainable European cities originates from the Green Paper of the EC on the urban environment in 1990 and the Urban Pilot Projects in the Structural Fund period ending 1999. These activities culminated in the adoption of the thematic strategy on the urban environment in 2006, which allows for the use of the Structural Funds to support investments to improve the quality of the urban environment.

The Charter emphasizes the importance of cities in the formulation of future EU policies. It calls for a greater use of integrated urban development policy by the cities with emphasis on:

- *creating and ensuring high-quality public spaces;*
- *modernizing infrastructure networks and improving energy efficiency;*
- *proactive innovation and educational policies;*
- *supporting deprived neighborhoods.*

- ✓ **The Follow-up of the Territorial Agenda and the Leipzig Charter: towards a European action programme for spatial development and territorial cohesion**

There are three major events on European planning policy in 2008
(Strategic Planning Towards Territorial Cohesion):

- **London Conference, February 8th 2008**

“The EU Wants territorial cohesion: Can Spatial Planners Make it Happen?”

A highly successful conference by the Royal Town Planning Institute and the European community of spatial planners. An editorial group was formed in order to produce a report along the same lines of the 2003 ‘Charter of Athens’ which would also set out what territorial cohesion.

- **Marne La Vallée Conférence, Juin 2008**

"From the Leipzig Charter to a Common European Sustainability Framework: Integrated planning, social cohesion and the European territorial Agenda"

A joint Franco-German conference, on implementing the Leipzig Charter on Sustainable European Cities, that took place on 13 – 14 June 2008 in Paris.

- **Ljubljana Conference, Autumn 2008**

‘Cities as motors of territorial cohesion’

The Conference highlighted case studies and practical examples and hosted sessions on background issues, such as how the local political context could influence the degree of territorial cohesion, and on how planning theory underpins territorial cohesion.

Conclusion: The adopted policy objective requires elaboration and interpretation into terms applicable in planning practice. Territorial cohesion can be achieved through addressing the objects of spatial planning in a targeted way.

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Topic 6 - Territorial reforms in Europe

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This topic studies the evolution of the institutional framework and the territorial/administrative reforms in Europe. Its main aim is to analyse reforms of the first tier of government (municipal/communal level) as a feature of public administration. Case studies/ examples from European countries and lessons learned will be presented. Especially, Greece will be used as an example of a neighbor country of the South Balkans that is experiencing territorial amalgamation reforms among several countries of Europe in order to see comparable aspects with the Albanian case and lessons learned.

Keywords: 1st/ 2nd/ tier local authorities, territorial reforms, administrative reforms, spatial structure, administration structure, spatial planning, territorial governance, Kapodistrias Project, Kallikratis Project

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6.1. Territorial reforms in Europe

As discussed in the previous Topic 3, administrative dimensions of decentralization influence spatial planning which is related to the competences and responsibilities of local authorities.

6.1.1. Reorganization of 1st tier local authorities

During the post-War period (2nd half of the 20th century) various territorial reforms occurred in many countries in Europe, due to important socioeconomic and technological developments in the field of transport (reduction of time-space distances etc.) or telecommunications. These reforms applied at all levels of government and referred to either rural regions or urban centers and metropolitan areas. In this chapter, we will focus on the territorial reforms concerning the reorganization (or more specifically *amalgamation*) of the first tier local entities/authorities and especially on the last wave of reforms (in 21st century).

A simplified classification of those amalgamations could be as follows.

a) 1st category: Nordic countries, such as Scandinavian ones (Sweden, Denmark, Norway), in which substantial amalgamations occurred, mainly because of the very low population density (8-10 inhabitants per square kilometer). Those countries had to merge large territories in order to gather a critical mass of population.

b) 2nd category: Mediterranean countries (e.g. Portugal, Greece, Bulgaria, Serbia etc.) which have significantly reduced the number of local authorities in the name of efficiency and in order to simplify administrative structure as well as to achieve better economic indicators as a result of austerity measures due to the financial crisis .

c) 3rd category: Large countries, such as France and Italy, which instead of an amalgamation reform, preferred a reorganization promoting thus various schemes of inter-municipal cooperation between the first tier local entities (e.g. urban communities or mountainous municipalities etc.)

The following statistic data are presented below in tables and diagrams:

- The change of the amount of 1st tier local authorities during the period 1990-2014
- Mean size and population of local units in EU countries
- The surface area (in km²), population (in millions) of each EU country and the number of entities in each level (in 1st, 2nd, and 3rd tier)
- The average population size of municipalities (1st tier territorial level-2011)
- The population size of local authorities before and after amalgamations

6.1.2. The situation in Europe

The following tables show the evolution in the amount and number of municipalities in the EU, describing important data concerning their size, population etc before and after the amalgamation.

TABLE 1 - Change of the amount of municipalities (1st tier units) in Europe 1990-2014

	Number of municipalities							Relative change (1990=100)						
	1990	1994	1998	2002	2006	2010	2014	1990	1994	1998	2002	2006	2010	2014
Albania	374	374	374	373	373	373	61***	100	100	100	99.7	99.7	99.7	16.3
Austria	2333	2353	2358	2358	2356	2356	2353	100	101	101	101	101	101	101
Belgium	589	589	589	589	589	589	589	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Bulgaria	279	255	262	264	264	264	264	100	91.4	93.9	94.6	94.6	94.6	94.6
Croatia	172	499	545	550	556	556	556	100	290	317	320	323	323	323
Cyprus	380	380	380	380	379	379	380	100	100	100	100	99.7	99.7	100
Czech Rep.	4100	6230	6242	6254	6248	6250	6253	100	152	152	153	152	152	153
Denmark	275	275	275	275	270	98	98	100	100	100	100	98.2	35.6	35.6
Estonia	255	254	247	241	227	226	213	100	99.6	96.9	94.5	89	88.6	83.5
Finland	460	455	452	448	431	342	320	100	98.9	98.3	97.4	93.7	74.3	69.6
France	36693	36688	36682	36682	36688	36685	36684	100	99.9	100	100	100	100	100
Georgia	1004	1004	1004	1004	69	69	71	100	100	100	100	6.87	6.87	7.07
Germany	15978	15915	14194	13299	12224	11882	11040	100	99.6	88.8	83.2	76.5	74.4	69.1
Greece	5923	5921	1033	1033	1034	1034	325	100	99.9	17.4	17.4	17.5	17.5	5.49
Hungary	1381**	3137	3154	3158	3168	3175	3177	100	102	102	102	103	103	103
Iceland	213	195	161	112	89	77	74	100	91.5	75.6	52.6	41.8	36.2	34.7
Ireland	113	114	114	114	114	114	31	100	101	101	101	101	101	27.4
Italy	8094	8102	8099	8101	8101	8094	8071	100	100	100	100	100	100	99.7
Latvia	573	568	566	548	527	118	119	100	99.1	98.8	95.6	92	20.6	20.8
Lichtenstein	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Lithuania	58	58	58	60	60	60	60	100	100	100	103	103	103	103
Luxembourg	118	118	118	118	116	116	106	100	100	100	100	98.3	98.3	89.8
Malta	67	67	68	68	68	68	68	100	100	101	101	101	101	101
Moldova	959	959	959	649	898	898	898	100	100	100	67.7	93.6	93.6	93.6
Montenegro	21	21	21	21	21	21	23	100	100	100	100	100	100	110
Netherlands	672	636	548	496	458	431	403	100	94.6	81.5	73.8	68.2	64.1	60
Norway	448	435	435	435	433	430	428	100	97.1	97.1	97.1	96.7	96	95.5
Poland	2383	2475	2489	2491	2478	2479	2479	100	104	104	105	104	104	104
Portugal	305	305	308	308	308	308	308	100	100	101	101	101	101	101
Romania	2948	2948	2948	2966	3174	3181	3181	100	100	100	101	108	108	108
Serbia	145	145	145	145	145	145	145	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Slovakia	2826	2858	2878	2891	2891	2890	2890	100	101	102	102	102	102	102
Slovenia	62	158	203	204	221	221	223	100	255	327	329	356	356	360
Spain	8108	8108	8108	8114	8114	8815	8118	100	100	100	100	100	109	100
Sweden	284	286	288	289	290	290	290	100	101	101	102	102	102	102
Switzerland	2761	2761	2761	2726	2726	2584	2352	100	100	100	98.7	98.7	93.6	85.2
MKD*	34	34	123	123	80	80	80	100	100	362	362	235	235	235
Turkey	2061	2754	3230	3243	3241	2966	1411	100	134	157	157	157	144	68.5
Ukraine	10572	11338	11566	11615	11623	11622	11624	100	107	109	110	110	110	110
UK	540	540	467	468	468	434	433	100	100	86.5	86.7	86.7	80.4	80.2

*MKD = the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia ** - 1989, *** - 2015

Source: own calculations based on Local Autonomy Index project data

(<https://pl.scribd.com/doc/293560272/Local-Autonomy-Index-for-European-Countries-1990-2014>)

Source: Council of European Municipalities and Regions - CEMR/CCRE (2013).
Decentralisation at a crossroads. Territorial reforms in Europe in times of crisis

TABLE 2 - a/b–Number, mean size and population of local units

2010-2011	1 ^{er} niveau	2 ^e niveau	3 ^e niveau
États fédéraux			
Allemagne	11 553	301	16
Autriche	2 357	9	
Belgique	589	10	6
États unitaires			
Bulgarie ¹	264		
Chypre ²	379		
Danemark	98	5	
Espagne	8 116	52	17
Estonie	226		
Finlande ³	336	2	
France ⁴	36 697	101	27
Grèce ⁵	325	13	
Hongrie	3 177	19	
Irlande ⁶	114		
Italie	8 094	110	20
Lettonie	119		
Lituanie ¹	60		
Luxembourg ⁷	106		
Malte ¹	68		
Pays-Bas	418	12	
Pologne	2 479	379	16
Portugal ¹	308	2	
Rép. tchèque	6 249	14	
Roumanie ¹	3 181	41	
Royaume-Uni ¹	406	28	3
Slovaquie	2 930	8	
Slovénie	210		
Suède ⁸	290	20	
TOTAL UE 27	89 149	1 126	105

¹ Existence d'un niveau infra-municipal structuré (communautés, localités, hameaux).

² Uniquement dans la zone contrôlée par le gouvernement (S2S sur l'ensemble de l'île).

³ Deuxième niveau : province insulaire autonome d'Åland et région expérimentale de Kainuu.

⁴ Incluant les collectivités de Corse et des cinq DOM-ROM (dont Mayotte depuis mars 2011).

⁵ Depuis la réforme territoriale de Juillet 2010.

⁶ Les autorités et assemblées régionales ne sont pas élues directement.

⁷ Chiffre provisoire (réforme municipale en cours).

⁸ Incluant les 4 régions expérimentales de Västra Götaland, Skåne, Halland et Gotland.

CCRE-Dexia

2010-2011	Nombre moyen d'habitants	Superficie moyenne (km ²)
Allemagne	7 080	31
Autriche	3 560	36
Belgique	18 480	52
Bulgarie	28 540	420
Chypre ¹	2 120	15
Danemark	56 590	440
Espagne	5 680	62
Estonie	5 930	200
Finlande	15 960	1 006
France	1 770	17
Grèce	34 780	406
Hongrie	3 150	29
Irlande	39 260	612
Italie	7 470	37
Lettonie	18 820	543
Lituanie	54 780	1 088
Luxembourg	4 780	24
Malte	6 120	5
Pays-Bas	39 740	99
Pologne	15 400	126
Portugal	34 540	299
Rép. tchèque	1 680	13
Roumanie	6 740	75
Royaume-Uni	152 680	601
Slovaquie	1 850	17
Slovénie	9 760	97
Suède	32 340	1 552
TOTAL UE 27	5 630	49

¹ Zone contrôlée par le gouvernement.

CCRE-Dexia

Source: CCRE-DEXIA (2011). *L'Europe locale et régionale. Chiffres clés 2010*, Edition 2011-2012

TABLE 3 - Basic statistic data of Europe's subnational governments

Country	Population (In millions) ¹	Surface area (km ²)	1 st tier ²	2 nd tier	3 rd tier
Albania	3.22	28 748	373		12
Austria	8.40	83 871	2 354		9
Belgium	11.00	30 528	589	10	6
Bosnia and Herzegovina	3.75	51 209	137	10	3
Bulgaria	7.37	111 002	264		
Croatia	4.41	56 594	556	21	
Cyprus	0.84 ³	5 695 ³	524 (380 ³)		
Czech Republic	10.49	78 868	6 253		14
Denmark	5.56	43 098	98		5
Estonia	1.34	45 227	226		
Finland	5.37	338 145	320		1
France	65.05	663 210	36 786	101	26
Georgia	4.49	69 700	69		
Germany	81.75	357 027	11 252	295	16
Greece	11.31	131 957	325		13
Hungary	9.99	93 029	3 175	19	
Iceland	0.32	103 000	75		
Ireland	4.57	69 797	114		10
Italy	60.63	301 336	8 092	110	20
Latvia	2.07	64 589	119		
Lithuania	3.05	65 300	60		
Luxembourg	0.51	2 586	106		
Macedonia (FYR)	2.06	25 713	81		8
Malta	0.42	316	68		5
Moldova	3.56	33 846	1 040	34	
Montenegro	0.62	13 812	21		
Netherlands	16.66	41 528	408		12
Norway	4.92	385 252	430	19	
Poland	38.53	312 685	2 479	380	16
Portugal	10.57	92 152	308		2
Romania	21.41	238 391	3 181	41	
Serbia ⁴	7.26	77 474	145		1
Slovakia	5.39	49 034	3 028		8
Slovenia	2.05	20 273	211		
Spain	46.15	505 997	8 167		19
Sweden	9.42	449 964	290		20
Switzerland	7.87	41 285	2 408		26
Turkey	73.72	783 562	37 255	81	
United Kingdom	63.00	243 820	433		3
Ukraine	45.71	603 500	11 517	488	25

¹ Eurostat figures for 2011, except for Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Georgia, Moldova, Serbia and Ukraine (World Bank figures for 2011).

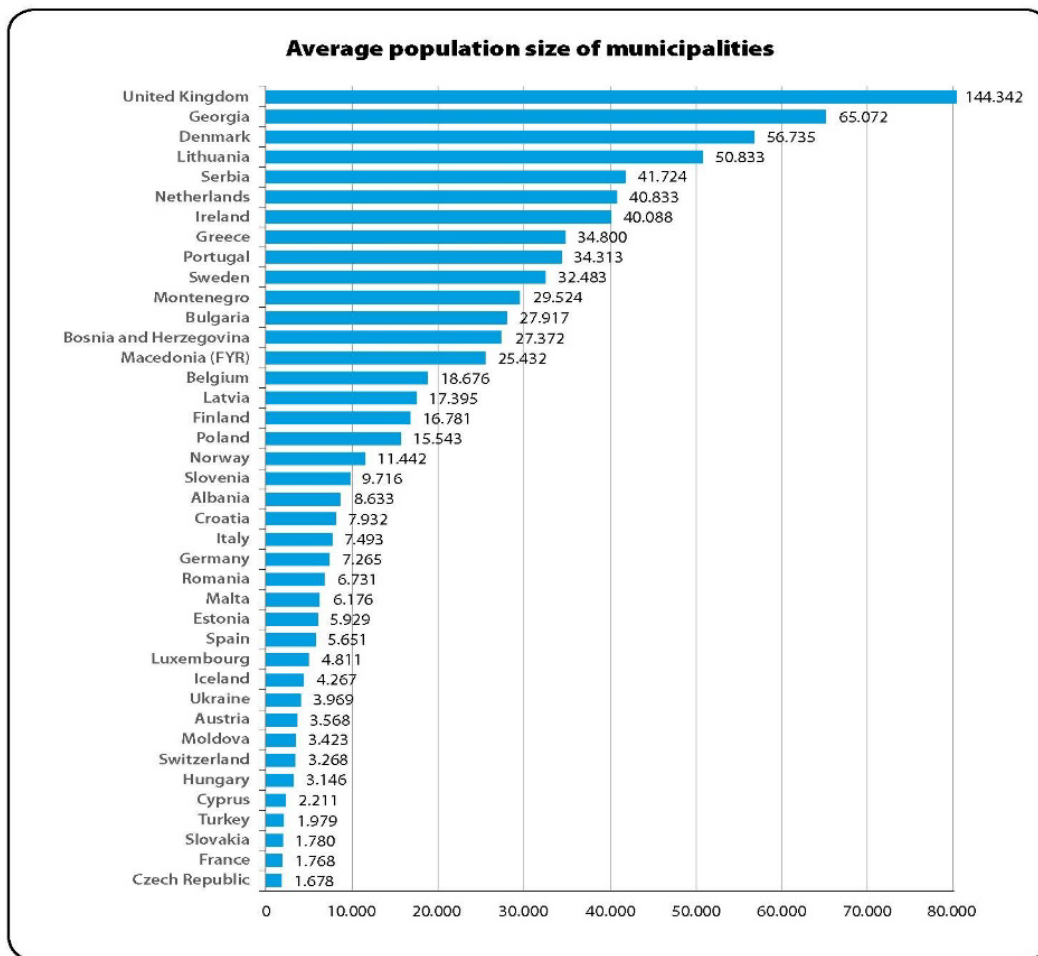
² Figures for 2013, except for Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia, Norway, Turkey and Ukraine (figures for 2011).

³ The part of the island controlled by the government.

⁴ Kosovo has not been included.

Source: Council of European Municipalities and Regions - CEMR/CCRE (2013).
Decentralisation at a crossroads. Territorial reforms in Europe in times of crisis

FIGURE 1 - Average population size of 1st tier authorities

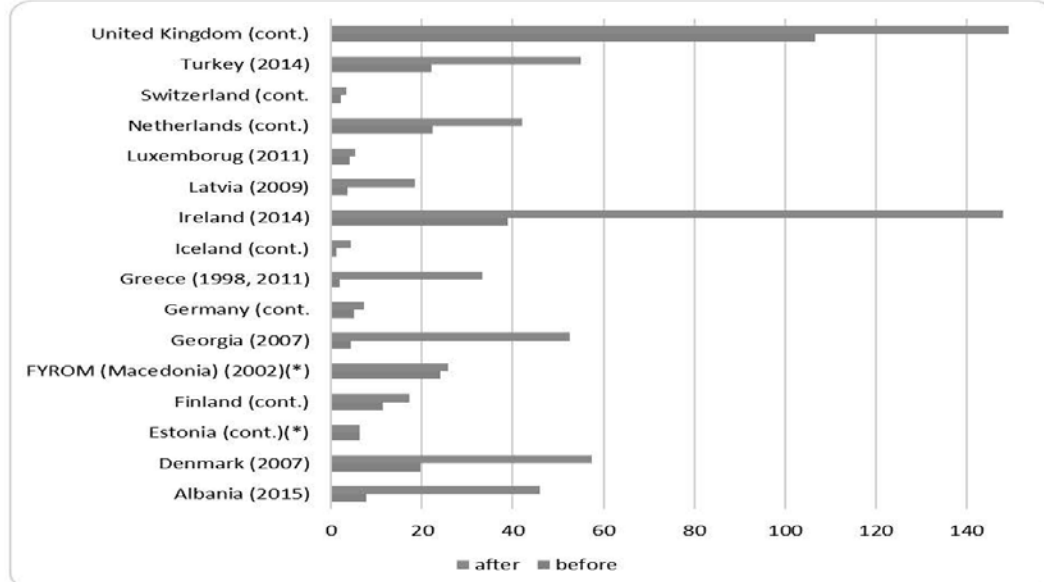


Source: Council of European Municipalities and Regions - CEMR/ CCRE (2013). *Decentralisation at a crossroads. Territorial reforms in Europe in times of crisis*

FIGURE 2 - Population size before and after the amalgamation

Territorial Reforms in Europe – TOOLKIT

Figure 1. Population size (x 1,000) of local governments before and after amalgamation reforms



Notes: years of the reform given in brackets; 'cont.' refers to continuous change spread over several years; '(*)' means that the impact of the reduction in the number of municipal governments is almost overshadowed by demographic changes.

Source: Swianiewicz et al., 2017: 17

From the above tables and figures one could make some useful remarks: Greece is on the top ten countries regarding the size of population of local authorities. On the other hand, the change of the population size after the last amalgamation reform in Greece (2010) was proportionally the greatest one. Also, regarding the number of municipalities, Greece has the lowest relative change indicator (from 100 it turned into 5,49) i.e. the highest amalgamation.

6.2. The case of Greece

6.2.1. Main geographical features and spatial structure of the country

Greece belongs simultaneously in entirely different geopolitical systems, such as the Balkans, the Mediterranean and Europe. Its role and significance, within those systems, is continuously evolving in political, economic, technological and military terms.

Nowadays, a “new geography” is emerging in the broader region and in Europe as a whole. Greece, because of its location as well as its traditional relations with most of the surrounding countries, is functioning as a “crossroad” between East and West, North and South. However, it is a matter of fact that Greece lies in the periphery of EU along with the other Balkan Member States. This fact generates a substantial danger for their marginalization within EU’s territory.

It could be argued that in terms of physical geography, Greece is the country of the highlands and islands. The dominant pattern is that of discontinuity and disruption of physical space. Mountains, along with small valleys and islands recur periodically, thus comprising the most common elements of Greek terrain. As a result of this terrain, Greece has the lengthier coastline in Europe. Its coasts are 15,000 km long or stated otherwise, in each square kilometre of its territory correspond 113 meters of coastline (the respective average for the rest of Europe is 4.5 meters).

Most of the country's population lives along the east coastline. Because of its shape, this axis is called the *axis "S" of development*, concerning urban as well as economic development. Most of the country's major cities lie along that axis. Among these are Athens, Thessaloniki and Patras, the three major urban centers. Other important cities that lie on this axis are Volos, Larissa and Kavala. However, it is worth noting that most of the capital cities of the Greek regions lie within a close range of this axis.

Greece is the only country in Europe and the Mediterranean with such a vast concentration of its population in only one city, Athens. The metropolitan area of Athens covers almost less than one percent (1%) of the national territory. However, it concentrates more than one third (1/3) of the country's population, that is approximately eleven (11) millions. Most significantly, it captures more than fifty percent (50%) of the overall economic activity. The majority of governmental bodies and public services are situated in Athens as well.

Hence, the Greek urban hierarchy resembles the primate city. Even Paris, the capital of the traditionally most centralised European country, France, has only twenty percent (20%) of the country's overall population. Thessaloniki and Patras, the two larger cities after the capital, are significantly smaller than Athens. The first one has approximately one million (1,000,000) inhabitants. The Patras agglomeration on the other hand, is even smaller, with approximately 250,000 inhabitants.

6.2.2. Administrative System and Territorial Governance

➤ System of governance: an overview

The Constitution of the country, voted upon in 1974 and revised since then three times, defines the relationships between the different powers at the national level. Executive power in the country rests upon the President of the Republic and the Central Government. However, the whole power emanates from the latter; while the role of the President of the Republic is limited. The Central Government is a collective body, consisting of the Ministerial Council. Its members are the Prime Minister and the ministers. The Prime Minister delegates powers to the Ministers and the Deputy Ministers.

Hierarchically, after the ministers follow the alternate and/ or the deputy ministers, the general or special secretaries, senior civil servants and the regional governors (previously, general secretaries of the regions, till 2010) directly elected every four (4) years at the moment.

The administrative structure in Greece constitutes of three (3) levels:

1. Central government/ Administration
2. Second Tier Local Authorities
3. First Tier Local Authorities

➤ **Administrative structure and spatial planning policies**

Central government / Administration

Today (2020) there are eight to nine (9) out of about eighteen (18) ministries that play an important role to spatial development:

1. Ministry for the Environment (Spatial Planning) and Energy
2. Ministry of the Interior (and Administrative reform)
3. Ministry of Economy and Finance
4. Ministry of Development and investments (Industry, Commerce, etc.)
5. Ministry of rural development and food
6. Ministry of Infrastructure and Transport
7. Ministry of Culture and sports
8. Ministry of Mercantile Marine and Insular Policy
9. Ministry of Tourism

It must be noted that the number and the name or competences of the ministries change when a new government comes to power.

Description of Competences

Ministry responsible for Spatial Planning (Current name: Ministry for the environment and energy).

In this ministry two bodies closely related play a significant role in planning (according to Law 2742 / 99):

The Co-ordinating Committee of Governmental Policy in the Sector of Spatial Planning and Sustainable Development, which is a ministerial body, chaired by the Minister.

The National Council for Spatial Planning and Sustainable Development, an advisory body for spatial planning policy which is constituted of representatives of the first-tier local authorities, representatives of the productive sectors and chambers of Greece as well as social actors such as NGOs, university professors and scientists.

At the regional level, every region has each own administrative structure within which there is a Directorate competent for the Environment and Spatial Planning. Within this Directorate there is an advisory body called “Council of Spatial Planning and the Environment”, which assists the Directorate and advises the Minister of planning

The Ministry responsible for the Interior Affairs and Administrative reforms provides technical support to local authorities, through its Directorate of Technical Services. Moreover, the Directorate of Planning and Decentralisation oversees the process of development planning undertaken by prefectures and regional secretariats and assists local authorities in the promotion of development actions.

The Ministry of Economy and Finance is responsible for the economic policy. National economic planning, public investment programmes and incentives, regional policy as well as the co-ordination and supervision of the Community Support Framework are among its responsibilities. Moreover, the Ministry is responsible for policy and management of public land property and deals with property and transaction taxation. Finally, it supervises the work of the Centre of Planning and Economic Research, which prepares five-year national development plans, regional development plans and other sectoral studies (EC, 2000).

The competences of the Ministry of Development and Investments include inter alia the formulation of sectoral industrial policy on the macro-economic scale and the promotion of industrial development (location of industrial plants, establishment and management of industrial zones/ parks in co-operation with the Industrial Commercial Bank, etc.). The mineral raw material policy is another important responsibility of this Ministry (mapping and fixing the boundaries of mineral extraction sites, designation of mining areas and licensing for the extraction of industrial minerals).

Under the responsibilities of the Ministry of Tourism fall the formulation and implementation of tourist policy through the relevant General Secretariat and the Greek National Tourism Organisation (short- and long-term tourism development programs, licensing of hotels and secondary tourist accommodation, etc.).

The influence of the Ministry of rural development on spatial development is significant, due to its responsibilities related to forests and woodlands. In particular, forest protection and management (i.e. development and forest land registration, land-use changes, fire protection, land registration, national parks, biotopes and wetlands of scientific interest etc.) is the responsibility of four directorates within the ministry (EC, 2000).

The Ministry of Transport and infrastructure is responsible for planning future transport development and for setting the framework of future action for all the transport agencies that it supervises, including the Greek railways and bus operators. Among its responsibilities are the management of road transport operation, civil aviation and airport planning.

The Ministry of Culture and sports is responsible for the protection of cultural environment and national cultural heritage, including monuments and their surrounding area. It incorporates 45 regional services all over the country.

The Ministry of Mercantile Marine is responsible for the formulation of national policy on port development, the elaboration of plans for the necessary port development projects, the designation of port zones and free trade areas as well as the location of shipyards or other industrial activities in port zones. Moreover, together with the Ministry of Development, it is responsible for the development of nautical tourism.

➤ **Regional authorities (2nd tier of local authorities)**

There are thirteen (13) regions and respective regional authorities. Their number has remained unchanged since they were initially established in 1987. These are the following (the number of regional units, included in each region is shown in the brackets):

1. Region of Eastern Macedonia and Thrace (5)
2. Region of Central Macedonia (7)

3. Region of Western Macedonia (4)
4. Region of Epirus (4)
5. Region of Thessaly (4)
6. Region of Ionian Islands (4)
7. Region of Western Greece (3)
8. Region of Central (Sterea) Greece (5)
9. Region of Attica (4)
10. Region of Peloponnesus (5)
11. Region of North Aegean (3)
12. Region of South Aegean (2)
13. Region of Crete (4)

The number of Regional Units (previously prefectures) is 54.

Until 2010, Regional authorities were considered to be part of the Central Government. They were headed by a political commissioner at general secretary's level. The general secretary was the Central Government's representative and had responsibility for implementing governmental policies. Since 2010 regional bodies (regional governor, regional council) are elected.

The Regional Council:

- Submits to the central government proposals for inclusion in the national, medium - term development plan.
- Formulates, in the context of the national plan, the medium-term regional development plan.
- Sets the framework for and approves the medium-term development plan of the regional units of the region.
- In certain cases it formulates and approves the annual, regional development plans and then approves them.
- In certain cases, it approves the annual development plans of the region and allocates public investment to local authorities for local projects.
- Advises central government for national spatial planning guidelines on spatial structure, land-use, infrastructure and settlement networks, town plans, housing and building regulations.
- Collects information and produces special studies to assist the regional spatial planning work of the competent ministry.

Moreover, a Council of Regions has been formed in the Ministry of the Interior, presided over by the Minister or the appropriate deputy minister and by the general secretaries. This council is authorized to support and co-ordinate the regional policies.

➤ **Municipalities (1sttier local authorities)**

First tier local authorities are today constituted by municipalities subdivided in territorial units called communities. Both are governed by corporate bodies and elected officers with territorial responsibility for a range of local services. In the case of municipalities the elected officers are the mayor and the deputy mayors. The municipal corporate bodies are the municipal council and the municipal boards. In the case of communities the elected officers are the president and the vice-president. The communal corporate body is the community council.

The local services provided by first tier local authorities include administrative services, such as birth certificates, technical operations such as water supply, sewage and refuse disposal and certain planning control functions. Local authorities are also responsible for public work projects. In the production and approval of statutory plans, the role of first tier local authorities is mostly advisory. In the production of a General Town Plan, local authorities can exercise the right of pre-emption. Moreover, local authorities can establish corporations to provide municipal, social or cultural services. They can also set up, individually or jointly, companies for the purpose of planning or executing development projects.

During the '80s and '90s, local authorities were given more responsibilities and power through a process of decentralisation. After many attempts (Laws 1416/ 84, 1662/ 86 and 2218/ 94) decentralization reform occurred in 1997 (Law 2539/ 97). In 1997 the municipalities amounted to 1.033 as a result of the so called "Ioannis Kapodistrias" project (see MAP 2). Up until then they were around six thousand (6.000) (see MAP 1). This administrative and territorial reform, aimed at the reorganization of the first tier local authorities by reducing their number down to smaller and more viable entities. After 13 years, another substantial territorial reform took place: in 2010 in the framework of the project "Kallikratis" the number of 1st tier authorities reduced to 325 municipalities currently being basic administrative divisions of the country. (see MAP 3)



MAP 1 -1st tier local authorities until 1997, Greece



MAP 2 - 1st tier local authorities 1997-2010, Greece



MAP 3 - 1st tier local authorities 2010-2020, Greece

The table below presents the overall evolution of territorial restructuring (1st tier level) in 4 plus 1 phases.

➤ **Phases of reorganization / amalgamation of 1st tier local authorities**

<p><u>1983-84 Ministry of Planning</u> <u>Proposal on functional territorial divisions</u> <u>“Open towns of the Greek countryside”</u></p>
<p><u>Five (5) Phases of reorganization/ amalgamation</u></p>
<p>1. Voluntary cooperation: Law 1416/84 573 geographical units</p>
<p>2. Voluntary amalgamation: Law 1622/86 1151 geographical units (no substantial results)</p>
<p>3. Compulsory cooperation: Law 2218/94 492 geographical units “local councils”</p>
<p>4. Compulsory amalgamation: Law 2539/97 1034 geographical units/ new local authorities/ project Kapodistrias</p>
<p>5. New Compulsory amalgamation: Law 3852/2010 325 new geographical units/new local authorities</p>

➤ **Lessons learned from the last reforms. Concluding remarks**

Kapodistrias project was based on the work of several committees of experts in order to make a robust piece of legislation. However, there have been many disagreements and conflicts between the government and the opposition during the discussion of the bill in the parliament. After the approval of the bill, serious reactions from local societies occurred, especially in the southern part of the country (Crete and Peloponnese). Furthermore, many problems appeared during the period of implementation. The state, namely the Ministry of Interior, could not achieve to allocate the necessary financial resources and competences that the new local authorities needed in order to achieve the expected results (i.e. new specialized personnel, equipment, etc.). On the other hand, among the positive consequences of this reform must be mentioned the drastic change (increase) of the size of the 1st tier units in surface area and population that made possible a more effective planning on a municipal territory level and a better management of the existing personnel.

Regarding the last reform, Kallikratis, the process for consultation and public participation, before the approval by the Parliament, has been reduced to the minimum required by the law for various reasons (e.g. the project was considered unjustifiably urgent). Besides, there has been no serious evaluation reports of previous reform (Kapodistrias project) that could prove the necessity for a new one. Comparing Greece to other European countries confirms this (see TABLE 2, supra). Secondly, the scale of amalgamation (in surface area and population) has been really excessive and consequently the new territorial entities became bigger than necessary. As a result a lot of dysfunctions appeared during the operating period. Also, the internal administrative structure of 1st tier municipalities was too much complicated to operate efficiently. This was more visible in insular and mountainous areas. Regarding financial and economic viability the achievements are also poor. The financial problems were difficult to be resolved and the economies of scale did not work in this case. The public participation in decision making process reached its lower level because the “political distance” between the elected officers and the people has been increased.

Finally, the overall experience shows that both reforms have not been implemented properly because of the lack of appropriate preparation as well as the lack of necessary financial support in order to achieve their objectives.

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Administrative and territorial reform in Albania: institutions, local actors and practice

Understanding the Albanian context

Topic 7 - Administrative and territorial reform in Albania

Topic 8 - The current local government context in Albania

Topic 9 - Territorial planning situation of Albania

How to prepare spatial plans at national and local levels

Topic 10 - Guidelines on Preparation and Implementation of a General National Spatial Plan

Topic 11 - Guidelines on Preparation and Implementation of General Local Plans

Topic 12 - Analysis of Implementation of a specific General Local Plan (representative case from north of Albania)

Topic 13 - Analysis of Implementation of a specific General Local Plan (representative case from central of Albania)

Topic 14 - Analysis of Implementation of a specific General Local Plan (representative case from south of Albania)

Understanding the Albanian context

Topic 7 - Administrative and territorial reform in Albania

Main contributor: Ani Mbrica, European University of Tirana

Peer contributor: Nikolaidou Sofia, Panteion University

Administrative and territorial reform in Albania: brief history, strategy, objectives and implementation processes. This topic aims to explain the current territorial organization of Albania, its subnational levels of government and analyze the changes in the number of local government units (from 373 to 61), the effects on population size of local governments and the impact on responsibilities and their economic and administrative performance. This topic will try to explain the population trends in rural and urban areas and the depopulation of some peripheral regions (emigration to other countries and internal migration from distant rural regions to big cities) and link this processes with the functional approach of decentralization in Albania.

- History of the Administrative - Territorial Organization in Albania (1912 - now)
- Mapping size and population trends/ local governance mapping in Albania
- The approach of “Functional areas” in Albania
- Main considerations

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7.1. History of Administrative - Territorial Organization in Albania (1912 - now)

A. Period 1912 - 1924

Following the proclamation of Albania's independence from the Ottoman Empire, the first Albanian government accepted the administrative organization sanctioned in the "Appropriate Kanun of the Albanian Civil Administration" announced on November 22, 1913, according to which the country was divided into three main levels. In the first level, the territory was divided into **8 prefectures (Durrës; Berat; Dibër; Elbasan; Gjirokastrë; Korçë; Shkodër and Vlorë) headed by the prefect**. The second and third administrative divisions were the **sub-prefectures headed by the sub-prefect** and **provinces headed by head of province**.

B. Period 1925 - 1945

The organization and functions of the local governments were defined by the "Organic law on municipalities" that entered in effect in 1921 and later by the Civil Code approved in February 1928.

Municipalities were established in **towns or rural** centers with **more than 200 families**. In 1928, the government added the **commune as a local government unit**. The commune **included several villages**. The **sub-prefecture** was an **administrative - territorial unit with civil administration functions**. At various points in time, the sub-prefecture was called the **district (rreth)**. The prefecture was the largest local government unit headed by the prefect, who was appointed by the Minister of Internal Affairs and approved by the President of the Republic, later the King. In **1927** Albania was divided in **10 prefectures, 39 sub-prefectures**, and 69 "krahina" with 2351 villages. In **1934** there were **10 prefectures, 30 sub-prefectures**, and 160 communes with 2351 villages. In **1940** there were **10 prefectures, 30 sub-prefectures, 23 municipalities**, 136 communes, and 2551 villages.

C. Period 1945 - 1992

- Starting in **1945**, the administrative organization of the country changed many times in terms of structure and the number of units for each structural unit.
- In **1945**, the government kept the administrative division in **10 prefectures** and **61 sub-prefectures**, but abolished the communes and municipalities.
- In **1946**, a new administrative structure was put in place with **10 prefectures, 39 sub-prefectures**, and a **partial introduction of the locality**.
- In **1947**, the locality took precedent as a local government unit and replaced entirely the communes. Thus, the country was organized in **prefectures, the districts (rrethe), localities, cities, and villages**.
- In **1953**, the region (qarku) replaced the prefecture. This new administrative division included **ten regions: Shkodra, Tirana, Durrës, Elbasan, Vlora, Berat, Korça, Gjirokastra, Dibër, and Kukës**. The regions included 26 districts and each one of the districts included three or more localities.
- In **July 1958**, the government abolished the regions (qarqet) and delineated **26 districts (rrethe)**. The city of Tirana preserved its status as a separate district. Based on this new administrative organization, there were **26 districts, 203 localities, 2655 villages, 39 towns**, and **some of the towns included several neighborhoods**.

- In 1968, Albania was divided in **26 districts, 437 unified villages** (The unified villages could be comprised of several villages next to each other or several villages that were geographically dislocated from each other), **2641 villages, 65 towns, and 178 town neighborhoods**.
- In **1990**, there were **26 districts, 539 unified villages, 2848 villages, 67 towns, and 306 town neighborhoods**. Tirana includes three *rayons* and each one of them was comprised of several neighborhoods.

Prior to the 1990s, in terms of centralized resources and public ownership of land, construction-related processes and works were known as urban planning. Urban planning closed the planning cycle that had an economic and financial nature. Urban planning was the translation into territory of the political and economic decisions of the government, which it followed in a linear manner.

Urban planning produced guides for creating new settlements, work/ workers towns, building industrial zones, building new residential neighborhoods, building new farms, building holiday areas on the coast and in the mountains. Urban planning also produced some regulatory documents with a zoning character, for larger territories, such as studies to determine the 'yellow line', general regulatory plans, or regional (district) sectoral studies:

- a) 3 Regulatory Plans were drafted during the period 1945-1970,
- b) 17 Regulatory Plans and 2 Regional Plans were drafted during the period 1970-1980,
- c) 13 Regulatory Plans, 4 Regional Plans and 1 Urban Study were drafted during the period 1980-1990.

Types of Urban Studies:

- a) **Master plan:** It is an urban study with a certain topic and includes the whole national territory or specific parts of it.
- b) **Regional and environmental urban study:** It is a complex urban study and includes the territory of one or more districts.
- c) **General regulatory plan:** It is a complex urban study for a limited territory and includes the territory of a city, together with the suburban area (peripheral) of the perspective extension of a village, of an inhabited center, of a rest area, of an industrial territory etc.
- d) **Partial urban study:** It is a detailed urban study, which is based on the forecasts of the general regulatory plan and includes areas or parts of its territory, in which regulatory interventions are foreseen.

D. Period 1992 - 2014

- In **1992**, the Council of Ministers introduced changes to the administrative - territorial organization of the country, based on the **article 1 of the law no.7572, dated June 10, 1992 "On the organization and the functions of the local government."** This law prescribed for **36 districts, 44 municipalities, and 313 communes**.
- Later, the **law no.7608, dated September 22, 1992 "On the prefectures"** mandated the establishment of **12 prefectures** as units headed by the prefect who is appointed by the Council of Ministers. A **prefecture included 2 – 4 districts** (rrethe).

- In **2000** Albania had **36 districts, 65 municipalities, and 309 communes**. In **2000 the law no.8653, dated July 31, 2000**, abolished the districts (rrethet) as administrative units and re-established the regions (qarqet).

Spatial planning (in the sense we use today) underwent radical changes after 1990, when new ownership and resource regimes changed the planning approach. The first reforms after 1990 regarding the planning sector passed in 1993 and 1998, where the approach was a continuation of the urban mentality. Spatial planning was limited to 'yellow lines', or to new areas for development, mainly of a tourist and infrastructural nature. The real reforms of the sector, which would separate the spatial planning from the urban past, came in 2009 and were consolidated in 2014, where planning was conceived as integrated and comprehensive and the planning documents are since taking under consideration and study the sum of the territory.

- ✓ 3 Regulatory Plans, 4 Regional studies and 47 thematic studies were drafted during the period 1990-2000.
- ✓ 7 Regulatory Plans, 4 Regional studies and 47 thematic studies have been drafted during the period 2000-2010.
- ✓ 33 Regulatory Plans and 9 thematic studies were drafted during the period 2010-2015.
- ✓ 12 Decisions were adopted for the approval of General Local Instruments (PIS), for municipalities and communes during the period 2012-2014.

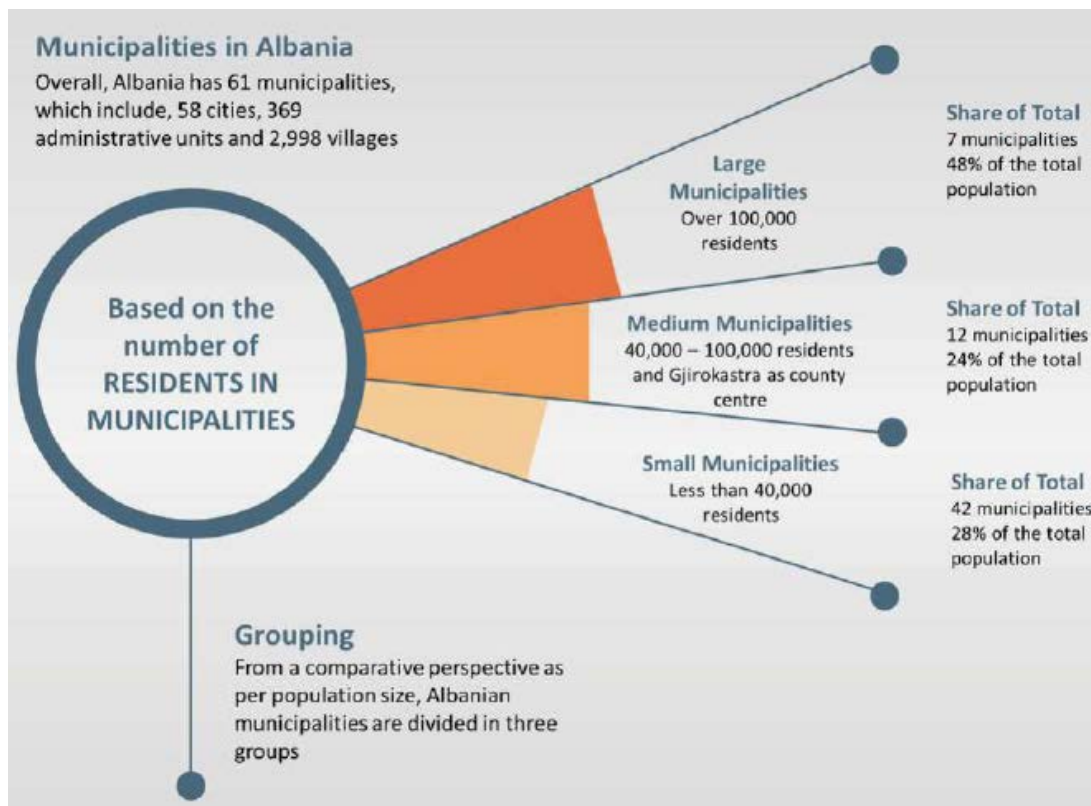
- E. Albania has currently **12 regions** (qarqe), **65 municipalities** and **374 local government units**.
- ✓ The number of the prefectures/ regions has remained more or less the same (10 to 12). The increase of this number by two prefectures/ regions does not constitute an essential change in the prefecture/ region's functions and their reach.
 - ✓ The introduction of the regions in 2000 implied the abolishment of the prefectures as territorial units. But, the prefect remained the representative of the Council of Ministers at the region's level.
 - ✓ The number of unified villages, towns, communes, and municipalities has changed significantly for a variety of reasons. In the 1970s and 1980s there were 400 of such local government units. In the 1980s and 1990s their number grew drastically. This was often due to the dissolution of the former agricultural cooperatives and state enterprises.
 - ✓ The number of districts for nearly 40 years stayed more or less the same. In the last decade, that number grew by ten new districts. This reflects growing trends of self-governance, but does not necessarily reflect the development of the districts.
 - ✓ The increase in the number of districts that brought about the shrinking territory of the districts, in particular of the smaller and new districts, often has had a negative impact in the districts' capacity to implement their mission.

7.2. Mapping size and population trends/ Local governance mapping in Albania

In terms of population distribution across the territory, Albania is divided into 61 municipalities that include 369 administrative units, 58 towns or cities and 2,998 villages. Tirana stands out as the municipality with the largest surface area (1,089 km²), followed by Tropoja (1,042 km²) and

Malesia e Madhe (961 km²). The municipalities with the largest number of towns are Mirdita (4), Kurbin (3) and Durres (3), whereas the top three municipalities with the largest number of villages are Dibra (141), Tirana (135) and Elbasan (IDRA& HDPC, 2020).

FIGURE 1 - Classification of municipalities by their population



Source: Institute for Development, Research and Alternatives (IDRA), Albania; International Expert-Chatterjee, M. (2016)

According to the 2011 Census, Albania has a population of 2,800,138 inhabitants. The municipalities recording the largest population are, in a descending order, Tirana, Durres, Elbasan, Shkodra and Fier, together accounting for 40% of the total country population (IDRA & HDPC, 2020).

From a comparative perspective, as per population size, Albanian municipalities can be divided into three groups: 1) large municipalities (over 100,000 inhabitants), 2) medium-sized municipalities (between 40,000 - 100,000 inhabitants) and 3) small municipalities (less than 40,000 inhabitants). Gjirokastra municipality moved up from the “small” to the “medium-sized” group because of its administrative status as the centre of the region. As shown in Figure 1, large municipalities account for 48% of the total population of Albania, while 12 medium municipalities cover 24% of the population, and 42 small municipalities 28% of the population (IDRA & HDPC, 2020).

TABLE 1 - Municipalities under each group

Large	Medium	Small
Tirana	Lushnja	Divjaka, Librazhd, Kuçova, Bulqiza
Durrës	Korça	Malësia e Madhe, Vau Dejës, Shijak
Elbasan	Lezha	Mat, Cërrik, Ura Vajgurore, Mallakastër,
Shkodër	Dibër	Devoll, Peqin, Vora, Prrenjas,
Fier	Pogradec	Gramsh, Patos, Rrogozhina, Mirdita
Vlora	Berat	Roskovec, Tropoja, Saranda,
Kamëz	Kruja	Belsh, Has, Klos, Selenica,
	Kukës	Skrapar, Kolonja, Puka, Poliçan,
	Kurbini	Memaliaj, Përmet, Finiq, Tepelena,
	Maliq	Konispol, Himara, Delvina, Fushë Arrëz,
	Kavaja, Gjirokastra	Këlcyra, Libohova, Dropull, Pustec

Source: IDRA & HDPC, 2020

The distribution of the population in the municipalities has undergone tremendous changes. Below are some figures of the population of regions, compared to the number of municipalities in the respective regions (Association of Albanian Municipalities, 2019).

Albania's population on 1 January 2018 resulted in 2,870,324 inhabitants, down with 0.2% compared to 1 January 2017. From the population estimates of 1 January 2018, only three regions of the country recorded an increase in population compared to a year ago, while nine of them marked a decline. The largest increase was observed in Tirana (+25.1 per 1000 inhabitants), followed by Durrës (+16.9 per 1000 inhabitants) and Vlora (+2.15 per 1000 inhabitants). The largest population reductions were observed in Gjirokastra (-45.3 per 1000 inhabitants), Dibra (-36.6 per 1000 inhabitants) and Berat (-34.2 per 1000 inhabitants) (Association of Albanian Municipalities, 2019).

In relation to the municipalities for each region we note that (Association of Albanian Municipalities, 2019):

- ✓ In the region of Tirana lives 31% of the population, organized in 5 municipalities;
- ✓ In Fier, 10% of the population is organized in 6 municipalities;
- ✓ In Gjirokastra region, 2% of the population of the country is organized in 7 municipalities;
- ✓ In Kukës Region, 3% of the population lives in 3 municipalities,
- ✓ In the Dibra region lives 4% of the population, divided into 4 municipalities;
- ✓ 4% of the population lives in Lezha region, divided into 3 municipalities;
- ✓ In the region of Berat there is 5% of the population receiving services from 5 municipalities;
- ✓ In Vlora region lives 7% of the population, divided into 7 municipalities;
- ✓ In Shkodra region lives 7% of the population divided into 5 municipalities;
- ✓ In Korça region lives 7% divided into 6 municipalities;
- ✓ In the Durrës region, 10% of the population lives in 3 municipalities;
- ✓ In Elbasan Region, 10% of the population lives in 7 municipalities.

7.3. Administrative - Territorial Reform in Albania

A. Some of the reasons that stressed the necessity of implementing a new territorial reform are:

- The need to **consolidate the territory and at the same time avoid the fragmentation of the territory**. Territorial reform is seen as very necessary, assessed as a mechanism that generates the consolidation of the territory;

- **The high fragmentation of the country** - 20% of Albania's population live in 232 LGUs or over 75% of total LGUs have less than 5,000 inhabitants - resulting in very high cost in the delivery of basic services to citizens;
- The need for **a rational and sustainable use of the territory**, in order to minimize as much as possible the cases of misuse, which affect the sustainable development in general, at all levels;
- **Human capacity constraints** facing the often small local units, as a result of the inability to exercise local functions, generating the accumulated revenues of providing services;
- Territorial reform defines the conceptual content of decentralization and strengthens it as a process;
- **The process of fiscal and administrative decentralization** is important factor for increasing fiscal autonomy;
- **The uncertain role of the regional coordinators as supporters** in the exercise of local functions;
- **The need for an internal policy of regional development that meet the requirements of EU integration** and the need for governance at many levels, including that regional; etc.

B. Objectives of the policy for territorial reform:

- a. Improving services for citizens at the local level,
- b. Maximizing efficiency and good governance,
- c. Empowering local and regional governments, citizens and communities.

C. Stages of the Reform

- ✓ Announcement of the initiative of a policy for territorial reform (2013)
- ✓ Voting from the Parliament
- ✓ Establishing structures
- ✓ Analysis and study phase
- ✓ Consultation and technical criteria approval\
- ✓ Consultation process and approval of the new territorial division

D. Application Process

- ✓ Analysis and studies by the Expert Group and the Technical Secretariat
- ✓ Comparative analysis of data and alternatives to ideas proposed by the interest groups and civil society
- ✓ Comparative analysis with European countries models
- ✓ Discussion and due process of options to 12 regional working groups
- ✓ Consultation meetings with representatives of local government

E. Definition of Functional Areas

"Functional area" means a territorial space where there is a dense and frequent interaction between residents and institutions for economic, social, developmental and cultural purposes. The functional area is organized around an urban center that has the highest population size, compared to other centers within the area and has the opportunity to provide the full range of public services that a local unit should provide.

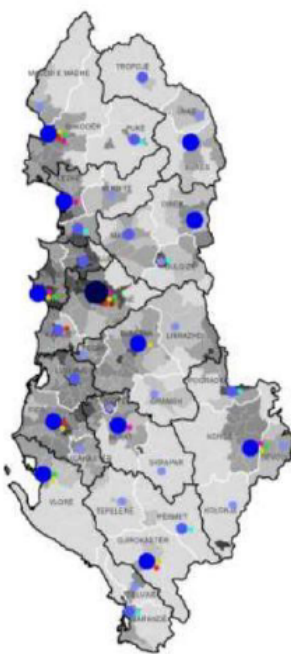
"Territorial continuity" means that the territory of one local government unit is continuous and there are no territorial "islands" belonging to another local unit.

It must have a **significant number of inhabitants**, based on the geographical characteristics of the area. With a significant number of inhabitants is considered a **population on average over 30,000 inhabitants**. It has a **historical tradition** and is characterized by traditional ties between the inhabitants of all the constituent territories. As a rule, the boundaries of the municipalities that join the new units will not be divided, but will be merged as a whole with the new unit.

F. Analysis of indicators of interaction for the functional areas

- ✓ Institutional interactions

INSTITUTIONS AND CENTRAL AGENCIES DISTRIBUTION



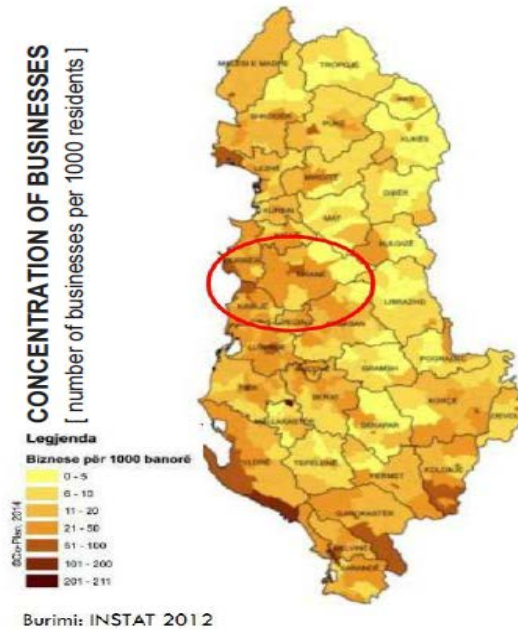
Burimi: KM; INSTAT, Census 2011



- **Regional Center Institutions**
 - Ministries and Central Agencies
 - Department of Agriculture
 - Drainage Board, Regional National Food Authority Directories, Regional Healthcare Directories
 - Education Directory
 - Regional Directorate of Employment
 - Office of Social Care
 - State Labour Inspectorate
 - Service Forest Directory
 - The Court of Appeal
 - Prosecution Appeals Directorate
 - Police and State Intelligence Service
 - Department of Treasury
 - Department of Regional Taxation
- **District Center institutions**
 - Education Office
 - Employment Office
 - Regional Health Directorate
 - Forest Service Directorate
 - District Court
 - District Prosecutor's Office
- **Other Institutions**
 - Basin Management Directorates
 - Nursing homes, Infants homes
 - Vocational Training Center
 - Development Center

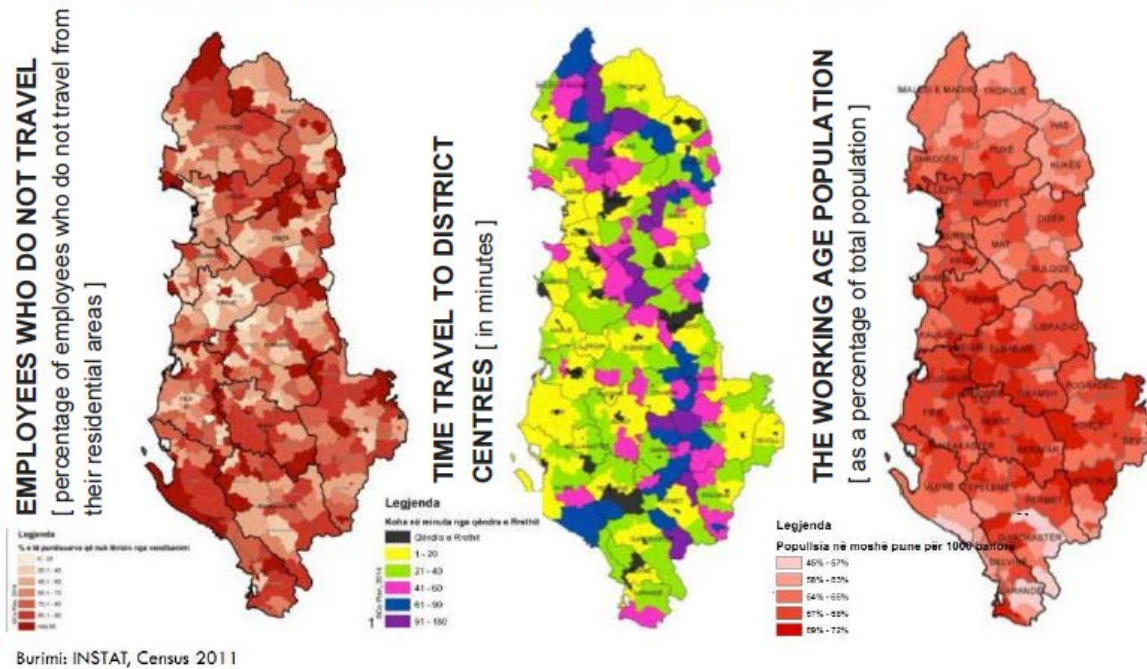
✓ Economic interactions

- Number of businesses
- Economic diversity
- Movements of employees
- Economic Development Potential
- Quality of life and services



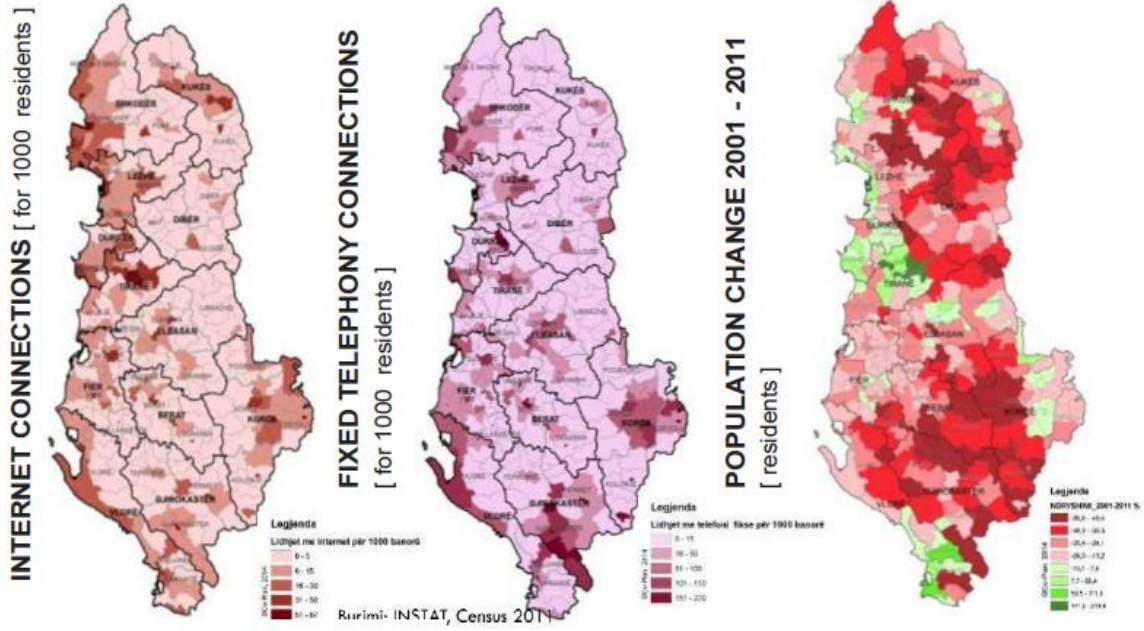
✓ Access and distance to the functional areas centres

MOVEMENT OF EMPLOYEES FROM RESIDENTIAL AREAS

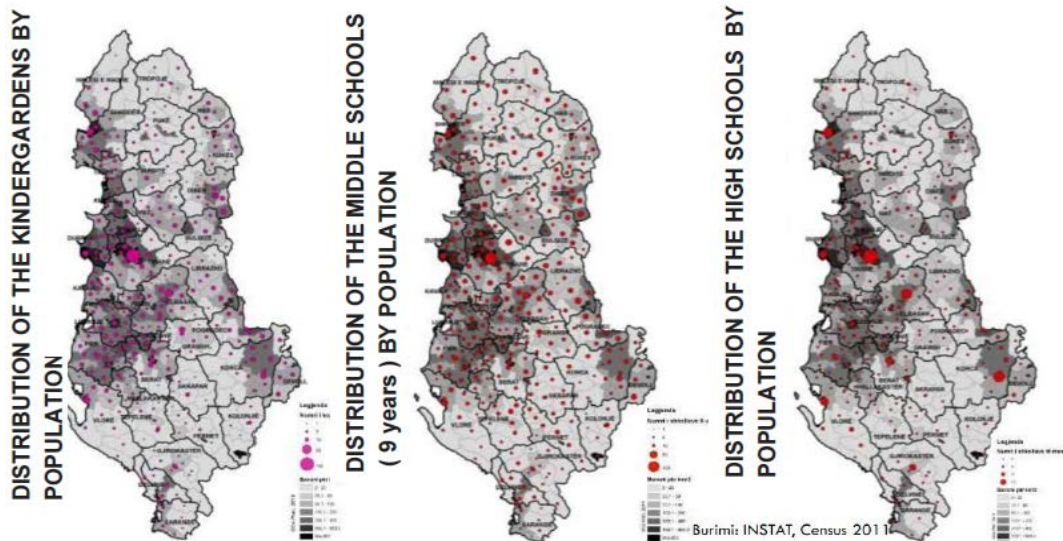


- ✓ Quality of life and services

ACCESS TO SERVICES AND CENTRES



EDUCATION INFRASTRUCTURE AND CENTRES



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Topic 8 - The current local government context in Albania

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Peer contributor: Nikolaidou Sofia, Panteion University

Identification of the new spatial - geographical units and explanation of the management of territories in Albania. Other decentralization and local/ rural development programs in Albania.

This topic explains the main decentralization strategy of the Republic of Albania for the period 2015 - 2020 (Ministry of state and local issues) in terms of the structures of local governance, their functions and responsibilities, intergovernmental relations and institutional capacities.

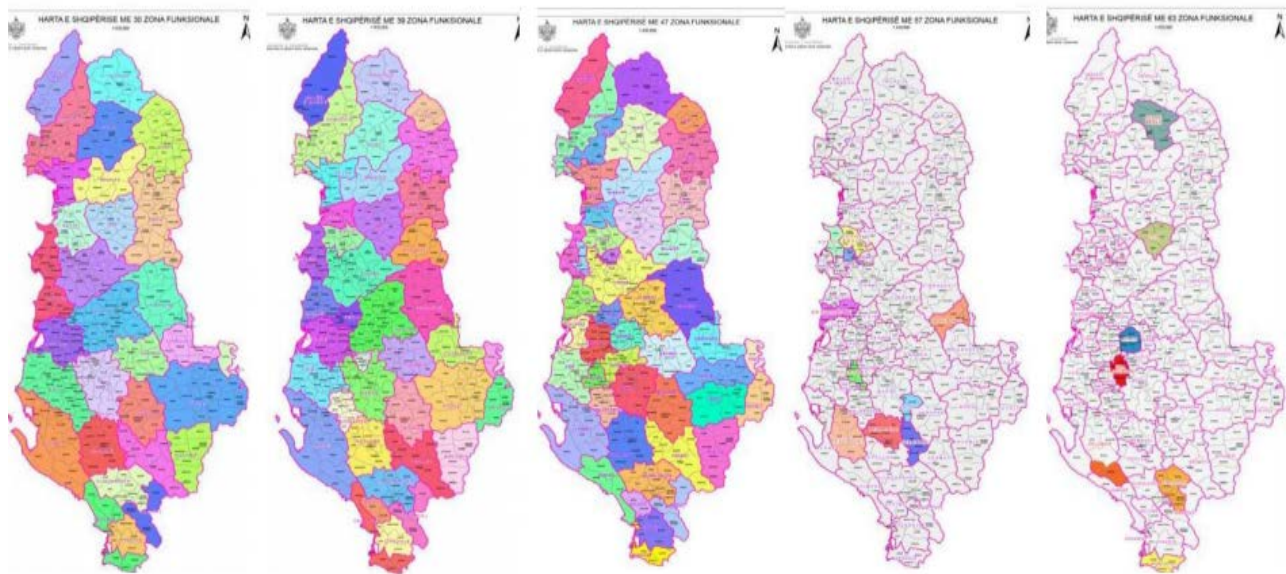
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8.1. The Law on administrative - territorial division of local government units

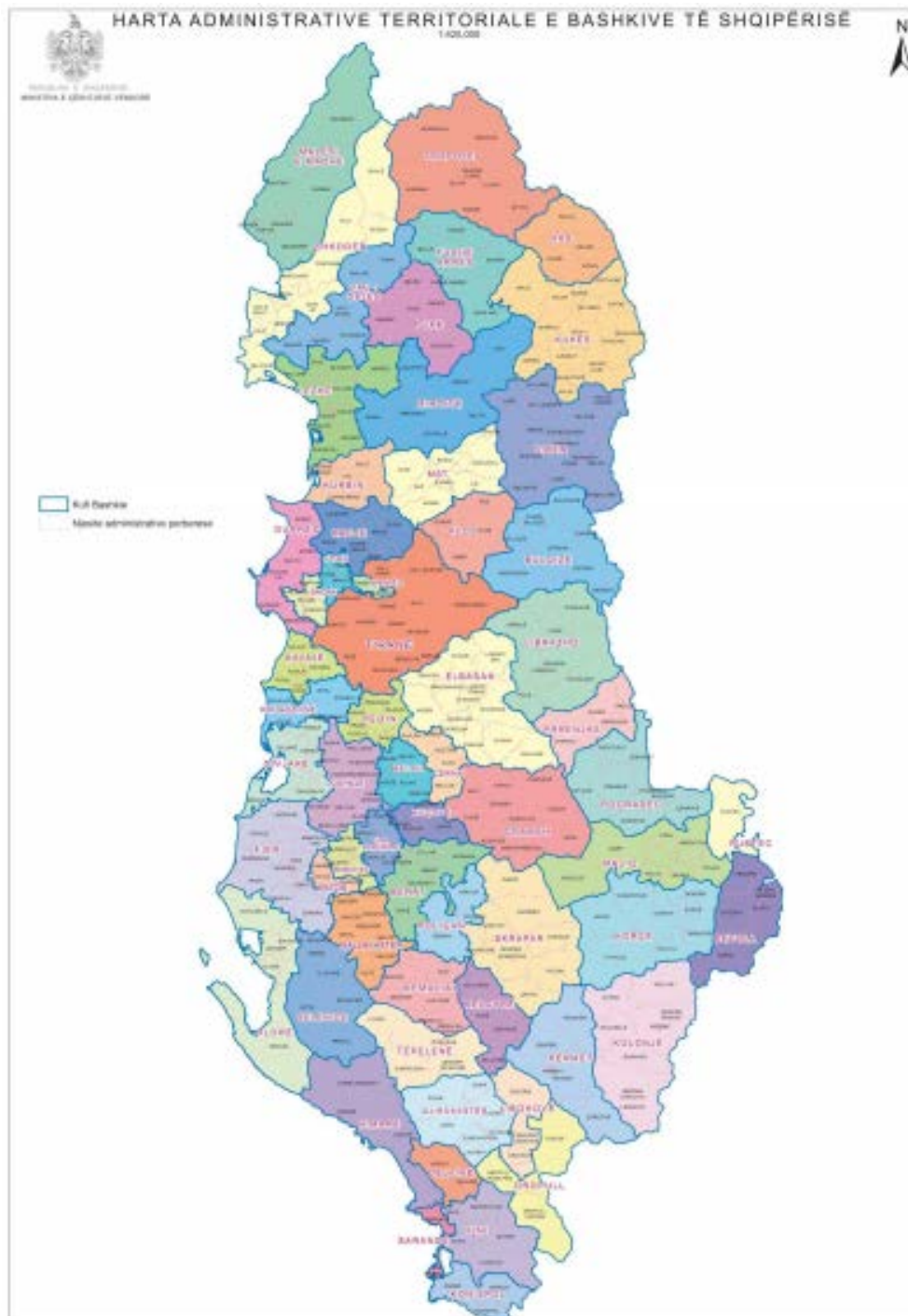
The five variants/ options discussed with the regional working groups for the new administrative reforms were as follows:

VARIANTS	1st VARIANT	2nd VARIANT	3rd VARIANT	4th VARIANT	5th VARIANT
Local Administrative Units	30	39	47	57	63
Average of population: [inhabitants]	93,338	71,798	59,577	49,125	44,446
Average size: [Km2/unit]	944.302	726.38	602	497	449
Density: [inhabitants/Km2]	4051	3116	2586	2132	1,929



The **Law no. 115/2014** "On the administrative - territorial division of local government units in the Republic of Albania" foresaw the administrative division in 12 regions, 61 municipalities and 373 local government units. This law was supplemented by Council of Ministers Decision no. 510, dated 10 June 2015 "On Procedures for the Transfer of Rights and Duties, Assets, Personnel, Archives and other Official Documents to Local Government Units affected by Territorial Administrative Reorganization".

- Law no. 115/2014
- According to the new Administrative - Territorial Division, the local government units are:
 - ✓ 12 regions
 - ✓ 61 municipalities
 - ✓ 373 local government units



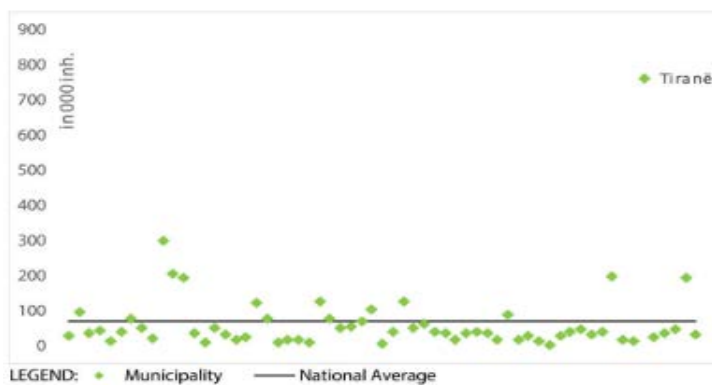
In 2014, Albania undertook once more the initiative to reform local government structure in order to achieve a real and indispensable decentralization after some previous non substantial efforts (Association of Albanian Municipalities, 2019).

The territorial administrative reform aimed to systemize the territory through new administrative boundaries by reorganizing local government units that were highly fragmented, resulting thus to unsatisfactory public services provided to local communities and with no economy of scale, but with excessive administrative costs instead. To address these problems and to improve local governance, the government has engaged in the preparation of the cross-sectoral decentralization strategy and has intervened in the legal framework (Association of Albanian Municipalities, 2019).

The last reform and other decentralization reforms converge on the main goal of strengthening local government by creating conditions for increasing local capacities in delivering quality services and increasing efficiency in managing available resources (Toska & Bejko, 2018). Strengthening local governance and deepening decentralization is expected to strengthen financial and functional positions, increase local fiscal autonomy, increase institutional efficiency, enhance good governance and the enforcement of citizens' rights, and contribute to the country's economic growth and development (CSDLG 2015-2020).

The distribution of the population to 61 municipalities in the country presents significant varies (data of 2016). Populations range from a minimum of about 5,165 inhabitants in the Municipality of Pustec to a maximum of about 763,297 inhabitants in the Municipality of Tirana. Most municipalities host populations below the national average of about 71,467 residents (calculated as the average population of 61 municipalities). Excluding the Municipality of Tirana as an outlier (with an extremely high population), about 73% of municipalities have a population below the national average. Uneven population distribution in the territory carries important implications in terms of costs and delivery of local public services, which, in theory, should be provided with the same standards regardless of the size of the municipality or territorial coverage (Toska & Bejko, 2018).

FIGURE 1 - Population by municipalities and comparison to national average



Source: www.financatvendore.al/; Toska, M. & Bejko, A., 2018

There is a big gap in the perception of access to and quality of municipal service delivery that has deteriorated over the last three years. Satisfaction with the service quality is higher in small-sized municipalities rather than in medium-sized and large ones. No gender differences were observed when it comes to service delivery, but there are, however, significant rural - urban differentiations when it comes to the availability and access to certain services, such as parks and public space maintenance, cultural/ historical/ natural objects, sports areas/ objects and activities, street lighting, and public transport (IDRA & HDPC, 2020).

In the narrow concept of financial autonomy, measured by the ratio of own source revenues to total available financial resources, no significant improvements are evident (Toska & Bejko, 2018).

While local government expenditure has increased in nominal terms (whether this translates to better services or not remains to be assessed), the level of local autonomy/ fiscal decentralization, remains very low according to the indicators analyzed. The hegemonic behavior of the central government regarding local governments seems to have produced significant disparities at the municipal level, leaving the real needs of the communities they represent unaddressed (Toska & Bejko, 2018).

The strategy leaves out some key issues such as the role of regions, lacking a target for reforming the region as the second level of local government. Also, the strategy has no objective for the dynamics of administrative units, which could assist municipal leaders to further decentralize services or streamline reorganization (Association of Albanian Municipalities, 2019).

Staff capacity for certain functions, particularly the highly specialized ones, is one of the major issues coming out of the dialogue with municipal officials. That includes scarce local human resources as GIS operators, urban developers, social workers, engineers to guarantee planning and delivery of public services such as irrigation and drainage systems, waste management, forests management etc. Inability to find qualitative staff remains a challenge for half of the municipalities regarding financial planning, financial mechanisms, and tax collection. There is a strong correlation between the size of municipality and staff skills. However, central government institutions covering LGUs, such as the MoFE, and donors have put a lot of efforts in the capacity building of the local administration staff and in increasing public involvement in local governance (IDRA & HDPC, 2020).

The change brought by the reform caused difficulties to the local elected representatives, in terms of organizational structure and culture that would serve the community. Moreover, the change was related to the communities of rural areas (former communes) who did not elect a Mayor or a council only for them but would have an appointed administrator as the key link to the municipality (Association of Albanian Municipalities, 2019).

The objectives related to fiscal autonomy and economic development of municipalities are very limited due to the current financial system situation. Municipalities are dependent on central finances and lack the tools and power to achieve the local economic development objective (Association of Albanian Municipalities, 2019).

Current interventions dealing with decentralization, particularly its fiscal aspect, seem to have had limited effects for about 75% of the municipalities in the country. These municipalities continue to generate limited revenues from own sources (below the national average). Intergovernmental transfers are somewhat effective in mitigating disparities created at local level, though in a local autonomy

context, this instrument has strengthened municipalities' dependence on the central government, creating a vicious circle. This raises major questions about current vertical decentralization reforms and interventions coming from the central government (Toska & Bejko, 2018).

Coordination and cooperation has improved. Internal vertical and horizontal coordination and cooperation, including among departments and cooperation with the municipal council, perform much better than external cooperation, such as consultation with the central government, cooperation with donors and with other municipalities. Small-sized municipalities have the lowest ratings in terms of cooperation with donors and international community. Consultation with central government and the related satisfaction level are limited to fund allocation (IDRA & HDPC, 2020).

According to the report prepared by IDRA & HDPC (2020) the assessment of the participation and citizen engagement in 2020 shows the same results as in 2016. The indicator related to the engagement with local government or CSOs and membership in political parties, trade unions and NGOs have been rated as "very poor". That suggests that citizens are largely indifferent to decision making and that local governance is an effort made solely by the local administration. There is a significant variation between the perception of the municipal staff and the community in relation to the platforms for citizen participation. Thus, there are cases where officials claim there are effective platforms in place, but that is not what the communities affirm. Several large municipalities seem to be rather optimistic regarding citizen participation platforms, but the attitude is not shared by communities. Significant improvement has been noted regarding participatory budget system. Communities appear to be hesitant when it comes to the changes made to the institutional framework on citizen participation, which might be a result of either limited information or LGU inability to enable their participation (IDRA & HDPC, 2020).

There are obviously good practices of participatory budgeting, public works done with community' contribution, and so on. What is to be distinguished is the use of information technology tools to bring the municipality closer to the citizens, consolidated in some of the large municipalities (Association of Albanian Municipalities, 2019).

Local democracy through participatory/ transparency and accountable local government is still fragile in our municipalities even though interventions have been made with clear legal provisions (Association of Albanian Municipalities, 2019).

8.2. Mapping counties and regions in Albania

➤ Region/ County of Berat



➤ Region/ County of Dibër



➤ **County/ Region of Durres**



➤ **County/ Region of Elbasan**



➤ **County/ Region of Fier**



➤ **County/ Region of Gjirokastrë**



➤ **County/ Region of Korçë**



➤ **County/ Region of Kukës**



➤ **County/ Region of Lezhë**



➤ **County/ Region of Shkodër**



➤ **County/ Region of Tiranë**



➤ **County/ Region of Vlorë**



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Topic 9 - Territorial planning situation of Albania

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The articulation between the different levels in policy formulation (European, national, regional and local) combined with the role of institutions and rural/ local actors in shaping and implementing these policies.

The topic explains how the new legal planning reform, is being supported by the Territorial–Administrative Reform of 2015, according to which the Government supports technically and financially local municipalities to draft General Local Plans, as their main tool for territorial development. We will explain how the use of new integrated planning instruments is developed through a cross-sectoral process involving many actors, at all levels of governance; i.e. First National Spatial Plan for Albania 2030 (adopted by the government in 2016).

Through the presentation and understanding of the new specific laws for planning and development of the territory, students will familiarize the basic principles, responsibilities and rules for territorial planning in Albania, the institutions with planning responsibilities, as well as the planning instruments and at which levels.

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9.1. Territorial Planning in Albania after the reform

Types of planning documents Referring to Law No. 107/2014 "Territorial Planning and Development" (Article 15)

- a. At the Central Level
 - ✓ General National Territorial Plan (PPKT);
 - ✓ National Sectoral Plan (NSC);
 - ✓ Detailed Plan for Areas of National Importance (PDZRK)
- b. At the Local Level
 - ✓ Sectoral Plan at County Level (PSNQ);
 - ✓ General Local Plan (PPV);
 - ✓ Sectoral Plan at Municipal Level (PSNB);
 - ✓ Detailed Local Plan (PDV)

Territorial planning regulation (approved by DCM No. 686 dated 22.11.2017 "On the approval of the Territorial Planning Regulation") presents unified rules for the structure, content and steps for drafting, implementation, monitoring the implementation of plans, elaborating thus planning procedures at central and local level and aiming at homogeneity of form and structure of planning documents in implementation of the Law.

The change of direction in governance in 2013 and the territorial planning reform of 2014 gave rise to the drafting of the first national document on territorial planning after the 1990s, which is named as the General National Territorial Plan (PPKT), Albania 2030, approved by DCM no. 881, dated 14.12.2016. In parallel with it came a couple of integrated cross-cutting plans (PINs) for the two most important regions of economic and social life: "Coastline" and "Tirana-Durres Area" plans were drafted for the first time in implementation of law 107/2014 "On territorial planning and development". After the territorial administrative reform in 2014, Albania went through another reform process of territorial administration, where the number of local government units became 61. As a result we have larger municipalities that now have to administer very complex territories. During the period 2015 - 2017 the General National Plan of the Territory was drafted at a national level and two Integrated Cross-Cutting Plans:

- a. **The General National Territorial Plan** is the first national document of territorial planning and the highest instrument, which addresses in an integrated way the issues of planning, viewing the Albanian territory as a whole.
- b. **The Integrated Cross-Cutting Plan of the Coastline** gives the development vision of the coastline. It orients national developments in the field of tourism, environment, transport, energy, agriculture, culture, etc., as well as urban developments in the territories administered by the municipalities.
- c. **The Integrated Cross-cutting Plan for Tirana - Durrës economic zone** aims to guide the development of the territory through a vision that will function as a common denominator for local government units. This plan is the reference framework during the process of drafting General Local Plans, but also of strategic projects. The plan aims to be a guarantee for foreign

investors and businesses which have an interest in getting involved in the further development of the Tirana - Durrës metropolitan region.

- d. At the Local level, 31 **General Local Plans** have been financed and drafted for 31 municipalities, accordingly.

After 2017, the National Sectoral Tourism Plan for the Alpine area was drafted at the national level. At the local level, the drafting of 8 General Local Plans has started. While in 2019 the drafting of 16 General Local Plans also started.

Drafting of 6 Detailed Plans for areas of National Importance has also started during the 2018-2019 period:

- ✓ PDZRK Karavasta – Seman
- ✓ PDZRK Bogë
- ✓ PDZRK Shengjin
- ✓ PDZRK Drilon – Tushemisht
- ✓ PDZRK Vjosa – Narta
- ✓ PDZRK 5 coastal zone

9.2. National and local authorities of the planning territory and their responsibilities after the administrative - territorial reform

A. Authorities responsible for territorial planning at the central level:

The Council of Ministers, in accordance with the provisions of the law, is responsible for the allocation of funds for the:

- ✓ drafting the General National Plan of the Territory;
- ✓ drafting sectoral plans and detailed plans for areas of national importance;
- ✓ detailing the General National Territorial Plan through the drafting of general local plans;
- ✓ implementation of goals, objectives and action measures, as defined in the sectoral plans and detailed plans for areas of national importance;
- ✓ maintenance of the integrated planning database - National Register of Territorial Planning.

The Council of Ministers is also responsible for the:

- ✓ approval of the General National Plan of the Territory;
- ✓ approval of the regulation of planning, development, construction, regulation of the National Register of Territorial Planning as well as other documents according to the provisions of the law;
- ✓ encouraging of the drafting of national and local planning documents by the relevant planning authorities;
- ✓ supporting of the development of the necessary human and professional resources, at central and local level, for territorial planning, development control and administration of the National Register of Territorial Planning;

The Council of Ministers is acquainted, annually, with the Monitoring Report on the Implementation of the goals and objectives stated in the General National Plan of the Territory, the national sectoral plans and the detailed plans for areas of national importance, and takes measures as appropriate.

The Council of Ministers regularly coordinates and harmonizes the sectoral policies and strategies of the respective ministries.

The Council of Ministers coordinates the collection of reports on the strategic development of each sector, according to the area of responsibility of each ministry. It submits these reports to the ministry responsible for territorial planning and development issues within 6 months from the beginning of the process of drafting or reviewing the General National Territorial Plan.

The National Council of the Territory has the following competencies:

- ✓ decides the approval, the approval with changes or the postponement for further review of the planning documents, requested for approval by the planning authorities, according to the provisions of the law;
- ✓ decides on the approval of sectoral planning documents, defined by special legislation, and which have effects on the territory;
- ✓ determines the national importance of an issue, area or object in the planning of the territory, and approves the detailed plans for areas of national importance, when such are foreseen by the General National Plan of the Territory;
- ✓ decides the approval of special regulations on development conditions for the cases in its competence.

Responsibilities of the **ministry for planning and development**:

- ✓ preparation of territorial planning and development policies;
- ✓ drafting the legal framework of territorial planning and development;
- ✓ taking the initiative and coordinating the work for the drafting of the General National Plan of the Territory, as well as for its review;
- ✓ taking the initiative, as appropriate, and coordinating the work for drafting detailed plans for areas of national importance, as well as for their review;
- ✓ coordination of the objectives of the central planning authorities in the General National Territorial Plan and detailed plans for areas of national importance;
- ✓ conducting studies and evaluations in the field of territorial planning and development. In conclusion, submits to the Council of Ministers for review and approval the measures for the improvement of the respective legal framework and the improvement of the progress of the elaboration of the General National Plan of the Territory;
- ✓ drafting the construction regulation based on the proposals given by other ministries for the construction regulations of the respective sectors;
- ✓ supporting national and international cooperation in the field of territorial planning;
- ✓ promoting and supporting initiatives and programs to improve the professional and technical qualities of planning authorities.

Responsibilities of the **National Agency for Territorial Planning**

- ✓ to coordinate, in general, processes of drafting territorial planning documents, which are undertaken by the planning authorities at central and local level;
- ✓ to support horizontal coordination between national planning authorities during sectoral planning processes or during the process of drafting detailed plans for areas of national importance, with the aim of harmonizing the treatment of issues of national importance, of different areas and sectors;

- ✓ to support the vertical coordination between national and local planning authorities during the planning processes at the local level, with the aim of harmonizing the treatment of issues of national and local importance in the field of territorial planning;
- ✓ to propose to the Council of Ministers, through the minister responsible for territorial planning and development issues, the revision of acts or the drafting of new bylaws in implementation of the law;
- ✓ organization, administration and maintenance of the integrated spatial planning database - National Register of Territorial Planning - with all central and local level planning documents, which have entered the approval process or have been approved by the relevant authorities, as well as other additional data, which are related to territorial planning;
- ✓ checking the compliance of acts published in the register with the laws, planning documents in force;
- ✓ the development of trainings for the public and private sector exercising professional activities in the field of territorial planning, for the implementation of the law and related bylaws;
- ✓ to support national and international cooperation in the field of spatial planning;
- ✓ to inform the public about the territorial planning processes;
- ✓ to encourage and ensure that public participation is guaranteed during the process of drafting and implementing planning documents.

AKPT ensures that the drafting of documents of territorial planning and development control, at central and local level, is in accordance with the provisions of this law, by providing technical assistance to the authorities responsible for territorial planning and development.

AKPT is responsible for preparing:

- ✓ studies on the Integrated Planning System in the Republic of Albania, and to propose to the National Council of the Territory and the Council of Ministers, through the minister responsible for spatial planning issues, the necessary measures for the sustainable development of the territory;
- ✓ Monitoring Reports on the Implementation of the Goals and Objectives stated in the General National Territorial Plan and detailed plans for areas of national importance, on an annual basis;
- ✓ proposals to the minister responsible for territorial planning and development issues, for undertaking planning processes or other necessary measures;
- ✓ proposals to the National Council of the Territory, for the definition of the national importance of an issue, area or object.

B. Authorities responsible for territorial planning at the region level:

Regional Council/ Regional Council Chairman

- ✓ Approves the sectoral initiative at the county level
- ✓ Drafts the PSNQ document
- ✓ Ensures that the PSNQ determines the strategic development of the various sectors within the county
- ✓ Coordinates planning processes at the county level

C. Authorities responsible for territorial planning at the local level:

a) At municipal level:

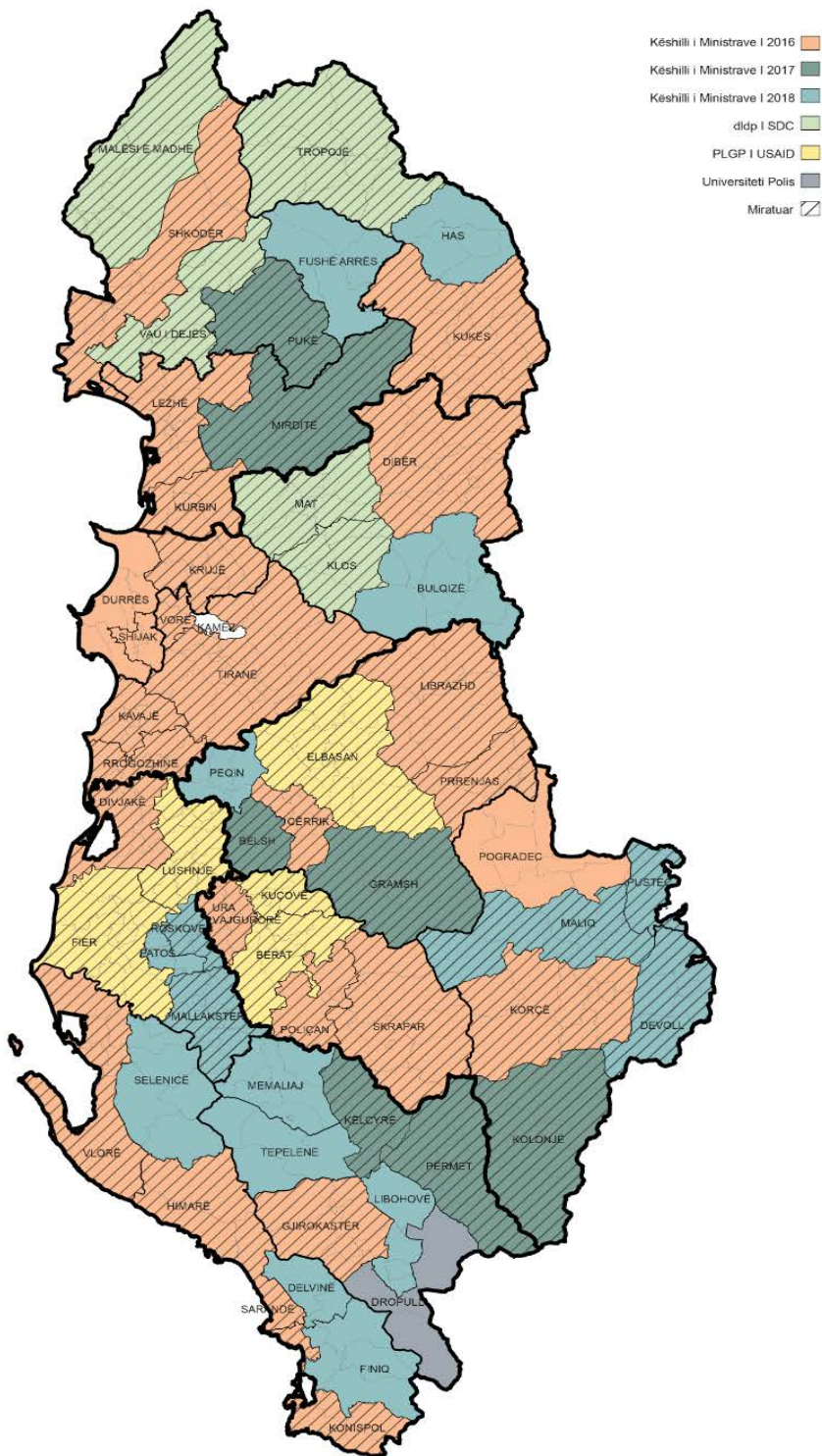
• **Municipal Council**

- ✓ Approval of the initiative for drafting or revising the PPV
- ✓ Monitoring and supervising the implementation of the PPV and PSNB
- ✓ Approval of the PPV
- ✓ Monitoring and supervising the implementation of the PPV and PSNB
- ✓ Review, on an annual basis, of the Monitoring Report on the Implementation of the Goals and Objectives stated in the PPV documents

• **The Mayor**

- ✓ Development of local territory, through the drafting and implementation of spatial planning documents.
- ✓ Drafting or reviewing spatial planning documents in full compliance with PPKT, PKS, PDZRK;
- ✓ Cooperation with AKPT to verify the compliance of PPV with PPKT and technical planning norms;
- ✓ Coordination between public institutions and HR allocation necessary for drafting planning documents at local level;
- ✓ Undertaking the initiative for drafting and reviewing local planning documents.

9.3. Progress of General Local Plans



- **26 PPVs supported by MUD in 2016**

Pursuant to DCM no. 671, dated 29.07.2015 "On the approval of the Regulation of Territorial Planning" (repealed on 06.12.2017) and pursuant to DCM no. 670, dated 29.07.2015 "On the task of the Ministry of Urban Development to carry out procurement procedures for the implementation of the planning competition for the drafting of General Local Plans for 26 municipalities", the process of drafting general local plans was drafted and completed for some municipalities.

With the financial support of the Albanian Government, the Ministry of Urban Development (MUD) through the National Agency for Territorial Planning, has led the technical process of drafting and approving General Local Plans for 26 (marked with salmon color) municipalities: Lezha, Kurbin, Kruja, Dibër, Kukës, Durrës, Shijak, Vora, Divjakë, Kavaja, Rogozhinë, Gjirokastër, Skrapar, Ura-Vajgurore, Poliçan, Vlora, Himara, Saranda, Konispol, Cërrik, Librazhd, Prrenjas, Korçë, Pogradec, Tirana and Shkodër.

Out of these, the General Local Plans for the municipalities (with diagonal lines): Kurbin, Kruja, Dibër, Kukës, Divjakë, Gjirokastër, Skrapar, Ura-Vajgurore, Poliçan, Cërrik, Librazhd, Prrenjas, Korçë, Tirana, Lezha, Rogozhina, Vlora, Himara, Saranda, Konispol, Shkodra, Kavaja and Vora, have been approved by the National Council of the Territory (KKT).

- **5 PPVs supported by USAID - PLGP** (marked with yellow color)

With the financial support of the USAID - PLGP Program, were drafted and subsequently approved by the National Council of the Territory General Local Plans for 5 municipalities: Berat, Kuçovë, Fier, Lushnje and Elbasan.

- **5 PPVs supported by DLDP** (marked with green color)

With the financial support of the Government of Switzerland through the DLDP program, were drafted and then approved by the National Council of the Territory General Local Plans for 5 municipalities: Tropoja, Malësi e Madhe, Mat, Vau-Dejë and Klos.

- **7 PPVs supported by MUD in 2017** (marked with teal color)

With the financial support of the Albanian government, the Ministry of Urban Development through the National Agency of Territorial Planning, were drafted and then approved by the National Council of Territory General Local Plans for 7 municipalities: Puka, Mirdita, Belsh, Gramsh, Përmet, Këlcyrë and Kolonjë.

- **16 PPVs supported by MEI in 2018** (marked with blue color)

With the financial support of the Albanian government, the Ministry of Infrastructure and Energy, through the National Agency for Territorial Planning, has begun work to lead the technical process for drafting General Local Plans for 16 municipalities: Fushë-Arrëz, Has, Bulqiza, Peqin, Roskovec, Patos, Mallakastër, Maliq, Pustec, Devoll, Selenica, Memaliaj, Tepelena, Libohova, Delvina and Finiq, Roskovec, Mallakastër, Maliq, Pustec and Devoll.

- **PPV on independent initiative** (marked with purple color)

With the support of Polis University, the Municipality of Dropull has taken the initiative to start the process and is finalizing the drafting of the General Local Plan for its administrative territory.

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How to prepare spatial plans at national and local levels

Topics 10, 11, 12, 13, 14

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Topic 10 – Guidelines on Preparation and Implementation of General National Spatial Plan

Representatives from ministry in charge and AKPT will be invited to explain spatial planification processes at national level, in regard to preparation and implementation of a General National Plan through specific case studies. The idea is to get familiar and explain through different maps (urban system, infrastructure system, areas of national importance etc.) of a General National Spatial Plan. Possible guest lectures and workshops with representatives from AKPT will be used to facilitate comprehension of the new planning instruments.

General National Territorial Plan

The General National Plan of the Territory defines the mandatory reference framework for all plans drafted in the Republic of Albania. The General National Territorial Plan, as it is drafted and implemented, should follow the principles of planning as an ongoing work process.

1. Authority responsible for drafting the PPKT

The PPKT drafting process is coordinated by the authority responsible for territorial planning at the central level. The action plan for drafting the PPKT is implemented by the Agency (AKPT).

The General National Territorial Plan (PPKT) is drafted by working groups chaired by AKPT, with specialists of public institutions and experts in various fields. The plan is regularly consulted with the inter-ministerial committee, set up at the Council of Ministers, by special order of the Prime Minister.

2. Content of the PPKT Document

- a) Metabolic analysis of flows and in-depth territory for infrastructural, environmental, macroeconomic, social, demographic, sectoral elements, impacts of European policies (i.e. directives) and inequalities.
- b) The strategic vision and development objectives, based on the governance program and in-depth analysis.
- c) Proposal with territorial definitions
 - ✓ defining areas with strategic development priorities;
 - ✓ identifying or reviewing issues, areas and objects of national importance;
 - ✓ clear definition of territorial systems;
 - ✓ determination in the territory of lines, networks, installations, nodes or territories of national infrastructure;
 - ✓ protection measures for natural resources, cultural monuments and cultural heritage sites;
 - ✓ basic strategic sectoral and cross-sectoral programs;
 - ✓ strategic directions for regional development and territorial development issues;
 - ✓ determinations that regulate the influence of other sectors in the territory.
- d) Action plan, projects and strategic investments for the implementation of PPKT;
- e) Maps that accompany and reflect the content of each of the above points;

- f) Relation of strategic investment proposals and pilot development projects;
- g) Strategic environmental assessment study;
- h) Proposals for changing the institutional and legal framework;
- i) Indicators for monitoring the implementation of PPKT.

3. Approval and entry into force of the PPKT

- The process of plan approval contains, at least, the following steps:
 - a) Submitting the request of the authority responsible for the approval of the plan;
 - b) Decision-making of KKT;
 - c) Decision-making of the Council of Ministers.
- The materials submitted/ published for the approval of the planning document are:
 - a) Initiative approved by KKT;
 - b) Full document of PPKT ;
 - c) Environmental Statement on Strategic Environmental Assessment, referring to the special legislation in force;
- After the publication of the complete PPKT document in the Register, the responsible authority makes the request for the approval of the plan in KKT.
- The General National Territorial Plan (PPKT) is approved by the KKT.
- The decision of the KKT is published in the register and in any case on the official website of the Secretariat of the KKT within 15 days from the date of approval.
- The national spatial planning authority requests the approval of the plan to the Council of Ministers.
- The General National Territorial Plan (PPKT) is approved by the Council of Ministers.
- The document of the General National Plan of the Territory enters into force after the approval by the Council of Ministers and the full publication of its documents in the Official Gazette.

4. Implementation and monitoring of PPKT implementation

The General National Territorial Plan is implemented through:

- ✓ national sectoral plans,
- ✓ detailed plans for areas of national importance,
- ✓ sectoral plans at the county level,
- ✓ general local plans,
- ✓ strategic investments and projects,
- ✓ pilot development projects.

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Topic 11 - Guidelines on Preparation and Implementation of General Local Plans

Representatives from AKPT and local administration will be invited to explain spatial planning processes at regional and local level in regard to preparation and implementation of General Local Plans through specific case studies.

This part will be enriched by the fieldwork that will be done by Masters' and pairing PhD students.

General Local Plans

The General Local Plan defines the mandatory reference framework for the protection and use of the administrative territory of the local government unit (municipality). The General Local Plan, as it is drafted and implemented, should follow the principles of planning as an ongoing work process.

1. Authority Responsible for Drafting the PPV

- a) The authority responsible for drafting the PPV is the mayor of the local government unit.
- b) The action plan for drafting the PPV is followed by the working group for drafting the plan, appointed by the mayor, consisting of the technical staff of the municipality and, as the case may be, external technical experts.
- c) The General Local Plan (PPV) is drafted by the working group with:
 - ✓ specialists of the local unit/ public institutions depending on the local unit,
 - ✓ experts in various fields, who may be local or even foreign nationals.
- d) An Agency Representative (AKPT) supports the working group throughout the drafting and approval process in implementing the PPV drafting procedures.
- e) The plan is regularly consulted with the Local Advisory Forum.

2. Drafting, Consulting and Coordination of the PPV

- a) The drafting of the PPV is carried out in several stages, in accordance with the preparation of its constituent documents:
 - ✓ **Preparatory phase** - Drafting of the initiative and preparing the initial database for drafting the PPV.
 - ✓ **Phase I** - Analysis and assessment of the existing condition of the territory.
 - ✓ **Phase II** - Drafting of the territorial strategy and development vision of the municipality.
 - ✓ **Phase III** - Drafting of the territorial development plan and its implementation regulation.
- b) During phases I, II and III, the Strategic Environmental Assessment for the PPV is drafted in parallel.
- c) At the end of each phase, the local authority publishes the material prepared in the National Register of Territorial Planning, for which the Agency must conduct a technical assessment and provide confirmation of the transition to the next phase.
- d) PPV is consulted through:
 - ✓ publication of documents in the National Planning Register;
 - ✓ informing stakeholders through one or more traditional means of information;
 - ✓ organizing meetings with the Local Advisory Forum;

- ✓ organization of at least two public hearings, respectively in phases II and III of its drafting.
- e) The PPV is coordinated through the Planning Coordination Forum at the local level.

2. Content of the PPV Document

- a. Complete geospatial information for the territory integrated in the GIS platform.
- b. Territory Analysis and Evaluation, which includes:
 - ✓ analysis of legislation and prior planning documents;
 - ✓ general analysis of the territory;
 - ✓ land use analysis;
 - ✓ socio-economic analysis;
 - ✓ accompanying maps.
- c. Territorial Strategy, which includes:
 - ✓ findings of the analysis and assessment of the territory;
 - ✓ vision, strategic objectives and development directions;
 - ✓ development programs and projects;
 - ✓ action plan for project implementation;
 - ✓ accompanying maps.
- d. Territorial Development Plan, which includes:
 - ✓ land use plan;
 - ✓ infrastructure and public services plan;
 - ✓ environmental protection plan;
 - ✓ action plan for the implementation of the PPV;
 - ✓ accompanying maps.
- e. Plan Regulation, which provides:
 - ✓ definitions of terms and explanations of codification;
 - ✓ general land use rules;
 - ✓ rules for each unit;
 - ✓ infrastructure rules;
 - ✓ rules for the preservation of the environment, landscape, natural resources and cultural heritage sites.
- f. Strategic Environmental Assessment, referring to the special legislation in force.

4. Steps for the approval of the PPV

Approval of the plan can be done through one or two steps. The manner of approval must be presented in the initiative document.

- ✓ *One-step approval* means the full drafting of the local planning document and then its approval.
- ✓ *Two-step approval* means the approval first of the territorial development strategy of the unit and then, the approval of the development plan of the territory of the unit, accompanied by the regulation of its implementation.

5. Documents for the approval of the PPV

- a) Materials to be submitted to the Municipal Council and published in the register before the approval of the planning document or its components are:
 - ✓ Request of the mayor for approval of the PPV in the Municipal Council;
 - ✓ Approved initiative and approval decision by the Municipal Council;
 - ✓ Constituent documents of the plan;
 - ✓ Agency Compliance Act, or Tacit Declaration of Conformity;
 - ✓ Strategic Environmental Assessment, as well as environmental statements.
- b) Materials to be submitted to KKT and published in the register before the approval of the planning document or its components are:
 - ✓ Request for approval of the PPV in KKT;
 - ✓ All necessary materials;
 - ✓ Decision of approval by the Municipal Council.

6. PPV approval process

- i. The mayor of the local unit, as the authority responsible for drafting the plan, submits for approval the plan or its components to the Municipal Council.
- ii. Review/ improve of documentation and reflection of Agency remarks.
- iii. The documentation, subject to approval, is reviewed by the Municipal Council
- iv. The decision of approval of the plan or its constituent parts by the Municipal Council is published in the register within 10 days from the date of approval.
- v. After the publication of the documentation in the register, as well as after the publication of the decision of approval of the Municipal Council, the responsible authority makes the request for review and approval of the documentation in KKT.
- vi. The documentation, subject to approval, is approved by KKT in accordance with the law.

7. Entry into force of the PPV

- a) The General Local Plan Document (PPV) or its constituent parts enter into force upon full publication in the register of the KKT decision.
- b) The decision of KKT together with the complete accompanying documentation is published in the register within 15 days from the date of approval.

8. Implementation and Monitoring of PPV implementation

- a) The monitoring of the implementation of the PPV is done by the authority responsible for drafting the plan in accordance with the law and by the Agency, in accordance with this regulation.
- b) Monitoring of the implementation of the plan is done on the basis of the action plan and the document of monitoring indicators.
- c) The General Local Plan is implemented through
 - ✓ sector plans at the municipal level,
 - ✓ detailed local plans and
 - ✓ building permits.

Literature

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Topic 12 - Analysis of Implementation of a specific General Local Plan (representative case from north of Albania)

Students will work as a team (at least 3 persons per team) by choosing a representative case from north of Albania to analyze/ criticize what is included, implemented and applied on the specific GLP. They will also analyze if the GLPs include specifications in accordance or not with the EU policies and concepts.

Topic 13 - Analysis of Implementation of a specific General Local Plan (representative case from central of Albania)

Students will work as a team (at least 3 persons per team) by choosing a representative case from central of Albania to analyze/criticize what is included, implemented and applied on the specific GLP. They will also analyze if the GLPs include specifications in accordance or not with the EU policies and concepts.

Topic 14 - Analysis of Implementation of a specific General Local Plan (representative case from south of Albania)

Students will work as a team (at least 3 persons per team) by choosing a representative case from south of Albania to analyze/ criticize what is included, implemented and applied on the specific GLP. They will also analyze if the GLPs include specifications in accordance or not with the EU policies and concepts.

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