

Cooperation in Cross Border Nature Conservation

The influence of the Natura 2000 legislation



Marlies Nering Bögel
July, 2011

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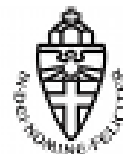
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Abstract

“Nature knows no boundaries” is a sentence you often read in literature. However, European Member States have their own nature policies applied on their nature areas, stopping at the political borders. Due to the development of Europeanization, with its growing influence and regulations, interaction between different states intensified. Contributing to this, the ‘Natura 2000’ legislation was introduced in 1992, seen as the cornerstone of the current European nature conservation policy. By the designation of Natura 2000 sites, which form a network together, endangered and valuable species and their habitats are preserved and if necessary restored. The consequence is that political borders disappear. However despite the fact that the Natura 2000 legislation has a top-down approach, creating cross border nature areas are still mainly the task of regional and local actors. Therefore the ideas about nature and the availability of resources are crucial for successful cross border cooperation. The goal of this research will be the display of the possible different visions that exist amongst actors involved in cross border nature conservation. Important is how these visions influence the process of cooperation. Next step will be to see which influence the Natura 2000 legislation has on these visions, and as a consequence, on the process of cooperation. This goal will be reached by giving insight in the cooperation in a cross border nature conservation project, looking specifically (and only) at the different views and opinions on how to deal with nature. In order to give this insight, four case studies will be used during the research: Wooldse Veen/Burlo-Vardingholter Venn, De Gelderse Poort/Niederrheinische Pforte, Ketelwald en Natuurpark Roode Beek/Rodebach.

In general, the visions on nature and her functions do influence the process of cooperation. This can be in a positive or in a negative way, which can be justified by the case studies. When similarities between visions carried out by the actors exists, this forms a good starting point for the cooperation process. Regardless on which level this agreement is formed for the first time. Secondly, the encouragement of the Natura 2000 legislation on cross border cooperation is minimum. A possible cause of this is that the Natura 2000 legislation does not directly forces that thoughts about the nature in the specific area are the same for all actors involved. Although the Natura 2000 legislation aims at the preservation and restoration of endangered and valuable species and their habitats, its vision is not automatically transferred to the actors in the area. Furthermore, it can be seen that before the introduction of the Natura 2000 legislation the actors were already in line with each other on the visions. These visions also correspond to the vision carried out by the Natura 2000 legislation. On the other hand, it can be argued that the Natura 2000 legislation still indirectly has influence on these visions. Not in the case of forcing a certain vision, but more in the way of bringing people (actors) together. In these meetings visions can be shared, with the possible consequence that at the end one strategy for the area might be formed. However, this indirect influence is the result of the implementation of the Natura 2000 legislation in a certain political system.

Samenvatting

“Natuur kent geen grenzen” is een vaak gelezen zin. Europese lidstaten hebben echter hun eigen natuur wetgeving toegepast op hun eigen natuurgebieden. Deze wetgeving stopt bij the politieke grens. Door Europeanisering, met zijn groter wordende invloed en regelgeving, is de interactie tussen de verschillende lidstaten intensifieert. Bijdragend aan dit is de introductie van de Natura 2000 wetgeving in 1992, wat wordt gezien als de hoeksteen van de huidige Europese natuur wetgeving. Door de aanwijzing van Natura 2000 gebieden, die samen een netwerk vormen, worden bedreigde en waardevolle soorten en hun leefomgeving beschermd en hersteld. Het gevolg hiervan is dat politieke grenzen verdwijnen. Ondanks dat de Natura 2000 wetgeving een ‘top-down’ benadering kent, is het creëren van grensoverschrijdende natuurgebieden nog steeds voornamelijk een taak van regionale en lokale actoren. Hierbij zijn de gedachtes over natuur en de beschikbaarheid van middelen cruciaal voor een succesvolle samenwerking. Het doel van dit onderzoek is het weergeven van de mogelijke verschillende gedachtes over natuur dat bestaan onder actoren betrokken bij grensoverschrijdende natuurbescherming. Belangrijk hierbij is hoe deze gedachtes het samenwerkingsproces beïnvloeden. Daarnaast zal worden gekeken naar welke invloed de Natura 2000 wetgeving heeft op deze visies en, als een gevolg, op het samenwerkingsproces. Dit doel zal worden behaald door inzicht te geven in het verloop van samenwerking in een grensoverschrijdend natuurgebied. Hierbij wordt specifiek (en alleen) gekeken naar de verschillende gedachtes over natuur en hoe met deze natuur om te gaan. Om dit inzicht te geven zal er tijdens het onderzoek gebruik worden gemaakt van vier case studies: Wooldse Veen/Burlo-Vardingholter Venn, De Gelderse Poort/Niederrheinische Pforte, Ketelwald en Natuurpark Roode Beek/Rodebach.

Over het algemeen hebben de gedachtes over natuur en haar functie daadwerkelijk invloed op het samenwerkingsproces. Dit kan zowel op een positieve als op een negatieve manier zijn, wat bevestigd wordt door de case studies. Wanneer de gedachtes tussen de actoren overeenkomstig zijn zal dit een goed uitgangspunt zijn voor de samenwerking. Ongeacht of dit op het niveau van de beheerders is of op het niveau van de overheidspartijen. Daarnaast bevordert de Natura 2000 wetgeving de grensoverschrijdende samenwerking maar weinig. Een mogelijk oorzaak is dat de wetgeving niet een bepaalde gezamenlijke gedachte oplegt aan de actoren. Ondanks dat de Natura 2000 wetgeving streeft naar de bescherming en het herstellen van bedreigde en waardevolle soorten en hun leefomgeving, wordt deze visie niet automatisch overgedragen naar de actoren in de gebieden. Bovendien kan worden geconcludeerd dat de actoren vaak al op de zelfde lijn zaten wat betreft hun houding tegenover natuur voordat de Natura 2000 wetgeving werd ingevoerd. Echter komen deze gedachtes wel vaak overeen met de gedachte die wordt uitgedragen door de Natura 2000 wetgeving. Aan de andere kant heeft de Natura 2000 wetgeving nog steeds wel invloed op de gedachtes, alleen dan op een indirecte manier. Hierbij moet worden gedacht aan het bij elkaar brengen van actoren. Bij deze ontmoetingen kunnen gedachtes worden uitgewisseld met het mogelijke gevolg dat een mogelijke gezamenlijke strategie voor een natuurgebied

kan worden bepaald. Echter is deze indirecte invloed het gevolg van hoe de Natura 2000 wetgeving is geïmplementeerd in het politieke systeem.

Preface

The fascination for nature (conservation) has always been of great influence on my education. As a child I was always taken by my parents to nature areas where the fascination began. During my bachelor study 'Landscape Architecture and Spatial Planning' at the Wageningen University this was even more noticeable thanks to the specialization of the university. With this back ground and the new fascination for the European Union, I started the master 'European Spatial and Environmental Planning' at the Radboud University. In almost all my assignments, and eventually my Master Thesis, this subject returns.

The completion of this master thesis has literally been accompanied with a lot of blood, sweat and tears brought with it. Ultimately it was a great learning process for me.

I would like to thank my parents and Sander Thijssen for all their support during this difficult period. Of course, I am also my supervisor, Mr. M. Wiering, very grateful for the many accompanying discussions and his patience during this long period.

Finally, I would like to thank all the participants for the information they have shared with me in order to establish this research.

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Chapter 1 'Nature knows no boundaries'

1.1 Introduction

"Nature knows no boundaries" is a sentence you often read in literature. But in reality the different members of the European Union apply their own nature policies on their nature areas, stopping at the political borders.

Due to the upcoming development of Europeanization, with its growing influence and regulations, there is a *"growing importance of interactions between social actors from different states, including cross-boundary interactions, international interactions (between representatives of states), and supra national interactions, such as the decision making process in the European Union"* (Mamadouh, 1999a, p. 477). Because of this process and the changing thoughts on nature conservation, the legislation 'Natura 2000' was introduced in 1992 by the European Union. This legislation is seen as the cornerstone of the current European nature conservation policy (Van de Brink et al, 2003; Van der Zouwen & Van Tatenhove, 2002; Decler & de Hullu, 2003). The goal of Natura 2000 is the preservation and restoration of biodiversity in Europe. By the designation of Natura 2000 sites, which form a network together, endangered and valuable species and their habitats are preserved and if necessary restored. The consequence is that political borders, and even existing protected area boundaries, disappear (Zbicz, 2003). This is in line with the agreement that *"among conservation scientists today about the need for regional, ecosystem-based approaches to conservation. In order to most effectively protect habitats and biodiversity, conservation management should occur at the ecosystem level"* (Zbicz, 2003, p.22).

Now the major question is what these new cross border nature areas are? *"In 1996, the World Bank chose to employ the terms 'transfrontier conservation areas' (TFCAs) and 'transboundary conservation areas' (TBCAs). Defined as 'relatively large areas that straddle frontiers (boundaries) between two or more countries and cover large-scale natural systems encompassing one or more protected areas'"* (Zbicz, 2003, p. 23).

These facts might suggest that with the introduction of the Natura 2000 legislation the creation of cross border nature areas would be easy, unfortunately the opposite is true. As agreed by Zbicz (2003, p.23), *"although transboundary ecosystem-based conservation strategies neither should nor can be imposed from the top by well-meaning international organizations and agencies, it can be fostered, encouraged, and nurtured, and this can make a difference"*. From this statement it can be assumed that creating cross border nature areas are still mainly a task of regional and local actors, with the assistance of the European Natura 2000 legislation.

However, *"the different institutional contexts from which actors formulate cross-boundary nature conservation means that ideas about nature and the availability of resources (like scientific knowledge, money media attention), can both constrain and enable the cross-boundary policy-making process"* (De Jong & Van Tatenhove, 1998, p. 165). Meaning that

these ideas about nature and the availability of resources are crucial for successful cross border cooperation.

This research will analyze these (different) ideas and perceptions about nature amongst different actors involved in cross border nature conservation. It might be possible that these actors find themselves in different 'visions', with differences in signification, meaning and interpretation (Aarts, 1998). It would be interesting to see which effect the introduction of Natura 2000 legislation has on these visions. Reason for this is the top-down approach of the legislation.

Due to time limits, the focus in this research will only be on these visions, whereby the influence of the availability of resources on the cooperation will not be taken into account.

1.2 Goal of the research

The goal of this research will be the display of the possible different visions that exist amongst actors involved in cross border nature conservation. Important is how these visions influence the process of cooperation. Next step will be to see which influence the Natura 2000 legislation has on these visions, and as a consequence, on the process of cooperation. Here the assumption is made that, due to the fact that the Natura 2000 legislation is a top-down approach, cooperation will go more smoothly.

This goal will be reached by giving insight in the cooperation in a cross border nature conservation project, looking specifically (and only) at the different views and opinions on how to deal with nature.

From this goal the following research question can be formulated:

“What is the influence of different views about nature and her function on the cooperation in a cross border nature conservation project?”

“Does the Natura 2000 legislation encourages this cooperation?”

It has been chosen to add a second question to show that this research basically exist of two parts. First the different views about nature and her function will be examined, followed by the connection to the Natura 2000 legislation that might exist.

1.3 Hypothesis

As slightly can be seen in the goal (and introduction) of this research, there are already some assumptions before the research even has started. The first assumption can be related to the statement of De Jong & Van Tatenhove (1998, p.165) mentioned in the introduction of this research. They argue that different *“ideas about nature and the availability of resources can both constrain and enable the cross-boundary policy-making process”*. So on the other hand it might be concluded that when these ideas about nature are the same this positively

influences the process of cross border cooperation (and policy making). This argument forms the basis for the first assumption. Again, it has to be clear that in this research the focus will only be on these different ideas. The influence of the availability of resources will be neglected in this research.

1. When views about nature and her functions are the same amongst actors, cross border cooperation has a bigger change to be successful.

The second assumption has to do with the fact that the Natura 2000 legislation has a top-down approach. Therefore, simply said, it forces regional and local actors that have the same specific vision about nature and her function.

2. Since the Natura 2000 legislation has a top down approach, it 'forces' local actors to have the same specific vision about nature and her function.

Finally, continuing on the second assumption, the Natura 2000 legislation can even be the cause of cross border cooperation in natural border areas.

3. The Natura 2000 legislation encourages cross border cooperation in general.

1.4 Research Design

The different phases which will be conducted in this research are shown in the research model (figure 1).

First, attention will be paid to the theory underlying this research. With the use of this theory a better insight and understanding will be given of the cooperation between the two countries. Secondly, in order to investigate this cooperation on a more practical level, a number of case studies is selected. As seen in figure 1, the selected case studies are: 'Wooldse Veen/Burlo-Vardingsholter Venn', 'Gelderse Poort/Niederrheinische Pforte', 'Het Ketelwald', 'Natuurpark Roode Beek/Rodebach'. The selection of these four case studies and their features will be explained further in chapter 3. After the case studies are selected, a closer look will be taken at the cooperation in these areas by using the conceptual model (chapter 1.4.1) and the accompanying questions.

Based on the analysis of the case studies, the outcomes will be reflected on the main research question, which (hopefully) gives a clear view of what influence of different view about nature and her function on the cooperation in a cross border nature conservation project. Next to this it is the question whether the Natura 2000 legislation has any effects on the cooperation between different countries. In other words, it will show whether the introduction of this European legislation is encouraging a cross border cooperation.

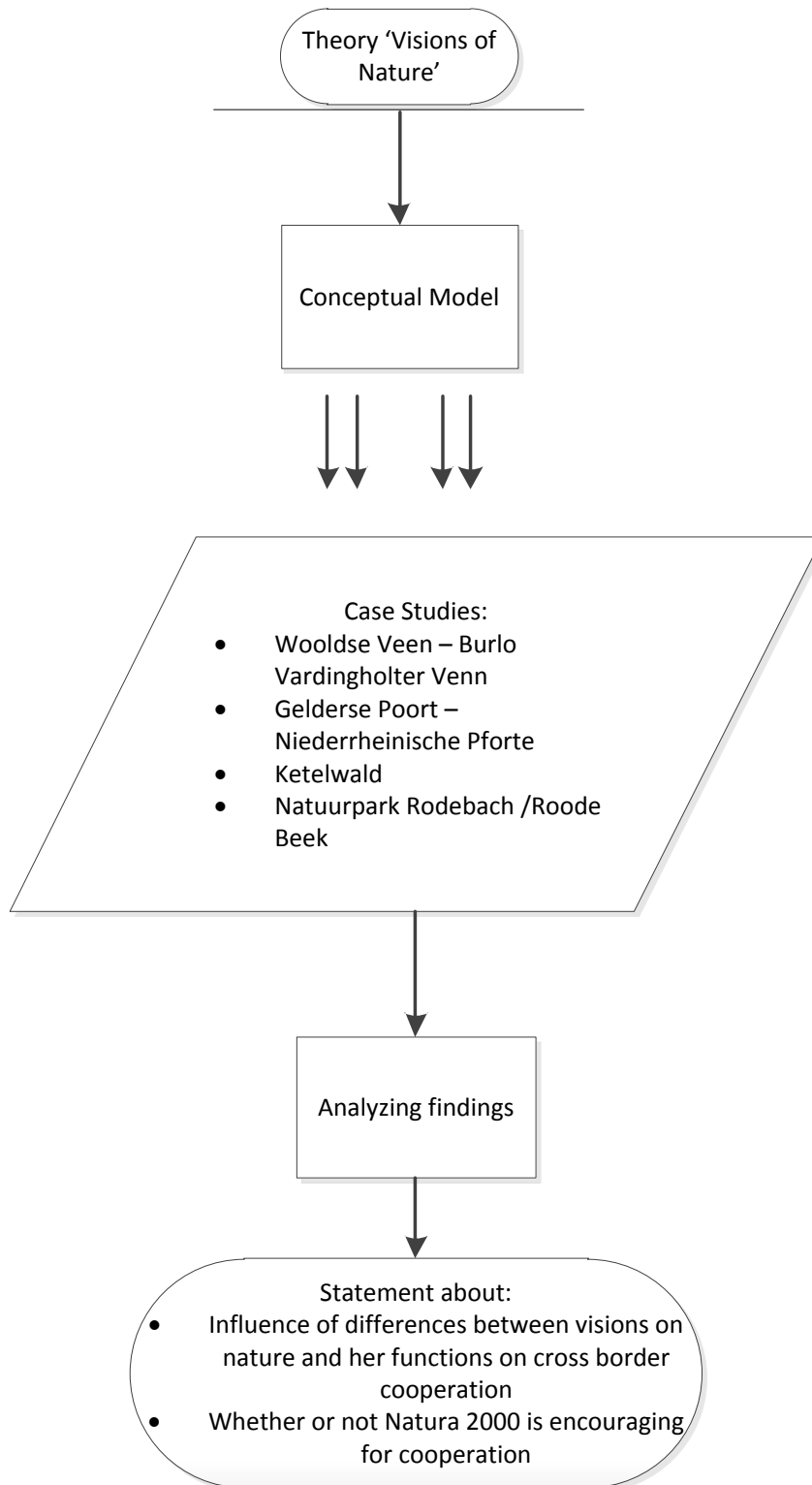


Figure 1: Research model

1.4.1 Conceptual model

As can be seen in figure 1, the conceptual model plays an important role in analyzing several aspects in the different case studies. The conceptual model is depicted in figure 2, showing all the different aspects of that must be addressed in this research in order to formulate a answer on the research question. It shows the connections between the different aspects.

Concluding from the research model, the theory 'Visions of nature' will be central in this research, forming the theoretical framework. Therefore this aspect will return multiple times, which can be seen in figure 2. Firstly the national nature policies in both countries (the Netherlands and Germany) shall be discussed, with the purpose of discovering which visions on nature can be distinguished over history and which are dominant nowadays. These visions at the national policies might influence the visions at the local level resulting in a connection between these aspects. However, before this step is made, attention will be paid to the European Natura 2000 legislation. The legislation will be largely introduced by looking at the general regulation (history and purpose), the vision of nature which will be carried out and the process of implementation in the Netherlands as well as in Germany. The next step covers the cooperation in the specific border crossing areas. A closer look will be taken at the process of cooperation, if it is a success or failure (looked only at the visions¹) and what are the explanatory aspects for this outcome. Here, also the role of the Natura 2000 legislation will be taken into account (if applicable). In the final stage of the research, the process of cooperation in the specific areas and the theoretical framework will be connected to each other, to see whether the theoretical framework has any effect on the process of cooperation.

On the basis of the conceptual model some sub-questions are derived, which will help to answer the research question:

1. What does the national nature policy look like and which visions can be discovered over time in the Netherlands and in Germany?
2. What is Natura 2000 and which visions can be discovered?
3. How is the cross border cooperation in the specific area?
 - a. Process of cooperation
 - i. Successful or failure?
4. What are the visions of nature of the involved actors?
 - a. The Dutch partners on local level
 - b. The German partners on local level
5. Do the visions on nature have an effect on the cooperation?
6. Which role has Nature 2000 played in the cooperation?

These sub-questions will constitute the structure of this research.

¹ As said before, due to time limits, in the process of cooperation only attention will be paid regarding the different visions on nature. Therefore the influence of the availability of resources on the cooperation will be neglected.

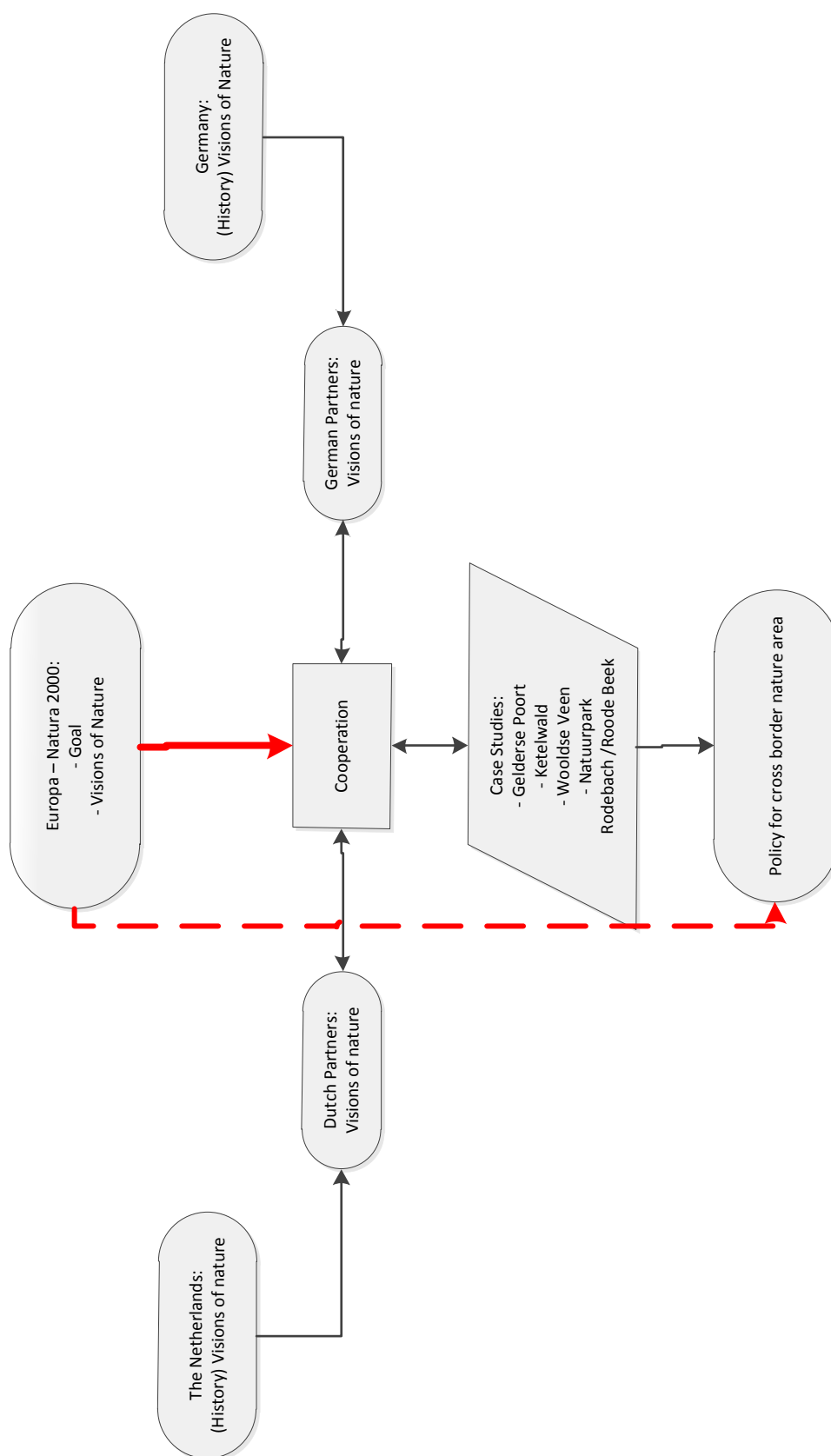


Figure 2. Conceptual Model

Chapter 2: Theoretical Framework

In this chapter the theoretical framework will be discussed which underlies this research, consisting of the 'human-nature relationship'.

2.1 Human-nature relationship

For as long as mankind can remember, the human race has been dealing with nature around him. As a consequence, the 'image' of the role of people in this world, has always been strongly connected to the visions on nature (Thooft, 2000), with great differences between cultures and over time.

Many scientists have expressed for many years (and mostly still express) that mastership is the dominant position of humans towards nature in the western world (Van den Born, 2006, p. 80). An example is provided by Boersema (1991). He observed that in spite of all the important differences and a lot of interesting undercurrents, a cosmology has indeed developed from the late Middle Ages on, that can be called typical for our Western culture: the mechanized world view, in which humans are at the top. However, it is argued that 20th century developments in particular (large scale environmental pollution, climate change and serious decline of nature) induce the general population to reconsider its world view. An often heard warning is that if we continue to live and think as we are used to, we may not be able to oversee the consequences (Van den Born, 2006). Looking at the 20th and continuing in the 21th century, it can be seen that there is no 'common' thought about the relationship between mankind and nature (Van den Born, 2006). People now have their personal view and opinion about nature and the role of people (Thooft, 2000).

In this chapter, the focus lies on what the human place is in nature. This relationship between humans and nature is classified in many ways by many authors (Davies, 2006). Davies (2006) argues that managing these human-nature relationships lies at the heart of environmental policies.

Before starting this chapter, the distinction has to be made between the 'scientist point of view' and the 'society point of view'. This distinction is necessary because policy making has been changing over the last decades; it is changing more and more from making policy 'behind closed doors' to a more 'interactive' form of policy making (also when it comes to nature (conservation) policy. *"The essence of interactive policy making is to organize and facilitate a process in which different stakeholders negotiate and learn their way towards policies that are acceptable to all of them"* (Aarts & Van Woerkum, 2000, p. 37).

The cause behind this is that nowadays governments and government offices and staff in general do not have 'legitimacy' as a matter of course: they are no longer obeyed simply because they are authorities, gifted with the power to regulate everything. Over the last decades, citizens have become more emancipated, with the consequence that governments have to prove the legitimacy of their actions (Aarts & Van Woerkum, 2000). Looking at the environment, and the subdivision 'nature', Corbett (2006, p.11) argues that *"environmental*

issues are not just the purview and concern of scientists and policymakers, but involve every single individual”.

2.2 From a scientist point of view

Obviously, the opinions of scientists, particularly ecologists, have an important role in creating nature conservation policies. As Lenders (2006, p. 193) argues, *“both nature conservation organizations and governmental policy makers lean heavily on ecological knowledge for answers on scientific nature conservation questions and expect unambiguous answers from ecology”*. However, looking at the discipline of ecology, we can say that many different or even competing views and opinions on nature are existing within the discipline.

As said before, the relationship between humans and nature is classified by many authors, also from the scientists point of view. The guiding classification is set up by Lenders (2006). Strangely, in literature two different classifications are found on the scientists point of view, both described by Lenders. Since both classifications are considered important in the present research, they are combined based on similarities, in order to give a clear overview. In general, four directions within these different views can be distinguished, wherein three visions are dominant (figure 3).

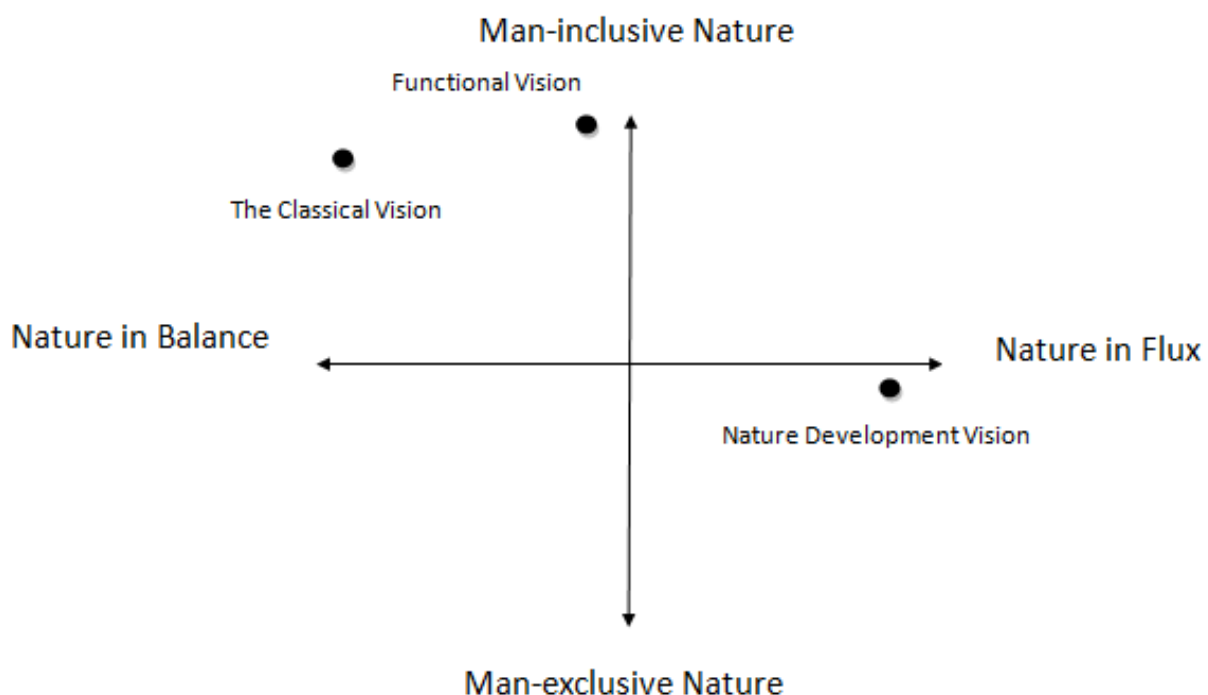


Figure 3. Scientists vision of nature. Source: Lenders, 2006

The first part (the first distinction given by Lenders) of this figure shows the construction of an ecologically founded vision on nature and includes fundamental questions such as whether humans are or are not an inherent part of nature and whether nature is fundamentally in balance or flux (Lenders, 2006). These basic questions form the two axes of figure 3. Next to these guiding questions, the three main strategies in the ecological science are implemented. These are formed by the second distinction of Lenders (Lenders, 2006), and have to be seen as modes of thinking and acting (Van der Windt, Swart & Keulartz, 2006):

- Functional Vision (functional)
- Classical Vision (arcadian)
- Nature Development Vision (wilderness)

The Functional Vision

In the functional arrangement, nature is adapted to current uses of the landscape. Because of conditions produced by human use, the nature that results is often characterized by species normally associated with human settlement. The functional arrangement is strongly anthropocentric and considers nature primarily as an economic resource or at least as being subservient to humanity (Van der Windt, Swart & Keulartz, 2006). Because in this mode nature around us is considered merely functional, the Functional Vision can be found in the man-inclusive nature section. Also nature needs to be in balance to be an economic resource for mankind. Although the Functional and Classical Vision now belong to the same section, still a major difference can be distinguished between them. This difference can be interpreted by the position of the different visions in the section.

This distinction made by Van der Windt, Swart & Keulartz (2006) is also recognized by Van der Born et al. (2001) and is entitled as “ *‘Images of nature’, which relates to questions of what nature is and what the types of nature are that people distinguish*” (p.66). Later on in this research, this particular distinction will play an important role.

The Classical Vision

The Classical Vision is also known as the ‘arcadian arrangement’ and refers to so-called ‘semi-natural’ and extensively used cultural landscapes, meaning man-inclusive nature and nature in balance. Under some conditions, human influence is considered positively because it may enhance biodiversity and help to create a harmonious landscape. Natural processes and human intervention are allowed in so far that they contribute to the conservation of valued patterns (Van der Windt, Swart & Keulartz, 2006).

The Nature Development Vision

The Nature Development Vision is also known as ‘wilderness’, a concept which implies a whole different meaning. From figure 3, it can be seen that this vision contains man-exclusive nature and nature in flux. This means that nature is considered as self-regulating with little or no human influence. Recreation and other activities are possible on a small

scale and do not disturb the ecosystem seriously. Because of the importance of natural processes, relatively large areas are required. Therefore, nature and culture, especially nature and modern agriculture, must be separated. Utilizing nature is unimportant and often rejected (Van der Windt, Swart & Keulartz, 2006).

2.3 From a society point of view

2.3.1 Compositionism and Functionalism

The first classification for the relationship between humans and nature that we discuss is the difference between two 'nature conservation philosophies'; *compositionism* and *functionalism*, designed by Callicott, Crowder & Mumford (1999) and used by many authors (Alrøe, 2000; Phillips, 2008; Tybirk, Alrøe & Frederiksen, 2004). Compositionism and functionalism are the renewed terms of the twentieth-century '*resourcism*' and '*preservationism*' (Callicott, Crowder & Mumford, 1999).

In pure ecological terminology, compositionism perceives the world through the lens of evolutionary ecology, an essentially entity-oriented, biological approach to ecology that begins with organisms aggregated into populations. These evolving populations interact, most often autecologically and agonistically, in biotic communities. Functionalism perceives the world through the lens of ecosystem ecology, an essentially process-oriented, thermodynamical approach to ecology that begins with solar energy coursing through a physical system that includes but is not limited to the biota (Callicott, Crowder & Mumford, 1999).

Now connecting these pure ecological explanations to the place that humans have in nature, we see that compositionists "*tend to think that people are a case apart from nature*" (Callicott, Crowder & Mumford, 1999, p. 24). Functionalism on the other hand, "*tend to think that people are a part of nature*" (Callicott, Crowder & Mumford, 1999, p. 24).

It has to be noted that although Callicott, Crowder & Mumford sharply distinguish the difference between the two terms, they also argue that in practice they are "*two ends of a continuum*" (Callicott, Crowder & Mumford, 1999, p. 24). Because of this, we will not only use this distinction, but also the distinction discussed in the next paragraph.

2.3.2 Images of Relationship

Images of relationship are defined as "*the images that people have of the appropriate relation between humans and nature*" (Van den Born, 2006, p. 64).

In 'Visions of Nature' by De Groot, Van den Born & Lenders (2006), the writers have made an overview (table 1) of images of the human-nature relationship, which are based on American and Dutch environmental philosophy.

Anthropocentric images:

- Man the Technocrat-Adventurer
- Man the Manager-Engineer of nature
- Man the Caretaker of nature

More ecocentric images:

- Man the Guardian of nature
- Man and nature as Partners
- Man the Participant in nature

Table 1. Images of the human-nature relationship. Source: De Groot, Van den Born & Lenders (2006)

Looking at the three anthropocentric images, it can be seen that their common factor is that nature does not have an intrinsic value (De Groot, Van den Born & Lenders, 2006), which means that nature doesn't have a value of its own (Zimmerman, 2007). In other words, nature has only a functional value for the humankind. However, the anthropocentric images differ in the degree to which this purely functional nature (ecosystems, natural resources, the climate system, the planet) is assumed to be vulnerable. In this distinction there are two extremes. The first one is the Technocrat-Adventurer, where the environment is seen as 'weak sustainability', so that *"man-made recourses may be substitutes for the natural ones and through technological development, humankind will continue to solve its problems"* (De Groot, Van den Born & Lenders, 2006, p. 11). On the other hand, the Caretaker considers the earth system as something fragile, of which we depend on so that we need to have *"models and scenarios that should enable (adaptive) management of the planet and smaller-scale ecosystems"* (De Groot, Van den Born & Lenders, 2006, p. 11).

Within the group of more ecocentric images, the official explanation of Guardianship is based on the Christian notion *"that humans are above nature but yet nature has a value of its own, because the link between God and nature does not only run through humans but also directly"* (De Groot, Van den Born & Lenders, 2006, p. 11). However, in the more recent explanation, God has left the picture but the position and value of nature remains. In the Partnership image, *"nature comes alongside with people"* (De Groot, Van den Born & Lenders, 2006, p. 11). Nature is seen (also in Participant) as the overarching cosmos and the all-pervading process of life, in which man's role is then to participate in this overarching process and system (De Groot, Van den Born & Lenders, 2006).

Because this list might be a little incomprehensible De Groot, Van den Bron & Lenders (2006) created a shortlist version (table 2).

<p>1. Mastery over Nature</p> <p><i>Man the Master Compromises the optimistic Technocrat-Adventurer who trusts human capacities to escape from nature and continue the human enterprise, and the less daring Manager-Engineer, who organizes nature and human activities such that carrying capacities are not exceeded. Both ways, nature is seen as carrying instrumental value only.</i></p>
<p>2. Stewardship of Nature</p> <p><i>Man the Steward comprises the caretaker of nature who sees nature as a subtle, fragile system to be handled with care and precaution for the benefit of humankind, and the guardian of nature who recognizes not only that but also that nature has an intrinsic value of its own, borrowed as we have it from God or future generations.</i></p>
<p>3. Partnership with Nature</p> <p><i>In the Partnership image, humans and nature both carry much of the same value and share the planet in relationship of work, play and spirituality. Intrinsic value is seen not only in humans and in nature separately, but also in the harmony and intensity of their relationships.</i></p>
<p>4. Participation in Nature</p> <p><i>In the participation image, a key aspect of being human is to be part of the great system and process of nature. In this view, humans have a strong, often spiritual bond with nature. Although human influences on nature may be substantial, nature will remain in being even if mankind ceases to exist.</i></p>

Table 2. Shortlist of images of human-nature relationships. Source: De Groot, Van den Born & Lenders (2006, p. 12)

Although this distinction looks as the ‘best practice’ and ‘the most tractable’ to classify the human-nature relationship in the selected countries, it still needs to be mentioned that “concrete people are seldom as simple as *Man the Master*, *Man the Guardian* or any other abstract *Man*. Attitudes are contextual, which means that they vary between situations, at least to some extent, and people’s moral repertoire is less explicit and rigid than formal philosophies. Yet, people do display certain degrees of consistency in terms of the images of relationship” (De Groot, Van den Born & Lenders, 2006, p. 12)

Images of relationships (representing personal values and visions of nature) such as those discussed before are obviously mental and cultural constructs (De Groot, Van den Born & Lenders, 2006; Nevers, Billman-Mehecha & Gebhard, 2006). But as Ingold (2000) argues, it is not necessary at all, that the images of relationships are needed, to have real relationships. Nature’s beauty, values dangers and affordance are given us as they are given to children. Images of relationships are not a prologue for relationships to be established, but the epilogue, that is, they are our interpretations of the types of these relationships. This epilogue is needed in order to put the relationships into language and communicate them. As such, i.e. as part of culture, the images of relationship remain important: for teaching and

discovery, for preaching and critical debate, for policy making and for science too (De Groot, Born & Lenders, 2006, p. 13).

Next to this, *“if visions of nature and human/nature relationships are interconnected with value structures in our minds, then how people view nature and humans/nature relationships probably reflects what they consider to be desirable (or undesirable), and at the same time may also influence how nature is perceived and evaluated in new situations”* (Nevers, Billman-Mahecha & Gebhard, 2006, p. 109)

2.4 Combining the views from scientists and society

Combining the visions of the scientist and society is necessary in order to compare possible different views. In order to do this, similarities have to be found between the two classification. Therefore, figure 2 and table 2 are used.

The first thing that stands out, is that the categories of table 3 are all situated in the section of man-inclusive; this means that people always see themselves within/as part of nature. Next to this the categories imply that nature is in balance. However, this factor depends on the area that will be surveyed. In table 3 the similarities can be seen between the two distinctions.

It stand out that the ‘Nature Development vision’ does not have similarities with any other vision. However, this vision shows some unique features. Therefore this vision is added to the list under the name ‘Wilderness vision’ (see section 2.2.) and will form the fifth vision.

Similarities	Participation in Nature	Stewardship of Nature	Partnership with Nature	Mastery of Nature
The Classical vision	X	Humans are the caretakers of a fragile nature	Humans are the caretakers of nature, but humans and nature are more related to each other; cultural landscapes	X
The Nature Development vision	X	X	X	X
The Functional vision	X	X	X	Nature has a pure functional purpose; it is only seen as a carrying instrumental value

Table 3. Similarities between the used distinctions.

All these remarks are resulting in the following figure 4. This figure will serve as our leading human-nature relationship framework in this research, in order to compare the different visions that exist among the actors.

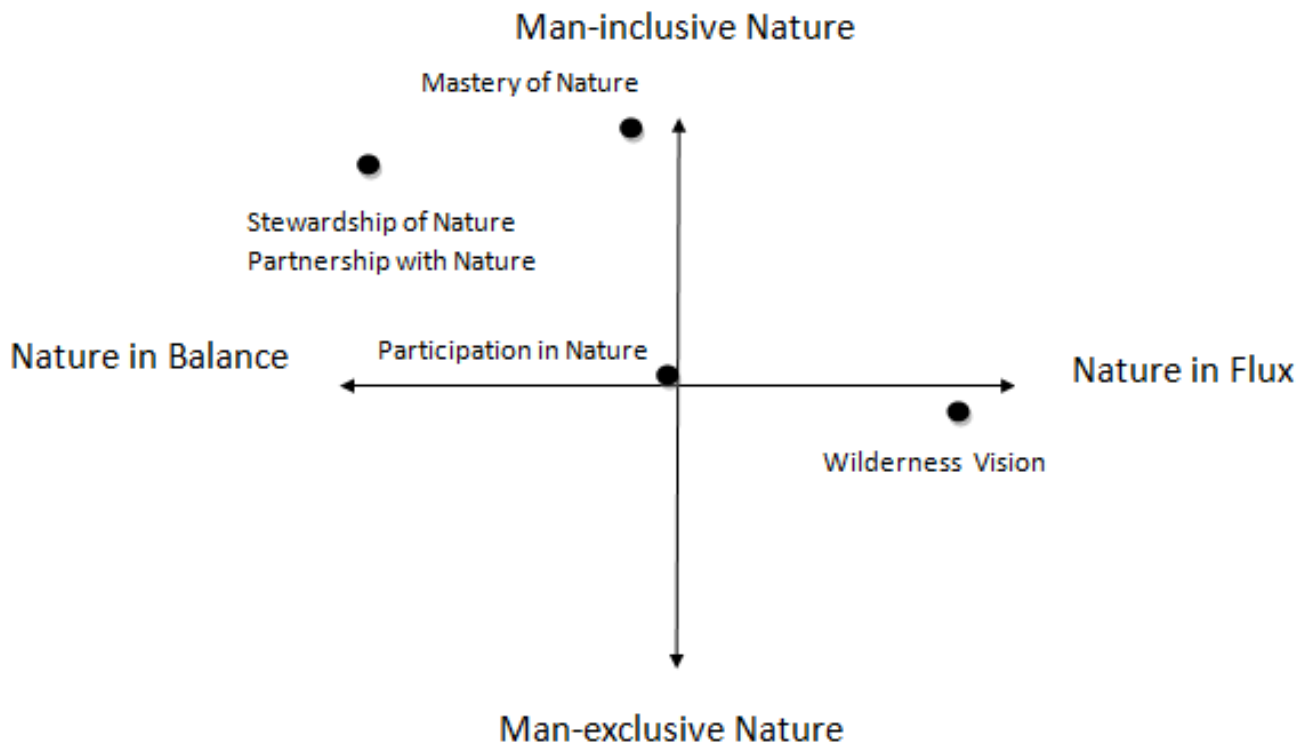


Figure 4. Common Human-Nature Relationships

2.4.1 Features of the different visions

To make the different views clearer, a summary will follow containing the typical features of the different views.

Mastery of Nature:

- *Nature has pure a functional and instrumental value;*
- Considers nature primarily as an economic resource or at least as being subservient to humanity;
- The nature that results is often characterized by species normally associated with human settlement.
- Functional arrangement

Stewardship of Nature:

- Humans are above nature;
- *Humans are the caretakers of a fragile nature;*
- *A prudent and protective attitude towards nature.*

- Arcadian vision

Partnership with Nature:

- Humans are the caretaker of nature;
- There is harmony in the relationship between humans and nature, they 'share' the planet → '*cultural landscapes*'.
- Arcadian vision

Participation in Nature:

- Nature stands above humans, they are part of a greater system;
- *Human actions are guided by nature.*

Wilderness Vision:

- *Minimum or no human (interacting) involvement in nature;*
- Nature and culture is separated;
- *Nature regulates its own development.*
- Nature Development vision

Given the different overviews of figure 4 and the features of the different visions, the theory of 'human-nature relationship' has become more applicable and is ready to use in this research. The italic features of the different vision are seen as typical elements and distinguish the visions from each other. These elements will be very important by determining which vision is valid in the case studies.

2.6 Using the theoretical framework

Knowing the content of the theoretical framework, the question is how this will be used in this research. As seen before, the different articles on 'nature visions', are subdivided into five divisions. These five divisions will be used very practical, meaning that they will directly be applied on the case studies; what vision on nature do the different actors have in the cross border nature conservation area when they think about the specific area.

However, in order to find out which visions will apply in an area, there will be looked at different aspects. These aspects will be used in order to derive a specific vision:

- Function of the area; are multiple functions allowed
- Aim of the area; what kind of management, what is the purpose of nature
- Role of humankind
- degree of accessibility; recreation
- degree of self-regulating of nature.

These aspects will be discussed during the interviews with participants. A list of participants can be found in Annex 2.

Looking at these aspects, it can even be stated that 'visions of nature' are strongly connected to the use of the area, the way there is and will be taken care of the nature in the area, and how the human role fits into this area. It is recognizable that the 'images of nature' (see 2.2 the science point of view) outweigh the 'images of relationship'. Still these differences are strongly connected to each other, what Van den Born et al. (2001) entitle as elements in which 'visions of nature' is used as an umbrella term. Therefore, the term 'vision of nature' will be used in this research, although it is defined somewhat different from the common theory.

Chapter 3: Methodology

In order to answer the main questions and reach the goal of the research, this research will focus on four different cross border nature conservation areas (case studies). To find out the specific situations of the case studies, the different visions of nature and her function, the process of cooperation and the influence of the Natura 2000 legislation, this research performed a literature study and semi-structured interviews. The literature study is used to get general information about the area; what happens in the area and how is the area managed? Also the literature may be useful to understand the process of cooperation between the different actors. The second method will be a set of interviews held with the main actors of each case study (from both countries), to discover their visions of nature, her function and the process of cooperation. The interview guide used in the interviews can be found in Annex 1. Due to a limited amount of time, only managing actors and governmental actors will be interviewed. However, these actors are often the ones which are very involved and have a lot of influence in the area. A list of participants can be found in Annex 2.

3.1 Case Study Selection

This research focuses on four cross border nature areas to make a more general statement; 'Wooldse Veen/Burlo- Vardingsholter Venn', 'Gelderse Poort/Niederrheinische Pforte', 'Ketelwald', 'Natuurpark Roode Beek/Rodebach' (figure 5). Three factors underlie the selection of these areas:

- The fact that the area is crossing the Dutch-German border
- The fact that there is cooperation between Dutch and German partners
- Whether or not the area is recognized as a Natura 2000 area.

This last condition is especially important, since we need to have an area that is designated as Natura 2000 area and an area that is not in order to find out whether or not Natura 2000 has influence on the cooperation. However, there has to be said that although the chosen areas that do not have a Natura 2000 status, they still are part of European projects like Intereg etc.

Now looking back at the conceptual model and the corresponding (sub)questions, for the case studies that are not assigned as Natura 2000 areas, everything that is related to Natura 2000 does not apply.

Since the Natura 2000 legislation is so determinant in this research, it will be performed mainly from a Dutch perspective. This decision is made because of the requirement of setting up a management plan for Dutch Natura 2000 sites. Therefore it may be easier to understand what the influences are of the Natura 2000 legislation on the visions of nature and the cooperation processes. Also it might be assumed that because of these management plans more conflict between actors can appear.

3.1.1 Wooldse Veen/ Burlo-Vardingholter Venn

The nature area 'Wooldse Veen' is located southeast of the Dutch community Winterswijk. Together with the German nature area 'Burlo-Vardingholter' Venn it forms a peat area. The Dutch area is about 50 hectare, the German side is more than 100 hectare. The area is partially the property of and managed by Natuurmonumenten (a Dutch nature conservation organization) and some private owners since 1949. In cooperation with German societies, the goal of the area is to restore natural values in the area. Both the Dutch and German sides of the area are recognized as a Natura 2000 area.

3.1.2 De Gelderse Poort/Niederrheinische Pforte

The second case study that will be used as an example is 'De Gelderse Poort'. Due to the different levels of nature protection at both sides of the border, this area is interesting to investigate in this research.

During the 1980's, there were major developments in the river landscape of which 'De Gelderse Poort' (designated as a cross boundary nature development project in 1989 by the Dutch government) is part of. On the one hand, there were urban expansions around Nijmegen en Arnhem, while also rural areas outside the dykes (the floodplains) were handed over to nature. The rural areas inside the dykes were improved in order to serve modern agriculture. The concept of giving areas back to nature was a completely new development in the Netherlands. It was not allowed to perform agriculture in the floodplains anymore. Only major grazers were allowed in order to create a varied development of vegetation, so that the area would not overgrow and eventually turn into a forest.

On the German side of the 'De Gelderse Poort' there is no separation between the different area functions; nature and agriculture are combined. Only a small area is designated as special protected nature area. Only a few simple rules obtain here so that a small scaled landscape is protected and maintained.

Looking now at these two different situations, the level of protection is not enough; they do not fit together. On the side of the Netherlands a part of original cultural landscape has disappeared. On the side of Germany the low level of protection means that the conservation of meadow birds and flowery meadows will be difficult.

Next to this, the area is also recognized as a Natura 2000 area, meaning that there must be one similar strategic plan for the whole area.

3.1.3 Het Ketelwald

In June 2000 the idea was came up to create a cross border nature area in the region between Nijmegen (the Netherlands) and Kleve (Germany): 'Het Ketelwald'. The first goal of this cooperation was to connect existing nature areas on both sides of the border with each other, to contribute to the European network for nature in the future. Secondly, the cooperation aimed at strengthening of the natural value of the area. The group that took the original initiative for the cooperation formulated a vision for the area, containing the foundation of projects and the concrete description of these projects. At the same time the

project “Action Green Belt – Nature without frontiers in Europe”, founded by NABU (Nature And Biodiversity Conservation Union; one of the largest and oldest environment associations in Germany) and Natuurmonumenten was completed. The aim of this project was to inventory the nature areas on both sides of the border and to get the conservationists of both countries in touch with each other for future cross border nature projects.

3.1.4 Natuurpark Roode Beek/Rodebach

In 2002, plans to develop a large transboundary naturepark in the community Onderbanken and the adjacent German community Gangelt, were created. The Dutch part of the park is part of the ‘Ecologische Hoofdstructuur’; an extended network of nature areas throughout the Netherlands.

3.2 Features Case Studies

After getting in touch with the chosen case studies, an overview of the features of the four case studies is given, in order to make clear what the starting points (and the differences) are.

Common feature:

- All case studies were intended to be international (cross border) projects from the beginning.

Wooldse Veen/Burlo-Vardingholter Venn:

- Old (1949) nature conservation area;
- Area is designated as Natura 2000 area.

De Gelderse Poort/Niederrheinische Pforte:

- Relatively old (1989) nature conservation area;
- Project originally intended by the Dutch government;
- Level of protection is different on both sides of the border;
- Area is designated as Natura 2000 area.

Het Ketelwald:

- Relatively new (2000) cross border naturepark;
- Project originally intended by the Dutch, though a quick cooperation with the Germans;
- Aim of the project is to connect existing nature areas on both sides of the border with each other, to contribute to the European network for nature in the future;
- Many (successful) attempts to bring Dutch and German partners together;
- In this research the area is designated as ‘no Natura 2000 area’.

Natuurpark Roode Beek/Rodebach:

- Relatively new (2002) cross border nature park;
- The Dutch area is already part of a nature network (Ecologische Hoofdstructuur);
- Extra attention is given to the process of good cooperation;
- For now, no intentions to be part of Natura 2000, so in this research designated as 'no Natura 2000 area'.

Concluding from these features two similarities between the different case studies can be seen. First of all, all case studies were intended to be border crossing from the beginning. Secondly, regarding the relatively young projects, extra attention is given to the process of cooperation.

Though one feature is different in every case study. In the case of 'De Gelderse Poort' the area is recognized as a Natura 2000 area, however the cooperation is poor: probably two different 'visions of nature' exist in the area. Although 'Wooldse Veen/ Burlo-Vardingholter Venn' is recognized as a Natura 2000 area too, the cooperation has been more successful compared to the case of 'De Gelderse Poort'. Looking at the relatively young projects, in the case of 'Het Ketelwald', extra attention is given to the process of cooperation, in order to be part of European network of nature in the future. Whereas 'Natuurpark Rodebach/Roode Beek' has no intentions to be part of this network (for now).

These features may be crucial in this research as regard to how strong the influence of Natura 2000 on the cooperation in a cross border nature project is.



1. Wooldse Veen – Burlo Vardingholter Venn
2. De Gelderse Poort – Niederrheinische Pforte
3. Het Ketelwoud
4. Natuurpark Roode Beek/Rodebach

Figure 5. Locations of the case studies

Chapter 4: Natura 2000

This chapter describes the development of the national nature policy in the Netherlands and Germany. Next to the development, also attention will be paid to which visions can be recognized in these policies. Furthermore, it introduces the European Natura 2000 legislation and its vision, followed by the process of implementation in both countries.

4.1 Nature conservation policy in the Netherlands

In the 19th century, the Dutch landscape changed quickly due to a fast growing population, industrialization and developments in agriculture. This caused the decline and disappearance of many species in the Netherlands (Van der Windt, 1995). As a result, inspired by the German, English and American nature conservation, special attention was given to the protection of nature during the 19th century. In the beginning, this focus was put specifically on the protection of species, which led to the establishment of the Animal Protection Society and the creation of the 'Useful Animal Law' in 1880. This law, only intended for species that were useful for agriculture and silviculture, can be seen as the beginning of the nature conservation policy in the Netherlands (De Visser, 2009).

During the late 19th century, the common interest in nature increased, given the increase of natural history societies, handbooks and zoos. Most important in this period is the establishment of the Dutch Natural History Society (later Royal Natural History Association) in 1891, which forms the basis for 'nature conservation thinking' in the country (De Visser, 2009).

When the city of Amsterdam conceived the plan to dump waste into the 'Naardermeer' in 1904, a change took place. The consequence was a protest of the Dutch Natural History Society, because of the area's natural history and aesthetic value. This led to the first action aimed at the conservation of nature, which brought many nature conservationists together. Eventually the city of Amsterdam cancelled its plan due to financial reasons. This cancellation led to the preservation of the 'Naardermeer'. An indirect consequence of this was the decision of conservationists to unite themselves in the Association for the Preservation of Nature (Natuurmonumenten) in 1905. This association aims to buy pieces of natural areas that are valuable in terms of natural history and/or include endangered species. Since its foundation, the members of the association discuss its strategy: (1) intervention to preserve certain nature, (2) let nature take its course (undisturbed nature) or (3) exploiting nature, including forestry, recreation and hunting (Van der Windt, 1995; Interview F. Mandigers). The first acquisition of Natuurmonumenten was the 'Naardermeer' in 1906, which makes it the first natural monument of The Netherlands.

Shortly prior to this, in 1899, the Forestry Commission (Staatbosbeheer) was founded; a governmental organization focused on management and exploiting of waste lands and forests, however without a conservation goal (Interview F. Mandigers). In 1922, the Forest

Law made its entrance, aiming at the preservation of forest areas. This was followed by the Nature Conservation Act of 1928, intended as a financial instrument to maintain estates. Although at this time a Nature Conservation Law was promised on a short term, it would take approximately another forty years for this law to be passed. From 1928 onwards, the conservation factor would also play a role in the strategy of Staatsbosbeheer. In addition, since this date, a nature conservation department exists on a national governmental level, placed under the Ministry of Culture, Recreation and Social Work (De Visser, 2009).

In the period between 1927 and 1936 an initiative of Natuurmonumenten, the so called 'Provincial Landscapes', was created in each province, forming the third group of nature conservation organization besides Natuurmonumenten and Staatsbosbeheer. In 1932, the Contact Committee on Nature Conservation (Contact Commissie inzake Natuurbescherming) was established, a platform of conservation organizations, which exerted pressure on the government to be more concerned about nature (De Visser, 2009).

From the 1930s, a conflict arose regarding the so called 'waste lands' between nature conservation organizations and the agricultural sector, followed by the discussion about the separation or interweaving of nature and agriculture. Since 1942, the national government subsidizes areas purchased by the nature conservation organizations. After 1945, there is an increase in the number of organizations concerned with nature conservation. Simultaneously, the attention of the national government for nature conservation increased, leading to the creation of the Nature Conservation Board in 1946, which advises the national government about the subject. From 1955 on, there is a significant increase in the available funds for purchase of areas, made possible by a well-reasoned purchase plan, indicating which areas are eligible, based on scientific arguments.

The discussion about the strategy of Natuurmonumenten, which was mentioned before, continued over time. Finally Natuurmonumenten decided to adapt its specific strategy to the stage of succession of an area. For semi-natural landscapes and cultural landscapes, human intervention is needed in order to sustain the landscapes. The underlying scientific theory is that with the different forms of human interventions in the past, a large variation in dynamics and species occur in these landscapes (Van der Windt, 1995).

Not until 1967, the Nature Conservation Law (already promised in 1928) enters into force. It aims to protect areas as well as species. In areas which are designated as protected nature reserves (monuments), harmful acts are prohibited, as well as damaging (picking, trapping etc.) the protected species.

Since 1975, the engagement of the government in nature conservation intensively increased, leading to three Notes and the integration of environmental policies with other sectors. The two Notes on national parks and national nature reserves (as determined by the International Union for Conservation of Nature) are both advisory, involving the purchase

and protection of appropriate areas. The third Note, the 'Relatienota', focuses on the Dutch cultural landscapes, where for the first time the distinctions were made between reserve areas and management areas. In the reserve areas, no agricultural activities are possible (eventually), where in the management areas nature conservation and agriculture can be combined. This policy focuses strongly on the use of power from the central government instead of consultation with stakeholders such as farmers (De Visser, 2009).

In 1982, the department of nature conservation is placed under the Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries (from 1989 Ministry of Agriculture, Nature Management and Fisheries). The next major policy document in the history of the Dutch Nature Conservation policy is the Structure Plan Nature and Landscape Conservation from 1985. For the first time a comprehensive vision about nature and landscape is presented. In this plan, driven by an increase in ecological knowledge, attention is paid to natural processes and nature development². The concept of nature development is a consequence of (and based on) the introduction of the term 'ecosystem', focusing on self-regulation of the entire system, which finds its own natural balance. Alongside, the observation is made that nature is influenced by the wider environment. A consequence is that a number of organizations advocate the separation of nature and other functions, while others advocate the integration of different functions. Organizations such as Natuurmonumenten are based on a combination of separation and integration, the so called 'soft separation' (De Visser, 2009).

In 1989, the 'Survival Plan, Forest and Nature' was created, leading to additional measures to prevent acidification, eutrophication and desiccation (De Visser, 2009).

The most important document for nature conservation in the 1990s, is the Nature Policy Plan (1990), which noted that the number of plant and animal species in the Netherlands was still declining. The main focus of Nature Policy Plan is on the separation of functions (De Visser, 2009), where the core of the Nature Policy Plan includes setting up a coherent network of nature areas, the National Ecological Network (NEN), for the benefit of special natural features. The concept of the NEN illustrates the general change of the defensive characteristic of the policy field turning into an offensive character of the policy field (see section 4.3.2, The cornerstone of European nature policy), where some natural areas are designated to be preserved and others are purchased to be developed (De Visser, 2009; Bogaert & Gersie, 2006). The implementation of the Nature Policy Plan appears to be focused on achieving the NEN, where much attention is paid to nature development, while nature outside the NEN has, unfortunately, little or no priority.

² The idea of nature development is created by ecologist Vera and Baerselman, both employed at the Ministry of Agriculture, Nature Management and Fisheries and co-responsible for the Nature Policy Plan. Inspiration is partly the 'Oostvaardersplassen', where an undeveloped area, in a short time, developed into a partially self-regulating ecosystem.

In 1991, as a consequence of the Decentralization Impulse (Decentralisatie Impuls), the nature conservation policy changes, focusing more on regions and effects. In addition, the impact of agriculture on nature decreases (Kuindersma, 2002).

The Nature Policy Plan is followed by the Structure Plan Green Spaces (Structuurschema Groene Ruimte) in 1992, in which agreements were made about nature areas within the NEN, nature areas outside the NEN, the organization of the rural area and the preservation of valuable cultural landscapes. Finally, in 1998, a new Nature Protection Policy is created, focusing on the protection of areas and adapted to the signed European agreements and obligations (see section 4.3).

In 2000, the "Note nature, forest and landscape in the 21st Century" appears, serving as a successor of the Nature Policy Plan and titled as 'Nature for People, People for Nature'. The focus is on broadening of the nature conservation policy. This means that the opinion of citizens about what they want with nature is strongly taken into account ('nature for people). On the other hand, this means that citizens are more involved in nature, the management of it and the policy for it ('people for nature'), whereby nature is seen as a broader concept, from city park to a large nature conservation area.

Looking at the 21st century, there a network society is existing with a lot of varying coalitions and less obvious support of their followers (De Visser, 2009), influencing also the nature conservation policy (Kuindersma, 2002). This change is reflected in the Program Management (2002). The Program Management includes measures and grants aiming to involve farmers and individuals in nature conservation and development. However, in 2006, a transformation of the Program Management has taken place, because of complicated experiences with the subsidy system. With the introduction of the Rural Area Investment Act (Investeringsbudget Landelijk Gebied) and the Law Organization Rural Areas (Wet Inrichting Landelijk Gebied) in 2007, an additional step is taken to improve the rural area with a focus on nature and landscape (De Visser, 2009).

In 2001 and 2009, an adjustment of the Nature Protection Policy of 1998 is made, so that it (better) matches to the European obligations. In addition, in 2002, the Flora and Fauna Act was established, which also obligates European legislations (European Bird and Habitat Directive, see section 4.3.1), aiming at protecting plants and animals (De Visser, 2009).

Concluding, over time, a strong increase in regulations and policies regarding the preservation of nature can be recognized.

4.1.1 Recognizable visions of nature in the history of Dutch nature policy

In the history of the Dutch nature policy, the dominance of different visions are discernible. In the beginning, the 'Stewardship of Nature' is applicable. This slowly changes into the 'Partnership with Nature'. At the end 'Participation in Nature' and in some way also 'Wilderness Vision' becomes popular.

4.2 Nature policy in Germany

Because of the political system of Germany³, attention is only being paid regarding the general developments of the nature policy in Germany in this paragraph.

In the first half of the 19th century, attention for nature conservation was developed in the 'Rhineland'. The valued characteristics of that time of this area and the varied landscape are often mentioned as main reasons for this development. Along the river, many concentrated urban areas emerged, roads were built and larger growing areas were used for agricultural purposes. Already in the mid-nineteenth century, the Rhineland, together with the region of Saxony, were the largest industrial areas in Germany. In these regions, the first movement against the negative consequences for nature and landscape of this industrial development was formed. In this early industrialization period between 1873 and 1895, the focus on the environment was stimulated by several developments. People had more leisure time and tourism was developed. People increasingly got more attracted to nature (De Jong, 1999).

Nature conservation was primarily a matter for experts and eccentrics in the beginning. Typical of the period is the use of the term 'Naturdenkmalpflege'. The aim of this concern about natural monuments was twofold: (1) on the one hand securing the natural history and landscape value areas (or parts of it), and (2) on the other hand compensation of the areas that were exploited by industry, urbanization, traffic and large scale mining. The romantic landscape view with a huge emphasis on caves, moorland, rocks, trees, valleys and other remarkable parts of nature formed the basis for the plea for nature conservation and landscape conservation. However, as a contradiction, nature conservation was also argued from a more utilitarian view. A good example is the Reichsvogelschutzgesetz (1908), which is also the first legal legislations in the field of nature conservation (De Jong, 1999).

About the same time, the idea of (national) nature parks became more popular, which in 1889 led to the creation of Naturschutzparke. Until that time there was, although some small-scale individual initiatives were undertaken, no structural involvement of the government. By the end of the 19th century, the debate involving the protection of birds, protection of forests and landscapes and national parks were brought together in a more general nature conservation movement. A large number of local and regional science and geographical groups, which exerted the protection of nature, were set up. The increasing industrialization and the use of the landscape by modern agriculture, which changed Germany between 1890 and 1910 from an agrarian to an industrial state, were seen as a threat to nature. This stimulated the awareness of the value of nature and 'Heimat' (De Jong, 1999).

³ Nature conservation is in Germany mainly the task of the Bundesländer. The key responsibilities are at this level.

In the early stages of the development of Germans nature protection, it was strongly influenced by ideas from the 'Heimatschutzbewegung'⁴. In this period, the important difference between Heimatschutz and Naturschutz, was that the Heimatschutz occurred as a cultural historic movement fighting for preservation of (non-human influenced) primeval landscapes and the management of cultural landscapes. The motives of the Naturschutz had a scientific character and aimed at protecting rare or endangered species and less on protecting areas. Important person within the Heimatschutz movement was Ernst Schutz Rudorff (who coined the term 'Heimatschutz'). Central in the vision of Rudorff was the preservation and protection of the landscape from a cultural and aesthetical point of view (De Jong, 1999). The image of nature and landscape was based on the past with the agricultural community as a benchmark. The Heimatschutz gave a broad view of the issues surrounding nature and landscape, and drew attention to the totality and unity of the landscape. Although the Heimatschutz was a popular movement, the first instrument designed for conservation in its concrete form was inspired by the Naturdenkmalpflege, conceived by Prof. Hugo Conwentz (1855-1922). For the first time, Conwentz succeeded to establish a practical conservation program which takes into account the protection of animals and plants, and not only the visual, scenic aspects (combination of Heimatschutz and Naturschutz). This perception of nature was called 'Naturdenkmäler' and included individual objects such as mountains, natural landscapes, lakes, wildlife and rare species (Van der Windt, 1995).

Looking back at this, it can therefore be said that the history of nature conservation in Germany occurred in many different initiatives and motives. In 1904, several associations within the nature conservation seemed to find each other in the Bund Heimatschutz, of which Naturdenkmalpflege was included in the organizational way. However, the differences between the Heimatschutz and Naturdenkmalpflege became increasingly clear in the course of 1904 and 1905. Although the Heimatschutz, when arguing about nature conservation, made use of environmental and ecological arguments, they remained loyal towards the motivation based on aesthetic considerations. Until 1918, the aesthetic approach in the Heimatschutz movement was clearly dominant (De Jong, 1999).

Within the Bund Heimatschutz, the organization of larger protection area was seen as a major issue in the discussion on nature conservation. These establishments of these National Parks was, unlike America, not based on motives of preserving wilderness and natural resources, but on arguments from the Heimatschutz. This shows that the nature conservation in Germany, when looking at its arguments and motives, was between scientific knowledge and cultural awareness. This means that the connection between Heimatschutz and Naturschutz was great at this point (De Jong, 1999).

⁴ 'Heimat' includes the emotional value of having your own territory; your own land (de Jong, 1999)

In 1906 the 'Staatliche Stelle für Naturdenkmalpflege in Preußen' was founded as a governmental body (at state level) with its most important tasks to give advice on and conduct research the conservation and management of the Naturdenkmäler. The execution however was left to committees at the level of provinces, districts (Bezirks) and counties (Kreis). This was partly motivated by the principle that the state did not want spend too much money on nature conservation. From this point on, part of the government tasks such as inventory of natural values, management and development of natural areas were acquired by private organizations. This mandatory way of imposing the formation of committees, at the beginning of the 1920s, did not go without problems. The care for natural sites stagnated as a consequence of financial and organizational shortcomings and was even threatened to disappear completely. However, the Heimatschutz blew new life into the nature conservation. Conwentz's ideas were slowly supported by a wider public, partly because of the close relationship he had with the Prussian government and the wide acceptance of the concept of Naturdenkmalpflege. The importance of nature conservation was, after the great amount of damage that the First World War had inflicted on the landscape, a more widely accepted idea. Remarkable is that nature conservation took form on a voluntary basis without pressure from the ministry in Berlin. After the revolution of 1918, the Weimar Republic (1918-1933) made a progressive constitution, in which was noticed the progressive elaboration of nature conservation (De Jong, 1999).

After the collapse of the empire, the awareness of a cultural crisis reached a peak in Germany. The need for renewal, reorientation and identification was very high. Heimat (interpreted as local history) and nature offered in this situation an emotional starting point for the reflection on the roots of German culture. A clear need for identification at the time of the Weimar Republic reinforced the attachment to the Heimat. At the same time the citizens discovered nature. On the one hand this increased the interest in nature conservation, on the other hand this also had a disruptive effect on nature (De Jong, 1999).

In the years after World War II, the main focus in West Germany (BRD) was on economic reconstruction. Due to the broad consensus on this subject, nature conservation had a secondary role. Initially, the division of Germany meant an end of many conservation organizations. However, after 1950, nature conservation soon resumed in the BRD. Many organizations joined the 'Deutschen Naturschutzkring'. In the 1950s and 1960s a number of new nature conservation areas were designated with the goal of fulfilling the recreational needs of city dwellers, which turned out to be the new main goal in the Naturschutzparke. However, despite this new goal, the relationship between recreation and nature became increasingly problematic (De Jong, 1999).

In the period after the World War II, a new strategy was created: the Landschaftspflege. The important new element in this strategy is the recognition that changes in nature are caused by inevitable human activities. Next to this, the Landschaftspflege attempted to reconcile

the preservation of authentic nature with the recreational needs of the population. But although a new strategy was created, immediately after the World War II relatively little attention was paid to nature conservation. Not until the 1970s, a new phase can be recognized, which can be characterized as the "Emanzipationsphase". From that time on, the policy instruments, which until then only consisted of legal protection of areas, were expanded (De Jong, 1999).

The classic reserve strategy and the protection of special and/or endangered species were replaced by a more comprehensive nature conservation strategy based on an ecological basis. Also in the private nature conservation this change led to a more comprehensive idea about nature conservation. This necessity of this change was confirmed when shown that the reserve strategy was not always successful. Especially for the preservation of the smaller areas, the strategy was not enough. Because the emphasis in the German nature conservation was not on the preservation of primeval nature (climax vegetation), but on secondary vegetation such as heath and agricultural landscapes, there was a need for specific management. Therefore, the developed Landschaftspflege aimed at preservation of semi-cultural landscapes through conservation of the usage of the area or through targeted interventions. This development is also reflected in the National Parks. The preservation of dynamic processes became more important than the protection of species. This vision is based on the assumption that the dynamics of nature can be used in order to preserve the areas which are created in the cultural landscape. The aim does not seek to recover the Germanic primeval landscapes, but what nature, within the cultural landscape, can produce on its own (De Jong, 1999). To this date, this strategy is still being applied in Germany.

4.2.1 Recognizable visions of nature in the history of German nature policy

As seen in the history of the German nature policy, three main movements can be distinguished. The first one that occurs is the Naturdenkmalpflege, where there is a strict separation between humans and nature. Next to this there exist a prudent and protective attitude towards nature where humans are the caretakers of a fragile nature. Relating this to the theoretic framework of this research, features of 'Stewardship of Nature' can be recognized. At the same time in history, an utilitarian view exists which relates to the features of 'Mastery of Nature'.

Secondly, the 'Heimatschutz' occurs in history. The most important feature of this movement is the protection of cultural landscapes, which directly can be related to 'Partnership with Nature'.

The third and last movement is the 'Landschaftspflege'. This movement can be seen as a combination of 'Partnership in Nature' and 'Participation in Nature'. The important reason for this is the fact that it does not seek to recover the Germanic primeval landscapes, but what nature, within the cultural landscape, can produce on its own. So concluding from this, cultural landscape are still important (Partnership in Nature), but within these landscapes nature can go its own way.

4.3 Natura 2000

The year 1970 is seen as the first 'European year of nature' and provided a major boost in the individual Member States in the field of nature conservation. Since then, the interaction between the EU and individual Member States in terms of nature conservation (of the individual Member States) intensified. The reason for this interaction is that (some) species and habitats of international importance and that international cooperation is needed to ensure effective protection.

4.3.1 Bird and Habitat Directive

In 1979, the European Union introduced the Birds Directive for the first time to the individual Member States. The idea behind the Birds Directive comes from the indignation in the 1970s about the large number of migratory birds, which did not survive the migration to the South because of hunting. The consequence was a study about the harmonization of national legislation in protecting species, migratory birds in particular. The results of this study were published in 1974 and accompanied by a recommendation from the European Commission to the Member States in which a call was made to join two global conventions on birds and habitat conservation; the Paris Convention on birds from 1950 and the Ramsar Convention on Wetlands in 1971. Next to these conventions, in 1975, the European Parliament urged on its own conservation policy, through a resolution at the European Commission and Council of Europe. With this movement, the European Parliament responded to a petition in 1974, signed by national and international nature conservation organizations. A year later, the European Commission set up a proposal (Van der Zouwen & Van Tatenhoven, 2002). After some negotiations, they finally agreed in 1979 that the Bird Directive would deal with the protection of all wild bird species found on the territory of the EU, *"including in particular the habitats of endangered and vulnerable species"* (Van der Zouwen, & Van Tatenhoven, 2002, p. 9). The Bird Directive contains important matters as controlling the hunt of species, killing the birds and the removal of eggs and nests. In addition, it also requires that there is sufficient size and diversity of habitat provided.

In 1992, on top of the Bird Directive, the Habitat Directive was introduced by the European Union. The introduction of this regulation was a consequence of a lack of results in terms of international conventions. Because of this lack, habitats and species in Europe are even further threatened by deterioration. The recognition that these species and areas are belonging to Europe's heritage, and the transboundary nature of this threat, served as a motivation to formulate a second (nature) directive at European level (Van der Zouwen & Van Tatenhoven, 2002). This new directive is an extension of the Bird Directive, which mentions that not only birds but also other types of common interest must be protected; *"the preservation of biological diversity in the EU by protecting natural and semi-natural habitats and of wild fauna and flora"* (Van der Zouwen & Tatenhoven, 2002 p. 10, Van Reeth et al, 2007).

the Netherlands played an active role in establishing the Habitat Directive. Back then, Dutch policy makers were convinced that an instrument was necessary for the protection of European nature. Important arguments used were the European integration efforts and the export of the concept of ecological networks. Therefore, during the Dutch presidency of the EU in 1991, the design of the Habitats Directive was a dossier on which the Netherlands left its' mark (Van der Zouwen & Van Tatenhoven, 2002).

4.3.2 The cornerstone of European nature policy

The discussion on establishing an ecological network in Europe began in the early 90s as a result of the international convention 'Concerning Europe's Natural Heritage: Towards a European Ecological Network' (Bloemmen & Van der Sluis, 2004). As said before, the Netherlands has played a major role in this discussion, looking at the thoughts they had about the design of the Habitats Directive. Eventually, the concept of an ecological network in Europe was seen as an important approach for protecting biodiversity. It was officially recognized in the 'Pan-European Biological and Landscape Diversity Strategy (PEBLDS)' which was recognized by 54 countries in Europe. The PEBLDS mentioned the development of a Pan-European Ecological Network for the first time. This development reflected an innovative approach to protecting biodiversity in Europe, of which the island theory was regarded as very important. These are (large) nature areas, connected by landscape elements that serve as migration corridors (Bogaert & Gersie, 2006). In addition, there was the ambition for a Europe where all European governments are actively involved in developing and maintaining a European Ecological Network (Bloemmen & Van der Sluis, 2004). This caused a shift in the different countries from a defensive strategy against nature (nature conservation) to an offensive strategy (nature development) (Bogaert & Gersie, 2006). Apart from the European Ecological Network, also many countries plan to create an ecological network at national or regional level (Bloemmen & Van der Sluis, 2004).

This development is also recognized on a global scale (World Summit on Sustainable Development in Johannesburg in 2002), where the importance of developing national and regional ecological networks and corridors is confirmed in 'the Plan of Implementation'. Ultimately, the idea of ecological networks is implemented in the 'Work on Protected Area's' as a main protection strategy in 2004 at the 'Seventh Conference of Parties of the Convention on Biological Diversity' (Bloemmen & Van der Sluis, 2004).

Nowadays this European Ecological Network can be recognized under the name 'Natura 2000', of which the Bird and Habitat Directives are the main directives. The aim of the Natura 2000 network is that by 2010 the decline of biodiversity in the European Union is held to a stop. Furthermore it strives for the survival of the most important natural areas with their specific species and habitats, which must be sustainably secured and/or repaired. It is not intended that these areas all have the status of nature reserve (Decleer & De Hullu, 2003), but they all must be designated as Special Protection Areas (SPAs) (Van Reeth et al, 2007). Selection and demarcation of these areas are only based on ecological criteria.

However, in the design of these areas also other criteria, such as economic or social criteria, may be included (De Levende Natuur, 2007). After selecting the regions, Member States must establish conservation objectives within six years. This would have been completed in 2004, but was moved to 2010 (Van Reeth et al, 2007). The final aim is that the SPAs can be multifunctional and sustainable in use. Activities without adverse impact on protected species and habitats can continue as normal. In certain situations such as a public interest or a lack of alternatives an (damaging) activity may be allowed provided that there is compensation (Dumortier, Schneider, & Kuijken, 2003). After the SPAs are designated, it is usually included in the national ecological networks of Member States (Decleer & De Hullu, 2003).

But despite the efforts of the European Union towards the Member States on how these guidelines and subsequent SPAs should be implemented in national policy, and how the targeted areas should eventually be realized, still "*The European Union provides no blueprints for the implementation of Natura 2000*" (De Levende Natuur, 2007, p. 220). The consequence is that due to this fact, the legislation is implemented differently in each individual Member State (Kistenkas & Neven, 2007), depending on the state system that is applied and the social context in which the new policy is posted (Van Zadelhoff, 2008).

Yet one thing is sure, translation from European to national and regional policies and finally to the targeted area, are very important issues (Van den Brink et al, 2003), where "a successful implementation of the Natura 2000 legislation depends on good cooperation between the various playing fields and between different stakeholders (Pelk, Lammers, & Schipper, 2007, p. 222).

4.3.3 Visions of nature recognizable in the Natura 2000 legislation

Translating the Natura 2000 legislation into a specific vision on nature it can be recognized that the legislation is specifically focused on the preservation and restoration of endangered and valuable species and their habitats. However, nothing is mentioned about development. Next to this it can be assumed that nature as something purely functional without having a value on its own, does not correspond with Natura 2000.

Since conservation is the main aim of the legislation, humans can be seen as the caretakers of (a fragile) nature. Concluding from this the Natura 2000 legislation belongs to 'Stewardship of Nature' and 'Partnership with Nature'. It might be difficult to really make a strict distinction in this situation because humans can either still stand above nature or share the planet with nature.

4.4 Implementation in the Netherlands

The implementation of Natura 2000 in the Netherlands occurs in two stages: first the identification of the areas, followed by the draw up of management plans. Such a

management plan is an important instrument for (good) cooperation between all stakeholders when agreements have to be made on the further development of the Natura 2000 objectives, including size, space, time scale, management and use of sites. An important task here is to work with measures that identify and prioritize the contribution that the Netherlands does to the European Natura 2000 network (De Levende Natuur, 2007).

In the Netherlands, the Nature Conservation Act of 1998 declares that the draw up of management plans for all Natura 2000 sites is required, and must be established by the province within three years (Van Wingerden et al, 2005). These management plans describe the current and future uses of the area, clarifying which activities or planning permissions will be required. They also allow, if necessary, the environmental goals to be combined with other goals, such as economic goals for example (Van Apeldoorn, 2007). The management plans are drawn up in consultation with owners, users, other stakeholders and other relevant authorities in the area, and are determined by the competent authority, which is also responsible for the draft. The competent authority is often a province and sometimes the state, but in the case of a Natura 2000 site which might belong to several authorities, there must be agreement upon which authority is taking the lead in preparing the management plan. For the outside world this authority is the contact for the management of the area, and it is responsible for organizing the participation of owners, users, governments and other stakeholders.

Management plans have a maximum duration of six years, after which they are evaluated. When evaluated, the competent authorities can decide to adopt the plan again for a further period of six years or to adapt the plan. However, such adjustments of the ecological goals must be motivated and can only take place in conjunction with the Natura 2000 targets at national level (Pelk, Lammers, & Schipper, 2007).

4.5 Implementation in Germany

Comparing the implementation processes of the Netherlands and Germany, some differences can be recognized. The first one has to do with the political system in the countries. Germany is a federal state, where the 'Länder' (states) are responsible for selecting and proposing the Natura 2000 sites. However, the 'Bundesministerium für Umwelt, Naturschutz und Reaktorischerheit' (Ministry for Environment, Nature Protection and Nuclear Safety) is (only) responsible for the implementation of the Bird and Habitat Directive, meaning that they coordinate that all state proposals will be sent directly to Brussels. The 'Bundesamt für Naturschutz' (Department for Natura conservation), which is part of the ministry, plays the most important role here. Together the national government and the many state governments form a working group (Länderarbeitsgemeinschaft Naturschutz) that cooperates nationwide (Van Apeldoorn, 2007).

Amongst the different states the selection and implementation of sites is organized differently. In some larger states, the Bezirksregierung (district government) plays an important role. This district government is positioned between the state government and the 'Landkreise' (lower government of the counties) and 'Kreisfreie Städte' (larger towns which are independent), and designates sites for Natura 2000. Also 'Fachbehörden' (specialist agencies, LANUV) exist in most states. Their role as a lower nature conservation authority is to advise their ministries and the counties (Van Apeldoorn, 2007).

Again, the federal status of Germany causes that it is not the task of the national government to determine the favorable conservation status of habitat types and species within the Natura 2000 sites. This responsibility also belongs to the state governments, which in their turn cooperate with the lower authorities, at district level and at county level. Despite this regulatory situation, in practice the federal ministry and its department are involved in the whole process (Van Apeldoorn, 2007).

In Germany management plans for Natura 2000 sites are not required under national law, but in some states they are required by state law. In other cases, they exist for many sites that were already protected or they will be written voluntarily or for other reasons. Unfortunately, in many cases it is not always clear who is formally responsible for setting up such plans. When it is required to actually set up a management plan, it is often experienced as a huge task for the lower conservation authorities because of the low number of personnel with the necessary experiences and skills. Secondly there often is a lack of necessary data relating to the current situation. Thirdly, it is not required to involve stakeholders in the writing process. This might be called a downside, especially knowing that the national Nature Conservation law allows stakeholders to object against decisions, resulting in resistance against the management plan. However, despite the many attempts of states to involve stakeholders in the process, there is still resistance against management measures. Reasons for this the requirement of changing specific land uses, of which limitations to agriculture and other emissions is a good example (Van Apeldoorn, 2007).

When it is the case that a management plan is not set up, it is, particular at county level, very important that landowners and other groups of land users are informed about the Bird and Habitat Directive, the selected sites and the regulations formulated on site use and site management. Unfortunately, guidelines on how to involve stakeholders do not exist, this results in the situation that each state and lower conservation authority has to experiment with this (Van Apeldoorn, 2007).

Looking at the necessary management in the Natura 2000 sites, Germany is making use of the voluntarily contract-based management principle in order to realize the ecological goals. In all the states existing conservation and management programs will be used for financing. However, the financial safeguarding of the management and its organization will differ between the states (Van Apeldoorn, 2007).

Chapter 5: Situations around the case studies

This chapter describes the case studies and the process of cooperation within these areas. A management plan has to be drawn up for the areas covered by Natura 2000 legislation (on the Dutch side). In most case studies two different levels can be distinguished that play an important role in the area: the level of management and the level of government. The level of management involves the organization which takes care of the area. On the other hand, the level of government deals with the events and the arrangements that have been done on the level of government.

5.1 Case study 1: Wooldse Veen/Burlo-Vardingholter Venn

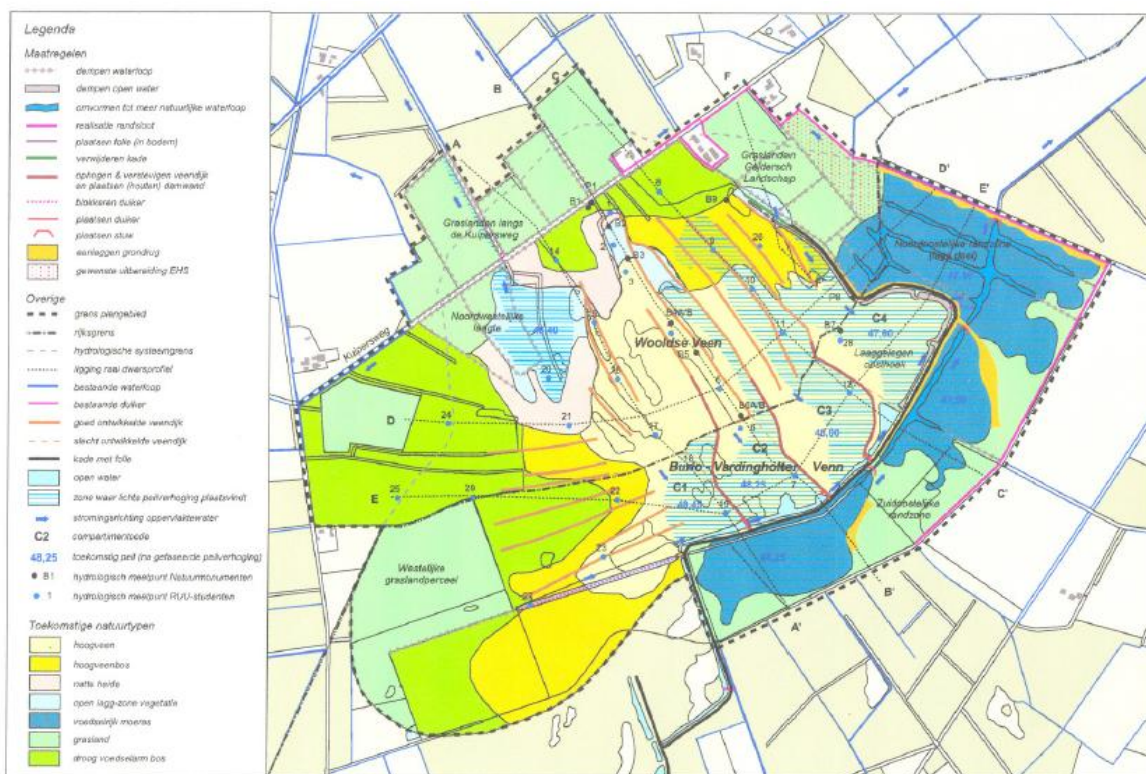


Figure 6. Wooldse Veen – Burlo Vardingholter Venn. Source: Interview B. Teunissen

The area 'Wooldse Veen' is located in the rural area of the community of Winterswijk. This area is dominated by agricultural activities, consisting mainly of agricultural, horticultural and livestock farms (Meinema, 2006). However, 'Wooldse Veen' is part of a special bog area on the border with Germany (Provincie Gelderland, 2009). The area is designated as a Natura 2000 site, as well as the German counterpart 'Burlo-Vardingholter Venn'.

At the center of the area are peatlands and peat pits. At the border zone, because of the transition to sand and clay soils, birch forests and wet meadows exist. In this area special plants and animals live that are typical for these ecosystems (Provincie Gelderland, 2009). The essence of the nature conservation strategy in the area is the conservation

and restoration of the bog itself, its typical bog species and communities. In this area there is a major difference between the level of management and the level of government.

5.1.1 Level of management

The area Wooldse Veen is largely managed by Natuurmonumenten (Dutch nature conservation organization). On the Dutch side there are also approximately 30 private owners, but most of these small areas are also managed by Natuurmonumenten (Interview B. Teunissen, Interview R. Wolf). The area Burlo-Vardingholter Venn is managed by Kreis Borken, which is, unlike the Dutch situation, a government agency. Also the Bezirksregierung Münster and the Forstamt own some grounds on the German side. However, these grounds are also managed by Kreis Borken (Interview R. Wolf).

The start of cooperation in the area (at the level of management), dates back from the time before the area was designated as a Natura 2000 site. The direct cause were the many dry summers. Because of this event, water levels dropped too quickly in springtime. In the past, water levels were stable throughout the year. However, these dry periods caused problems for the bog vegetation. This phenomenon was recognized at the Dutch side as well as at the German side of the border. Although this problem is seen as the main reason for the cooperation, it has to be said that also before this event there was (irregular) contact between the two countries (at the level of management) (Interview B. Teunissen).

At the level of management, there were some problems with the phenomenon 'production forest' and opening the area for the public (Interview B. Teunissen). Problems concerning the 'production forest', (trees can be harvested) played a role on both sides of the border. On the Dutch side there are a couple of private owners who wished to harvest the forest. In the eyes of Natuurmonumenten, especially in areas that are designated as 'bog forest', this is not allowed. But, as a concession, harvesting is allowed in dryer areas (Interview B. Teunissen, Interview R. Wolf). On the German side, it is the Forstamt that was obstructive in the past. But instead of forest grounds, these were agricultural grounds (Interview B. Teunissen). However, the 'new generation' running the Forstamt, is far more positive towards the plan of restoring the bog given the condition that these grounds are sold at a good price (Interview B. Teunissen). Opening up the area for public is the second problem in the area. Both parties agree to minimize the access to the area. But because of the private owners in the area (especially on the Dutch side), it is hard to deny the access to their privately owned lands. That is why there are a couple of paths through the area, which will be improved. However, the overall the opinion is to limit the access to the area (no browsing in the area). Fortunately, because of the location of the area and the features of the area (especially because of the many insects in the summer), the area is not often visited. *"Only some local people and real nature lovers know how to find it"* (Interview L. Bruinsma). Also on the German side there are just a couple of pathways, where people can walk off breeding season. These pathways are connected to the Dutch ones, but are poorly maintained, which is not inviting for visitors (Interview B. Teunissen).

5.1.2 Level of government

As described in chapter 4, a management plan has to be established for the Dutch side of the area. In the case of Wooldse Veen this was the task of the Province of Gelderland (Interview L. Bruinsma, Interview R. Wolf). They started a guidance group, which was set up to help with creating the management plan. In this guidance group many actors are represented. Since the area lies at the border, it seemed logical to also involve the German neighbors, recognizing the steps that would have to be taken from managing into policy. However, only one German actor is involved in the process, Kreis Borken. Further communication and contact with potential actors in the German area goes all through Kreis Borken, serving as an intermediary (Interview R. Wolf). According to Mr. Bruinsma this decision was made because other German actors had nothing to do with the management plan (in legal terms), so why invite them?

It was positively evaluated by the province that there already was an established contact with this actor. This single German actor was not negative towards the cooperation on the level of government, but was a bit hesitating. His role was to observe and to be informed about what the Dutch were/are doing, and it did not have much consequences for the German side. This is as it should be, because all the measures described in the Dutch management plan, apply only for the Dutch side of the area (Interview L. Bruinsma).

But all the actors who took place in the guidance group, were aware of the fact that the area had to be restored, which requires full commitment. Doing just a little bit is not an option in such a vulnerable system. That is why everybody embraced the plan developed by Natuurmonumenten (and indirectly by Kreis Borken).

5.1.3 Natura 2000

When the area was designated as a Natura 2000 area, little changed for the managing parties. Both parties were included in the advisory group, and introduced their own (previous) management plan, whose objectives were similar to those of Natura 2000 (Interview B. Teunissen). *"That is why we will just implement those measures which are included in this management plan"* (Interview B. Teunissen). Furthermore, attention was being paid to what the Dutch part could contribute to the German side. So although the management plan only applies on the Dutch side, the German side was also taken into account (Interview R. Wolf).

Also it had already been determined (by the rest of advisory group) that there are no obstacles to implement these measures. The province recognized that it was depending on the managing parties (Interview R. Wolf). So for the management part of the Natura 2000 process in Wooldse Veen, we can say that it goes quite smooth. Mr. Teunissen also addresses that the measures are not affecting the other land uses, because of the small and isolated scale of the area, so that there are not many conflicts. *"So basically we are very positive and we can just execute the measures"* (Interview B. Teunissen)

On the level of government Natura 2000 had a positive effect. Mr. Wolf argued that previously there was only cooperation on a level of management and now also on an level of

government. In this new situation the province is more involved in the cooperation and carefully follows the developments in Germany. Due to setting up a support group, a lot more interest groups are getting involved in a positive way. This creates a greater understanding of what is going on in the area and why certain measurements are taken.

5.2 Case study 2: De Gelderse Poort/Niederrheinische Pforte

Comparing the size of the 'De Gelderse Poort/Niederrheinische Pforte', with the other case studies, it is immediately noticeable that this area is by far the biggest. Because of its size, many different subareas exist, all with their own visions and situations. Therefore, in this paragraph, only the area outside the dikes will be discussed.

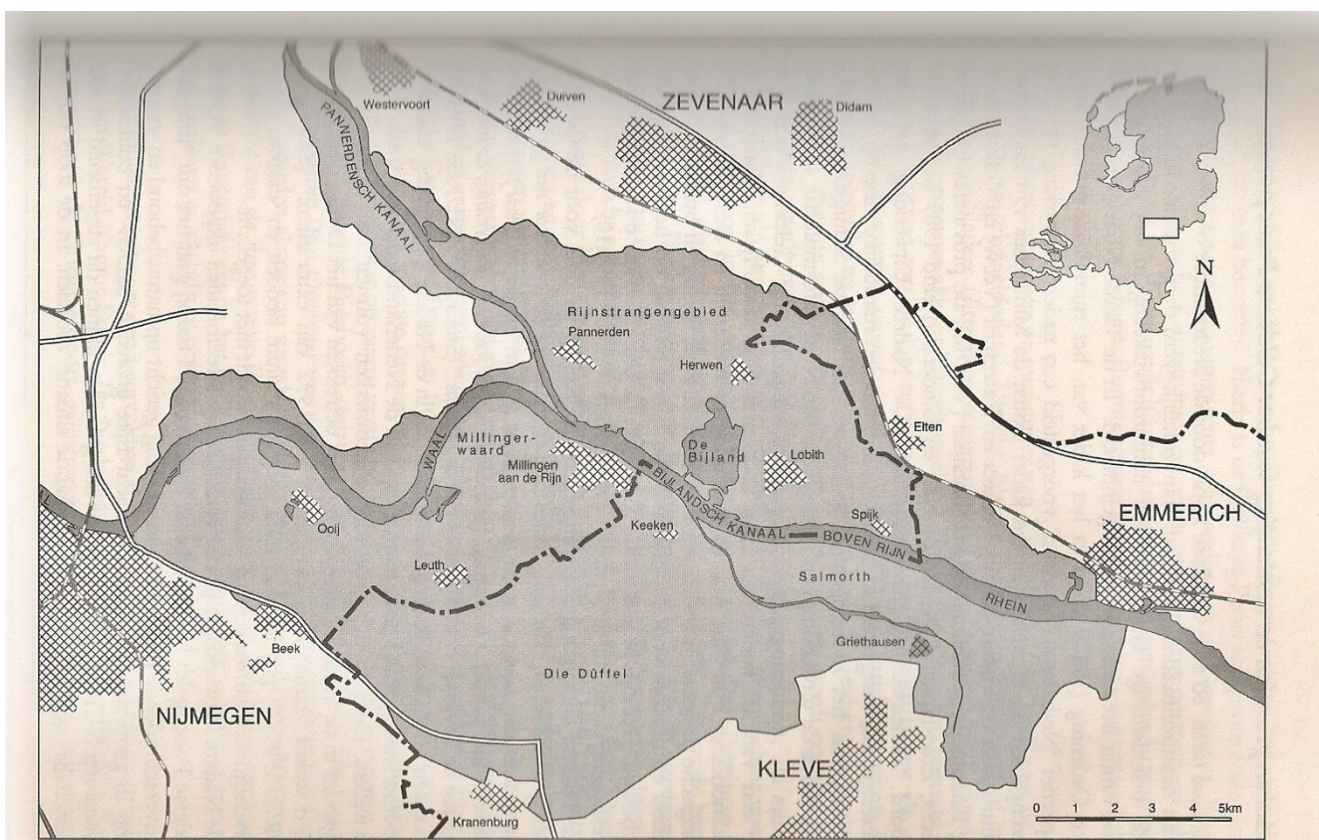


Figure 7. Gelderse Poort –Niederrheinische Pforte. Source: de Jong (1999)

5.2.1 Level of government

The 'Gelderse Poort' or 'Niederrheinische Pforte' is the gateway to the Dutch delta system; the river Rhine leaves Germany and flows into the Netherlands. Given its location on the top of the Dutch delta area, the area is in Dutch Natura Policy considered to be of great importance for the ecological rehabilitation of the Dutch rivers. That is why, in 1989, the Dutch government designated the Gelderse Poort as a "cross-boundary nature development project" (de Jong & Van Tatenhove, 1998, p.163). "Initiated by the Dutch, it was intended from the start to be an international project" (de Jong & Van Tatenhove, 1998, p.163). The

central goal of the Dutch government was nature development and conservation along the river, at a regional level. The responsibility for the development of plans for the Gelderse Poort was left to regional actors. A project organization was set up with the province of Gelderland as the central actor and initiator (de Jong & Van Tatenhove, 1998; Interview J. Ex). From the beginning, the Dutch defined the Gelderse Poort as a cross-boundary regional project in policy documents. However, the first contact with Germany took place in 1991 (de Jong & Tatenhove, 1998; Van der Zouwen & Van Tatenhove, 2002). In this year the province of Gelderland invited the Ministerium für Umwelt, Raumordnung und Landwirtschaft (MURL) to participate in the Gelderse Poort project (Van der Zouwen & Van Tatenhove, 2002). *"There had until then been no discussion of the future development of the Niederrheinische Pforte in Germany"* (de Jong & Van Tatenhove, 1998, p.164). The MURL replied that Kreis Kleve was the most appropriate counterpart for the province and will act as a contact in the Gelderse Poort project. The main reason was that the Kreis has the most relevant influence when it comes to land use planning (Van der Zouwen & Van Tatenhove, 2002).

The process started with a document containing three "quotes" or (natural) developments for the future of the Gelderse Poort. These quotes were discussed on the Dutch side with various interest groups and authorities. The German players were not active in this process, but Kreis Kleve did respond to the quotes. However, this reaction of the Kreis is not included or processed in the final document, and it can be concluded that this approach does not take account of views with German (sectoral) interests. However later in the process, to be exact at the completion of the fourth working paper (1993), it was noticed that the Gelderse Poort area should be seen as a transboundary unit (Van der Zouwen & Van Tatenhove, 2002). From this year on, the German authorities' involvement in the policy-making process became more institutionalized, resulting in a German-Dutch steering committee (de Jong & Van Tatenhove, 1998).

In 1994 Germany was working on a 'Machbarkeitsstudie'. This study proposed to investigate the feasibility of participation of Germany in the Gelderse Poort project. The feasibility was judged in the context of the policies for the area in Germany. The conclusion of the study was that participation of Germany in the Gelderse Poort project within this framework was possible (De Jong & Van Tatenhove, 1998; Van der Zouwen & Van Tatenhove, 2002).

Simultaneously, the Dutch worked on a Development Vision for the area. The Development Vision was established in March 1995 and applies only for the Dutch part of the Gelderse Poort. Only for the subject 'Recreation and tourism', a border crossing map is prepared. Also later in the cooperation process, it reveals that the topic 'recreation' is increasingly important for the participating actors in the process. The Dutch and German actors agreed relatively easy on this topic. This is stimulated by the presence of European subsidies, such as construction of bicycle paths, signage and information. During the implementation phase, a major emphasis in the cross-border cooperation lies on the recreational aspects and therefore necessary facilities (Van der Zouwen & Van Tatenhove, 2002).

At this point in time, two future options can be recognized, regarding to nature; (1) the German part of the area is complementary to the Dutch or (2), the German part is in contrast with the Dutch part.

Despite all the good efforts, in March 1995, the transnational steering committee decided that there will be no cross-border goal set up for the total area of the Gelderse Poort, on the basis that *“a comprehensive cross-boundary policy plan for the whole area appeared to be impossible”* (De Jong & Van Tatenhove, 1998, p.165). Only on the executive level there still will be fine tuning (Van der Zouwen & Van Tatenhove, 2002; Interview J. Ex). Possible reason for this decision is the difference in the history of development of the area and different priorities (Interview J. Ex)

However, an agreement was reached in August 1997 on the designation of the Gelderse Poort as an area covered by the Habitat Directive. Involved parties are the province of Gelderland, the Ministry of Agriculture, Kreis Kleve, the NABU (Naturschutzbund Deutschland) LÖBF (Landesanstalt für Ökologie, Bodenordnung and Forests) and MURL. The basis for this agreement lies at the maps drawn up by the province of Gelderland and Kreis Kleve, which were prepared in order for the designation of areas under the Habitats Directive. The two proposed maps appeared to be relatively easy to fit together. The MURL however indicated its disagreement with the proposal of the Kreis and felt that a larger area should be designated based on the present Naturschutzgebiet (Van der Zouwen & Van Tatenhove, 2002).

However, there was great commotion among the farmers in the German part of the Gelderse Poort area. From that time on, the Kreis adopted a cautious approach. Eventually, the Netherlands and Germany separately notified their part of the Gelderse Poort to the European Commission. In March of the year 2000 a part of the Gelderse Poort also was designated as a Birds Directive area (Van der Zouwen & Van Tatenhove, 2002).

5.2.1 Level of management

As a consequence of the decision that a comprehensive cross-boundary policy plan for the whole area is impossible, the German part is complementary in contrast with the Dutch part. Due to this decision there is only cooperation on local scale (in most cases due to water issues) and no general vision exists on a cross border regional scale. Therefore two different types of approaches can be recognized, resulting in two different types of landscapes (Interview R. Wolf).

5.2.1.1 River nature

Supporters of the ‘river nature’ approach wish to expand the natural environment along the river, transforming agricultural land of the outer-dike area. This represents the thought of the Dutch part of the Gelderse Poort. The approach is based on the assumption that these areas were once natural (De Jong & Van Tatenhove, 1998, Interview T. Wijers). *“The final goal is to develop large-scale, interconnected, pristine, new nature areas through the creation of 3000 hectares of new nature (mainly on former agricultural land) both inside and outside the dikes”* (De Jong & Van Tatenhove, 1998, p.171).

The possibility to perform this type of approach was made possible by the reorganization of the area. In meetings with farmers it became clear that because of the irregular fluctuation of the river, they preferred to leave the areas outside the dikes. This was the perfect occasion to continue with the 'river nature' approach (Interview T. Wijers).

5.2.1.2 Kulturnatur

Looking at the German part of the 'Niederrheinische Pforte' we recognize the approach of what the Germans call 'Kulturnatur'. Supporters of this approach wish to maintain a historic cultural landscape, in which visual elements of the landscape play a central role (Van der Zouwen & Van Tatenhove, 2002). In the 'Niederrheinische Pforte' the agricultural landscape forms, from the beginning of the 20th century, the most important reference point for this approach. *"In German nature policy, the protection of indigenous species (like goose) and their habitats (wetlands) has highest priority"* (de Jong & Van Tatenhove, 1998, p.171). Therefore the German part of the area is also designated as a wetland under the RAMSAR-convention, and international convention on the conservation of wetlands.

This kind of approach used in the area is consistent with the developments can be seen in the history of the German nature policy (section 4.3). In the 'Kulturnatur' it can be recognized that the features of the Landschaftspflege, which became a leading strategy after World War II.

The emphasis in the German nature conservation is not on the preservation of primeval nature (climax vegetation), but on secondary vegetation such as heath and agricultural landscapes requiring a specific management (de Jong, 1999). The Landschaftspflege therefore aims at preservation of semi-cultural landscapes through conservation of the usage of the area or through targeted interventions. Therefore it does not seek to recover the Germanic primeval landscapes, but what nature, within the cultural landscape, can produce on its own (de Jong, 1999). Again this is in line with the approach which can be recognized in the German part of the Niederrheinische Pforte.

5.2.3 Natura 2000

For the Dutch policy makers the Gelderse Poort is considered as a main target for renewal and developing nature, while for the Germans this region still is peripheral, a rural area in the green backyard of the German 'Ruhrgebiet'. So although there are two different types of approaches, still the Natura 2000 goals that are set out for the area, are realized without conflicting with these approaches.

In the process of setting up the management plan for the Dutch part of the Gelderse Poort, there was no involvement of German parties. Reason for this is that at the level of the Province of Gelderland there is no cooperation with German parties. Secondly, this decision has been made because of time limits; *"The area on Dutch side is already major, let alone that we also should look at the German part"* (Interview J. Ex).

5.3 Case study 3: Het Ketelwald

“With a surface of 9000 ha, a rich cultural history and a large diversity in biotopes, Ketelwald has everything to grow into an ecologically valuable area” (NABU-Naturschutzstation e. V. & Werkgroep Milieubeheer, 2007, p. 3)

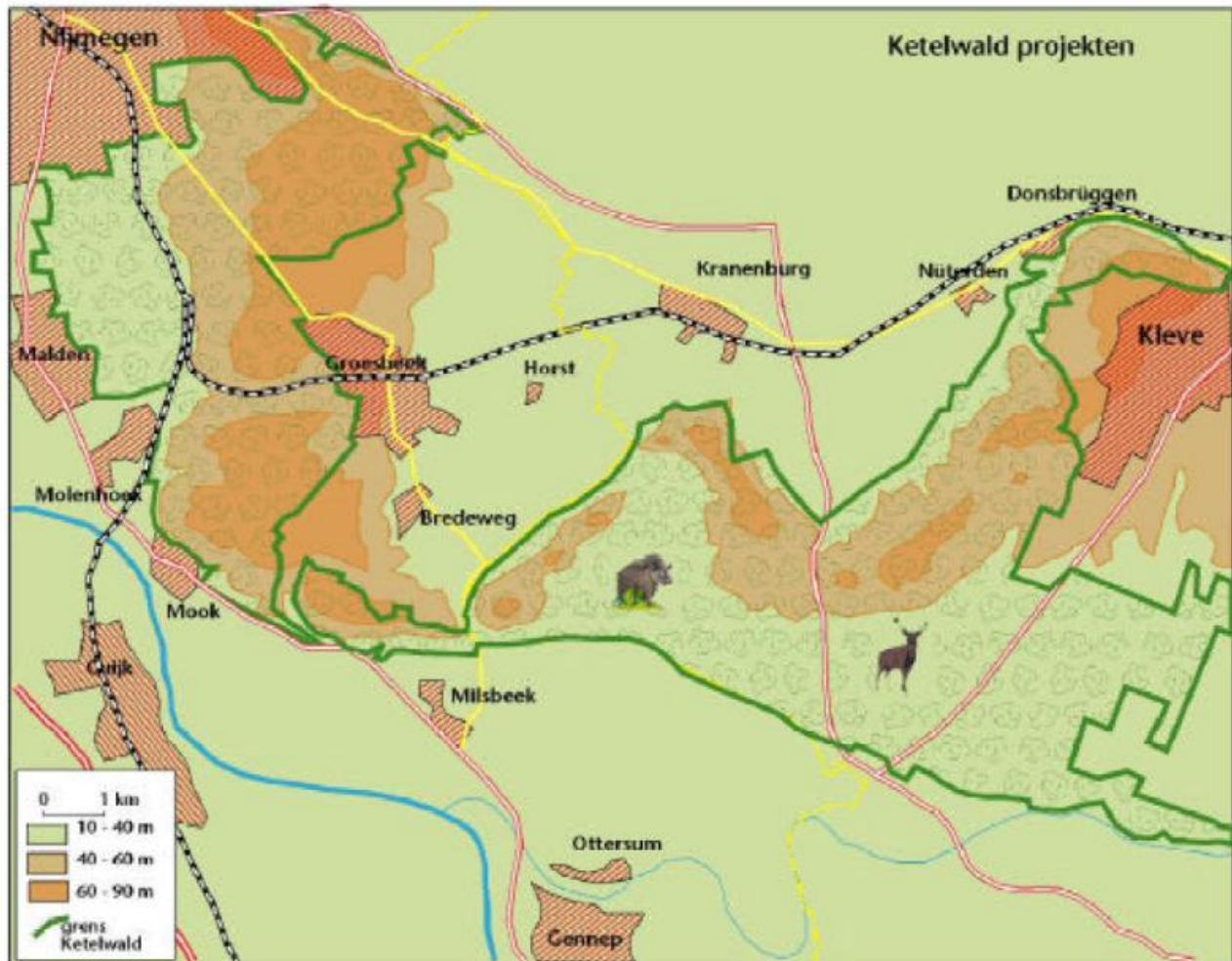


Figure 8. Ketelwald – Reichswald. Source: www.ketelwald.nl

Before we take a look at the process of cooperation in the area ‘Ketelwald – Reichswald’, there has to be mentioned that in this research the area is considered as an area without Natura 2000 status. This is not completely true because officially there are some parts of the area that do have this status (St. Jansberg and Reichswald). Since the project covers a much larger area, the consideration has been made to designate this area as a non Natura 2000 area.

5.3.1 Level of management

For a long time, forest management in the Ketelwald area only had the purpose to service for the economy and hunting (Interview H. Brinkhof). After the initial deciduous forest disappeared in the Middle Ages by increasing logging and grazing pressure, it slowly

degenerated into heathland and shrub. From the 18th century large-scale reforestation took place with many exotic softwoods. Still, the bulk of the Ketelwald exists of conifers (NABU-Naturschutzstation e. V. & Werkgroep Milieubeheer, 2007). From the same rational thinking, about 200 years ago in the Reichswald, with its ancient winding roads and paths, a rectangular road network was built. The same applies for the edge of the forest. Naturally or by human impact small forest edges exhibit an erratic, but the man planned landscaped forest edges are all straight lines and right angles. This gives an unattractive image (NABU-Naturschutzstation e. V. & Werkgroep Milieubeheer, 2007).

However, human interventions in nature were not always negative. Often man had an enriching influence on nature with the consequence that many new ecosystems arose. This happened especially when interventions were repeated on the long-term. Heath, coppice and blue grasslands are examples of semi-natural grasslands biotopes. They arise from human impact and remain in position only by human intervention (NABU-Naturschutzstation e. V. & Werkgroep Milieubeheer, 2007).

In the 20th century the influence of humans on nature became more dominant and influenced a larger scale. In a short time, the variation of the landscape disappeared through the modernization of agricultural methods. Wetlands were drained, poor soils were fertilized, hedgerows and shrubs were cleared. During this process the diverse, small-scale landscape made place for an economic landscape consisting of straight agricultural fields, roads and waterways. The result is a massive impoverishment of variation in ecosystems. A limited number of plant and animal species dominates in these circumstances leveled at the expense of countless other species that are rare or even extinct (NABU-Naturschutzstation e. V. & Werkgroep Milieubeheer, 2007).

In the Second World War, the 'Reichswald' was bombed, and had to be plant cheap, which resulted in pinewoods (also for the wood production) (Interview H. Brinkhof).

The initiative for the project 'Ketelwald' was established in early 1998 (Brinkhof, 2004, Interview H. Brinkhof). This initiative was taken by the 'Environmental Working Group Groesbeek', who did research for over 25 years in the Dutch-German forest area about the natural and cultural history of the area, with the consequence that they have built up a wide range of knowledge about the area (Brinkhof, 2004). This group considers the Dutch-German forest area between Nijmegen (NL) and Kleef (DE) as a whole, which forest management plans should depend on, with the consequence that the natural values of the area would increase sharply (NABU-Naturschutzstation e. V. & Werkgroep Milieubeheer, 2007).

The goal is to create a natural way of forest management, whereby not only will be tried to create more native deciduous trees which naturally belong in the forests. Therefore it will be tried to manage 'older forest', where natural processes have a major role. Such forests not only have a much richer flora and fauna, they are also very attractive for recreation etc. Also the area should be seen as whole (no boundaries) (Interview H. Brinkhof).

"Cross-border cooperation was so important that even the Euroregion asked if an application could be requested" (Interview H. Brinkhof). This resulted in 2004 in a INTERREG-project

‘Ketelwald – Nature across borders’, in which targeted approach and cooperation were necessary.

In this project a couple owners of large forest areas work together and take some concrete measures to enhance the biodiversity in the area (NABU-Naturschutzstation e. V. & Werkgroep Milieubeheer, 2007).

The area is very suitable for natural forest development. The relief (high-low-slope), the various soil types (sand and loess) and differences in water (dry, moist, wet) will cause that such an old, natural forest will even be more varied.

Another goal of the area is to reintroduce large mammals such as deer and swines in the area. At this moment, it is prohibited in the Netherlands, with the main reason that the area is too small. However, when we take a look at the whole of Dutch-German forest complex, this is not the case. Also other parties than the initiative takers, embrace this opinion, like Natuurmonumenten and Staatsbosbeheer (managing parties at the Dutch side). These major associations want to develop a connection between the ‘Veluwe’ and the ‘Reichswald’, for the migration of deer and other animals. The Reichswald is the German counterpart of Ketelwald. These ecological north-south connections are important so that the area will not be isolated. The thought is that when those connections are working properly, the important forest areas in the Netherlands and Germany are joined. Whereby, in the distant future, perhaps even there will even be room for bison, lynx and wolves.

Apart from focusing on nature, the initiating group also wants to reinforce the cultural remains of the Ketelwald. Often these residues in the field are barely recognizable, largely disappeared or largely overgrown. An example of this is that Roman remains were only identified by experts. The opinion of the initiating group is that all these cultural relics tell something about the past; about how people lived in and with the forest. That is why it provides an additional amenity. This also applies to the natural history (geology) of the area, which should be more featured. Finally nature-related recreation and education should be promoted. It is important that people can enjoy nature, because only then the opinion raises that nature is also worthy of protection.

To achieve these goals a partnership was set up, consisting of the Environmental Work Group Groesbeek, NABU Naturschutzstation Kranenberg, Natuurmonumenten and Staatliches Forstamt Kleve. This partnership established six smaller pilot projects.

All of these parties had their own role in the smaller projects. However at the beginning of the cooperation, a lot of investments had to be made in acquaintance before the cooperation became a success. This cooperation was certainly not seen as something obvious. But all the efforts which were made brought the parties really together (Interview F. Mandigers).

Although major bottlenecks were not recognized, still there are some differences between the main actors. The Environmental Work Group Groesbeek, NABU Naturschutzstation Kranenberg and Natuurmonumenten instantly share the same ideas, but Forstamt Kleve stood a little bit outside. Cause of this is their main goal of wood production. In some cases, therefore, it was quite difficult to get along with the Forstamt, which were very conservative

towards the forest (forest in Germany is has always a functional function (Interview D. Cerff)). Therefore, a lot of initiating work had to be done. Fortunately, the other parties did not have very high ambitions. There was room to integrate nature conservation goals into the production forest, so that the Forstamt could also join in (Interview D. Cerff). However, it became clear that if they want to cooperate properly with the Forstamt, convincing them of developments that include far-reaching interventions, investments had to be made (Interview F. Mandigers, H. Brinkhof). On the other hand, all the other parties understand the situation of the Forstamt (Interview F. Mandigers, T. Wijers, H. Brinkhof) and recognize that wood production is simply their mission. *“They find it all just wonderful, but they really depend on that timber revenues”* (Interview F. Mandigers), that is their source of income.

5.3.2 Level of government

On June the 9th 2000 a meeting took place with landowners, managers and government agencies, to talk about the idea of a border crossing nature park in the region between Nijmegen (NL) and Kleve (DE). The initiative group conceived the plan to formulate a vision for the area, that would not only form the basis for some concrete projects, but in which a number of those projects would be specifically described.

Simultaneously, the project ‘Green Belt Action - Nature without borders in Europe’ by NABU and Natuurmonumenten took place. This project had the aim to identify natural areas on both sides of the border and to bring conservationists together to benefit for future cross-border nature projects (NABU-Naturschutzstation e. V. & Werkgroep Milieubeheer, 2007).

Contact between NABU and Natuurmonumenten, and later Forstamt Kleve (DE), resulted in a project application by the Euregio Rijn-Waal, Bundesland Nordrhein-Westfalen (DE) and the provinces of Gelderland (NL) and Limburg (NL). In 2004, the application of the project ‘Ketelwald – Nature across borders’ was honored by all parties, and in the period till the end of 2007, six subprojects could be implemented (NABU-Naturschutzstation e. V. & Werkgroep Milieubeheer, 2007).

5.3.3 Natura 2000

When the project Ketelwald started, there were no Natura 2000 sites in the area (interview F. Mandigers). Nowadays, in the area that Ketelwald covers, some sites are designated under the Bird and/or Habitat Directive. The ultimate goal is that in the future the whole area of ‘Ketelwald’ will fall under this legislation.

In the area, managing parties have different opinions about the introduction of Natura 2000 in Europe. They all agree that the main principle of the legislation is excellent, wondering even if there is anybody who does not agree with this principle. Although this statement, some managing parties in the area experience it more as a burden than as a good thing. They argue that *“many parties have their say about what one party should do”* (Interview F. Mandigers). It is experienced as too much interference from outside, with the question if it is actually better for nature.

5.4 Case study 4: Natuurpark Roode Beek/Rodebach



Figure 9. Natuurpark Roode Beek/Rodebach. Source: www.roodebeek.eu

In this case study, the clear distinction between the level of management and the level of government can again be made. However, unlike the other case studies (in particular Wooldse Veen), 'Natuurpark Rode Beek/Rodebach' is first created on an level of government and secondly the management plays a role (Vreke et al, 2006; Interview T. Senden, F. Baselmans). In the area, the Roode Beek (Red Creek) has a leading role; it can be literally

described as the red wire through the area. The creek is a regionally important watercourse that is not only important from an ecological perspective, but also provides real opportunities for cross border development and cooperation. The area (70% in the Netherlands and 30% in Germany), which is largely determined by the stream, has a special ecological value. However, it is also important for the residents of the densely populated region. The boundaries of Natuurpark Roode Beek/Rodebach in the Netherlands are concerned within the limits of the Provincial Ecological Structure (PES), established by the province of Limburg. This PES largely follows the contours of the National Ecological Network (Voncken, 2006). The area is surrounded by other nature areas (with different types of nature). The final goal is to connect these areas, which together will form the 'Heide Natuurpark' of which Natuurpark Roode Beek/Rodebach will be part of (Interview F. Baselmans). It is also part of the larger 'Parkstad', a network of areas in a larger part of the province of Limburg.

The area is located in an urbanized area and therefore attractive for city dwellers.

5.4.1 Level of government

Since 1975, a partnership exists between the two border municipalities Onderbanken (NL) and Gangelt (D). Since then, there has been cooperation on many different subjects such as education, infrastructure and culture. Through the years this cooperation deepened. The two municipalities are both small, rural and are embedded in a highly urbanized region, which created cohesion.

Opportunities for a successful cooperation were therefore in this context with at the basis, a combination of nature and small-scale tourism. From this thought, a shared vision with reference to tourism and recreation was set up (Interview T. Senden). In this vision various pilot projects were discussed. One of these projects was selected as the spearhead, and the idea of a border crossing nature park was born and executed (Voncken, 2006). This was in 2002 (Vreke et al, 2006). On an area of in total approximately 700 hectares on both sides of the Dutch-German border, the nature park was developed. With this development there has been a link between the stabilization and the improvement of the tourism and recreation in the area (Voncken, 2006). But these new development of recreational uses in the area had to be in consistency with the development of new nature.

Between the municipalities Onderbanken and Gangelt, there was a strong will to cooperate already from the start of the project. Within the accomplishment of the project there always has been, and still is, good communication between the various parties. This is probably due to the awareness that special attention needs to be given to the process of cross border cooperation, which can be seen by a paragraph written in the development vision of the area about this subject (Bureau Stroming, 2002). This paragraph is dedicated to how cross border ambitions can be realized, arguing that an organization is needed that includes the following 3 permits (Bureau Stroming, 2002):

1. A rapid start of the project according to the current vision
2. Requesting and obtaining additional funding (particularly through INTERREG)
3. Unity and clarity of management.

It further argues that the starting point for the new organization of the area is one management and one organization. Therefore, a form of cooperation and organization structure is chosen which is consistent with the existing structures. In short, this means that (Bureau Stroming, 2002):

1. The current transnational steering group will consist of government meeting between the two municipalities.
2. The current workgroup Leiffendervenn Gangelter-Bruch is continued for process and project management. They supervise the proper implementation of the Plan of office flow and activities such as creating development plans, specifications and applying for grants. After one year, the functioning and continuation of the group evaluated.
3. There will be a covenant in which all parties commit a joint implementation of the plan of office flow. The parties are each responsible for the realization of the projects that lie in their own fields. The covenant will also be the organizational structure and its operation is also recorded.
4. A cross-border management plan prepared by the working group this transforms a committee consisting of the municipalities and Onderbanken Gangelt, Nature and NABU. This management plan is to determine submitted to the stuurgroep.
5. It is in the hands of Nature and landscape in cooperation with relevant Dutch and German partners, such as the NABU.

In figure 10 the organizational structure in the 'realization phase' of the development of Natuurpark Rodebach/Roode Beek can be seen. Before this phase could start, they first introduced the 'analyzing phase'. The organization of this phase consisted of two groups:

- A transnational steering committee. The steering committee is to mandate of the councils, in addition to the 'Development plan Onderbanken-Gangelt', responsible for the preparation and continued development of the vision, monitoring the implementation of the vision on cost, time and content. Furthermore, this transboundary steering committee is responsible for widening the support, guidance and political backup.
- Cross-border working group Leiffendervenn Gangelterbruch. The working group Leiffendervenn Gangelterbruch works under the steering committee. The mission of the working group is to establish and develop the vision and the coordination of the various projects.

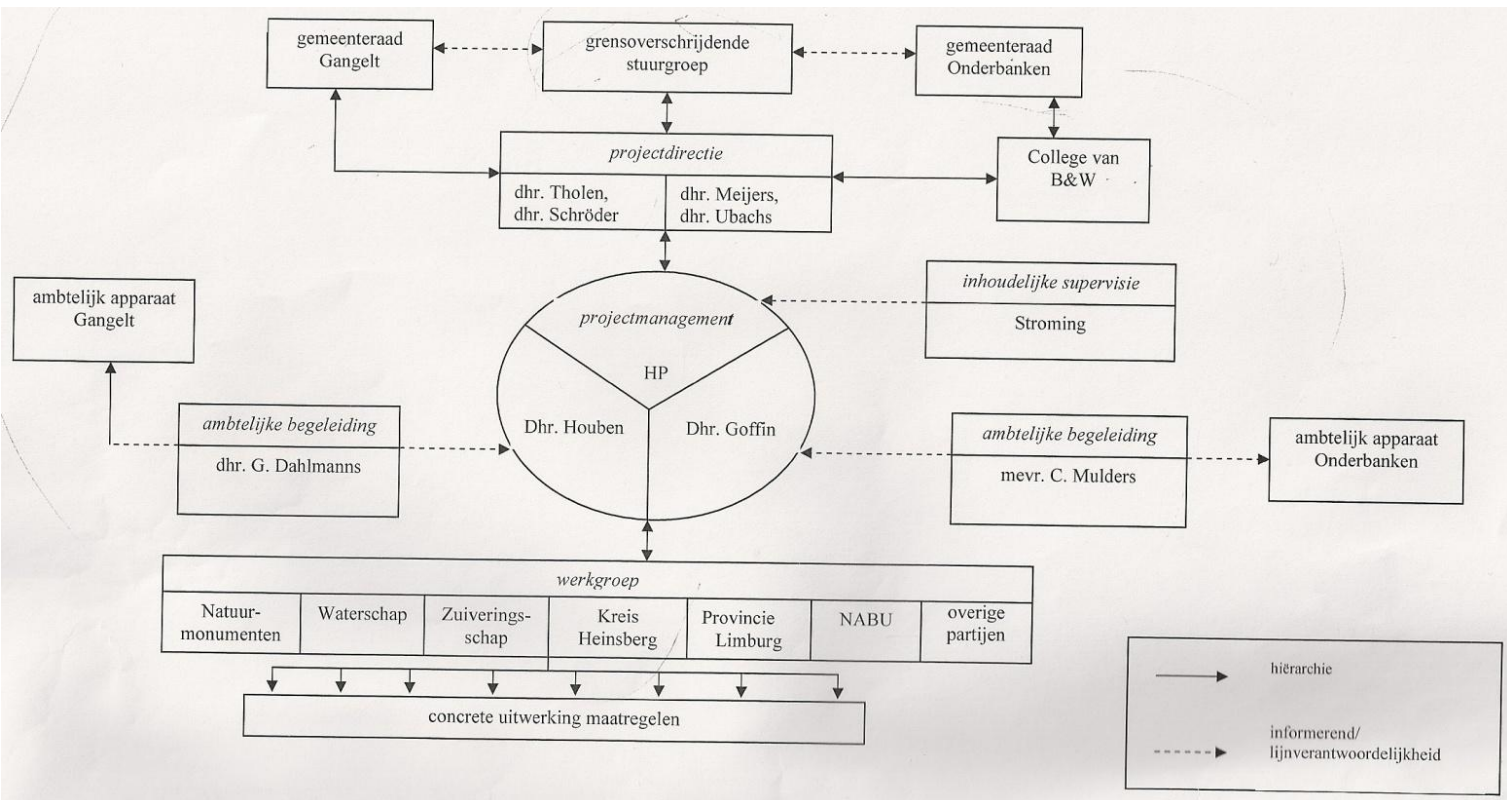


Figure 10. Organizational structure Natuurpark Roode Beek/Rodebach. Source: T. Senden.

About fifteen years ago, the first contacts between the Water Board 'Roer en Overmaas' and Kreis Heinsberg in the region were established. In the beginning this relationship was very difficult because of the various cultural differences and differences in legislation and procedures. However, throughout the years, this cooperation between the Dutch and German parties went much smoother. Because the municipalities had worked together in other cross border projects before, there was a great mutual trust at the start of Natuurpark Roode Beek/Rodebach.

It is remarkable that there were hardly any cross-border cooperation problems between the involved actors. However, at the beginning of the process, there was some criticism from the citizens of Gangelt and Onderbanken. Throughout the entire process there were cross border information events for interested citizens, where the plans were presented. Here the views of local residents and entrepreneurs emerged. Some controversies arose when they had to decide on the interpretations of the project. Users of the area were concerned about the Scottish Highland cattle, which will graze in the area. They wondered if recreation would still be possible in the area, but this turned out not to be problematic (Interview T. Senden). So it can be said that in general local citizens welcomed the project.

5.4.2 Level of management

Before the communities of Onderbanken and Gangelt decided to turn the area into Natuurpark Roode Beek/Rodebach, the area served as a supplier of timber for the mining industry (Interview T. Senden, F. Baselmans). The ultimate natural goal of this project is to create the landscape from before it had a pure functional function. So out with the pinewood and more room for the original nature. This original nature includes the meandering process of the creek and creating a swamp area again (Interview F. Baselmans). But the second and equivalent function of the area will be for recreation as an economic boost for the region. Therefore it is important that people can browse in the area.

In 1995, on the Dutch side, a large surface of the nowadays Natuurpark Roode Beek/Rodebach was transferred from local governments to Natuurmonumenten (Interview F. Baselmans). In the period between 1995 and the start of the project, Natuurmonumenten applied a transition management in the area, towards their future vision of an integral continuous managed area, which eventually corresponds with the initiative of Natuurpark Roode Beek/Rodebach (Interview F. Baselmans).

However, Natuurmonumenten recognizes that before the project really could start, the initiative had to be transformed into implementation (Interview F. Baselmans).

On the German side, the land is mainly owned by the community of Gangelt. However it was leased to farmers, for private management or agricultural use. For the project, they withdrawn the leases in order to use them for the project. Nowadays these lands are too wet because of the creek, so that nature can be the only function.

The co-management between Dutch and German managing parties in the area, has only just started when the project Natuurpark Roode Beek/Rodebach was initiated. Before that, there was no contact.

5.4.2 Natura 2000

The parties in the cooperation process have no intention to strive for a European status (like Natura 2000) of the area. The negative aspects of Natura 2000 are emphasized. This makes the process only more difficult (commitments etc.) (Interview T. Senden). However, the Euregio is involved in the project by financing and monitoring of the area (Interview T. Senden).

Chapter 6: Cooperation in the case studies

Now the situations of the different case studies are known, this chapter practically focuses on the process of cooperation itself, the process of cooperation regarding the (different) visions and the influence of the Natura 2000 legislation on the cooperation.

Important to mention is that when there will be talked of a successful cooperation this is only on the basis of the (possible) different visions. Hereby the influence of the availability of resources on the cooperation will be neglected.

6.1 Case study 1: Wooldse Veen /Burlo-Vardingholter Venn

The area 'Wooldse Veen/Burlo-Vardingholter Venn' is the most northerly located of the four case studies (figure 5). It is also the most secluded area discussed in this research. Therefore, the influence of recreational purposes is minimum in this area. However, this is seen as a positive factor because of the specific nature type (bog) in the area, which requires a minimum disturbance by recreational use. Cooperation in the area already took place before the area was designated as a Natura 2000 site. However, this cooperation was strictly at the level of management.

6.1.1 Cooperation

Overall, it can be said that the process of cross border cooperation in the area went quite smoothly over time (looking strictly at the discussion on visions). An important factor for this success is the existence of the frequent contact between both countries at the level of management. Due to the shared ideas about the development and management of the area, agreement already existed at the level of management. This agreement provided a good starting point for the level of government when a (Dutch) management plan had to be realized. However, in the process only one German partner (Kreis Borken) was invited. In the beginning this might be a little bit strange and doubtful due to the cross border character of the area. However this did not harm the process of cooperation.

The good cooperation and the shared ideas at the level of management are most likely the reason why the process was not negatively affected. Also the role of the German partner as intermediary to other German institutions had in this case no negative effect on the cooperation in the area.

There is a noticeable difference between the level of management and level of government when it comes to having contact with equal partners at the other side of the border. As shown, this contact is very strong at the level of management. Meanwhile, the level of government did not look any further than their own border. Due to this finding the (Dutch) management plan had the positive effect of bringing different (international) partners together. With the consequence that, since the introduction, the cooperation process took place at the level of management as well as at the level of government.

6.1.2 Visions of Nature

Focusing on the motives of the level of management, it can be concluded that those are the same in both countries. Quietness, no environmental disturbance, as well as limited access to the area were mentioned. On the other hand there are still approximately 30 private owners in the area which have the right to access their plot. Therefore, although accessibility through pathways is limited, the pathways will be renovated. This is done to avoid that people will walk and browse unguided through the area (Interview B. Teunissen).

However, in order to achieve the ultimate goal of the area, the restoration of the bog, conservation measures need to be carried out. If not, the area will turn into one major forest.

This finding contradicts with the denied request of the private owners who would like to harvest the trees on their plot (and even undertake peat extraction). On the other hand, because of the large amount of water in the area with as consequence the wet soils, the harvesting of trees is hardly possible. This can be seen as a more emotional argument, since in reality these activities are not carried out. Therefore these areas are designated as 'bog forest', where harvesting is not allowed. But on the dryer parts, on the edges of the area, those activities will be permitted by the management parties.

Historically, the German part of the area was used for agricultural purposes. Nowadays, this focus (within the Forstamt, who owns the area, but does not manage it) has changed towards a more nature friendly attitude, whereby land is even sold for the purpose of realizing nature (Interview B. Teunissen).

At the level of government the focus is more towards society, although the development of nature is also a main target. Especially the opportunity for recreation is of importance in their opinion.

6.1.3 Conclusion

Interpreting the various motives of the partners in the area, different visions of nature can be revealed. Again, an important factor is the fact that the Dutch manager (Natuurmonumenten) and the German manager (Kreis Borken) are on the same wavelength when it comes to these visions. The visions of 'Stewardship of Nature' (caretakers of vulnerable nature) and in some way also the Wilderness Vision (quietness with limited access) are recognizable in their visions of management. These visions can also be seen as successors of one another, since first to restore the area human involvement (in the way of management) is large. However, after restoration, the area can regulate its own development and human involvement will be minimum.

Despite the quietness with limited access and on the long term minimum human involvement, also attempts are made to make the area more accessible for owners in the area and for the small amount of recreational users which make use of the area.

The vision of the private owners relates more to the vision of 'Mastery of Nature' (wood production and peat extraction), although this is not really possible in the area. Participant Mr. Wolf argues that these arguments are mainly used because it goes against their sense to drown areas of forest, then that wood production activities really take place.

The role of the shared visions at a level of management, turned out to be an important factor for the successful cooperation in the area, especially at the level of government. This (shared) vision served as a good starting point for the preparation of the Dutch management plan, which embeds a cross border character.

6.1.3.1 Natura 2000

In perspective of the Natura 2000 legislation, it can be concluded that the introduction of Natura 2000, and the 'new' status as a Natura 2000 area, did not have a large influence on the visions of the different partners. Even before the existence of Natura 2000, both manager parties were already in line with each other and carried out the same message. This message is in line with the visions carried out by the Natura 2000 legislation: both are keen on conservation and restoration. Both correspond with the vision 'Stewardship of Nature'. They already drafted a nature development plan for the area with which measures needed to be taken. These are in line with the Natura 2000 goals which were drawn up for the area. So no differences were present. However, for the situation around the forest production and harvesting, especially the 'bog forest', the Natura 2000 legislation can be used to forbid this activity. So in this case, it can be said in general that, especially for the level of management, the status of Natura 2000 area only gives 'Wooldse Veen – Burlo Vardingholter Venn' an extra level of protection.

On the other hand, it is clearly recognizable that the Natura 2000 legislation had a large influence regarding the cooperation between the different partners in the area (especially at the level of government). As a consequence of how the legislation is implemented in the Dutch society (the need of drafting a management plan) it brings different partners together to share their opinions. In this way can be concluded that the Natura 2000 legislation influences the process in an indirect way.

6.2 Case study 2: Gelderse Poort/Niederrheinische Pforte

As already mentioned in chapter 5, two different approaches can be distinguished in the area of the 'Gelderse Poort /Niederrheinische Pforte' resulting in two different landscapes.

6.2.1 Cooperation

The Gelderse Poort was designated to be a cross border project by the Dutch government in 1989. However, not until 1991, the German government was informed about this project. Nevertheless, the German government welcomed the project. Both countries performed multiple studies about the future of the area. In good spirits, a German-Dutch steering

committee was set up. However, at one point in time they reached the moment to make the decision whether (1) the German part was supplementary to the Dutch or that (2) the German part would be complementary in contrast with the Dutch part. In the end it would turn out that the German part is in contrast with the Dutch part. Despite all the good efforts that were made, the transnational steering committee decided that there will be no cross border goal set up for the total area. This decision was made on the notion that *“a comprehensive cross boundary policy plan for the whole area appeared to be impossible”* (de Jong & Tatenhove, 1998, p.165). A consequence of this decision is that nowadays no attempts are made on cooperating at a high level of government. Therefore, it can be concluded that the process of cooperation as defined in this research has failed.

6.2.2 Visions of Nature

For the Dutch part of the ‘Gelderse Poort’ the dynamics of nature itself play an important role (Interview R. Wolf; Interview T. Wijers; Interview J. Ex). The management party in the area (Staatbosbeheer), managed the area from a point of view in which natural processes shape nature and almost no human involvement takes place. *“We try that the process of nature is steering for what we do. So the river ultimately determines how the area will look like, within the framework of security off course. The river is guiding us which management approach we should use”* (Interview T. Wijers). This approach is confirmed by other participants (Interview R. Wolf, Interview J. Ex). Although the impression might be created that nature can take its own course, still it needs a little bit of human involvement. This can be recognized as fine-tuning of the area, with the use of for example grazing animals (Interview T. Wijers, interview J. Ex). However, in some cases it goes a bit further. Measurements are carried out (for example clay extraction) to give nature a starting point.

Next to the important nature function of the area, it also serves as an area for water redemption as a result of national water security measures (Interview J. Ex). Because of this security function, there are consequences as to how far nature can go its own way. An example is that the function of water redemption becomes discredited when the floodplain is not managed. Due to the natural processes the floodplain would develop in a riparian forest. Therefore managers do not allow this development since the endangerment of the water redemption function. However, this contradicts with the first vision about the management of het area.

In the German part of the ‘Niederrheinische Pforte’ the cultural heritage is of more importance, which is dominated by agricultural features. Features they want to protect and preserve. These are in line with the features of the Landschaftspflege.

6.2.3 Conclusion

Overall, it can be concluded that the Dutch side of the area is more dominated by the thought of Participation in Nature (human actions are guided by nature) and in some cases even the Wilderness Vision (nature arranges its own development). However, it can be

argued whether these visions can be applied in the area since the function of water redemption actually needs human interference. Therefore, it might even be said that it slightly has some features of Mastery of Nature, since the area has a function of serving as a protection zone for human activities. However, despite this important second function, the idea of human actions are guided by natural processes, can still be recognized as dominant.

The German side of the area is in some way more influenced by the Mastery of Nature, because of the agriculture which is still taking place outside the dykes. However, the area focuses more on the protection of the cultural heritage. Therefore the vision moves strongly towards Partnership with Nature, which can be seen as the dominant vision in the area. This area can be seen as a typical cultural landscape.

6.2.3.1 Natura 2000

Despite the fact that cooperation in this case study is minimal, this does not have an influence on the realization of the Natura 2000 legislation. Although the visions in the area differ from each other (between both countries), the Natura 2000 goals are not at risk of not being achieved. Therefore, in this case, it can be questioned to what extent the vision carried out by the Natura 2000 legislation influences the regional visions in the area. The Natura 2000 legislation aims at the preservation and restoration of endangered and valuable species and their habitats. However, in the Dutch part the strategy is based on the development of (new) nature areas. Therefore these findings might show that Natura 2000 actually has a minimum influence on the visions for an area.

Secondly, it also can be recognized that in the case of this area it does not bring partners together. This is partly the results of the decision which was made by the Dutch to not involve German partners in the process of drafting up the management plan.

6.3 Case study 3: Ketelwald

The area 'Het Ketelwald' is characterized by its initiative takers; 'Environmental Working Group Groesbeek', which is a Dutch working group. For over 25 years this group did research in the Dutch-German forest area on the natural and cultural history of the area, with the consequence that they have built up a wide range of knowledge about the area. Quickly a partnership was set up with German actors. However, within this partnership two different ideas and opinions can be recognized. Secondly, this case study is characterized by the fact that the influence of the level of government is minimum. Thirdly, this area does not have the Natura 2000 status.

6.3.1 Cooperation

As seen in section 5.3.1 the most important parties in the area can be divided into two groups. First of all we can distinguish the group of Natuurmonumenten, Staatsbosbeheer and the NABU, which all have the goal of creating a natural way of forest management. One of the objectives is to create more native deciduous trees, which naturally belong in the

forests. Next to this, these parties also try to manage 'older forest', where natural processes play a key role. Thirdly, they want to reinforce the cultural remains of the Ketelwald. The opinion of the initiating group is that all these cultural relics tell something about the past; about how people lived in and with the forest. That is why it provides an additional amenity. Finally nature-related recreation and education should be promoted. It is important that people can enjoy nature. A result of this enjoyment and contact with nature might be that the public opinion may raise about nature being worthy of protection.

The second group that can be distinguish in the area exists out of the Forstamt. This organization still has very conservative ideas regarding forest management, mainly because of their main goal to produce wood.

It may appear that these two groups have contradicting ideas. In practice, this is not the case. The other parties of the first section do recognize the main goal of the Forstamt. In perspective of this they try to apply measurements whereby wood production is still possible in combination with the realization of ecological goals (in the German part of the area).

It can be concluded that despite these differences, and the efforts that had to be made to overcome them, the cooperation in this area is experienced as to be smoothly and successful. However, this statement can only be made strictly looking at the visions on nature and the function of the area.

6.3.2 Visions of Nature

Translating these approaches and goals into visions, it can be concluded that for the German part of the area, a combination of 'Mastery of Nature' (because of the wood production) and 'Stewardship of Nature' (because of the ecological and cultural goals) is present.

At the Dutch side of the area, a combination of 'Participation in Nature' and 'Partnership with Nature' can be seen, of which the latter is more dominant. This combination can be distinguished because natural processes play a key role in the forest. On the other hand, it can be recognized that cultural relics are of great importance and that nature-related recreation and education is promoted. This actually shows a harmony between humans and nature.

6.3.3 Conclusion

Although different visions can be distinguished during the cooperation process this did not lead to conflicting management measures. Due to the recognition of the existing differences between visions and the compromises that had been made, the influence of different visions on the cooperation process is minimum. However, still three organizations shared the same vision. This means, that although compromises had to be made, there was already a strong coherency and connection between these organizations.

With the acknowledgement that the organization have the ambition to get the Natura 2000 status for the area, the prognosis is that this should not cause major problems (strictly

looking at the visions). Both are keen on the preservation and restoration of the area. Even with the slightly divergent vision of the Forstamt, this should not be a problem. Reason for this is introduction of the ecological and cultural goals, which is a result of the compromises.

6.4 Case study 4: Natuurpark Roode Beek/Rodebach

The case study Natuurpark Roode Beek/Rodebach is characterized by the initiation of the project at the level of the local government (municipalities of Onderbanken (NL) and Gangelt (D)). Which is an exception compared to the other case studies. Secondly the foundation of the project is in contrast to the others. In this case, creating a new economic input for the area might even be considered as being of more importance than the development of a new nature area. These findings have further consequences for this research.

6.4.1 Cooperation

As shown, the phenomenon of 'cross border cooperation' is not new in this case study and dates back to 1975 on different subjects. Due to the many experiences with this kind of cooperation, together with the special attention which is given to the development vision, it can be concluded that the cooperation went smoothly, especially on the level of government.

However, on the other hand it can be said that at the level of management, this cross border cooperation was totally new. As shown, before the introduction of the project there was no contact and exchange of knowledge and ideas between the two countries. A reason for this might be the fact that the land of the German part of the area was leased to farmers by the community of Gangelt. The land was used for private management or for agricultural purposes. This is in contrast with the Dutch part, where since 1995, the area was owned by Natuurmonumenten. Before the initiative for Natuurpark Roode Beek/Rodebach was taken, Natuurmonumenten already applied a transition strategy (from pinewood to the original nature).

So although the starting points of both countries were different at the level of management, due to the overall agreements on the new destination of the area, this did not become a problem. The Dutch continued with their transition management (which corresponded with the eventual initiative). The Germans withdrew the leases, so that the area could be used for the project.

6.4.2 Visions of Nature

Considering the possible different visions that are present in the area, the joint initiative of Natuurpark Roode Beek/Rodebach is also for this topic an important starting point. The joint initiative was set up to provide new input for the economy in the area, with the focus on recreation in combination with nature. In order to create a more attractive area it had to be transformed from an area which was dedicated to the mining industry (especially on the Dutch side) towards a place for villagers to spend their free time. Also the area on the German side had to be transformed from an agricultural area towards a more nature

orientated area. This was a logical occurrence because rewetting of the grounds already took place as a consequence of the measures taken at the creek.

The realization of this area contains the restoration of the natural appearance of the area, referring to the area before it had a pure economic function. This means the removal of the coniferous forest, and bringing back the swamp-like appearance in some areas. Also the creek is transformed to a more meandering creek. However, this last measure is only applied on the Dutch side. One reason for this is that because of the meandering process the border between the two countries at this particular place would not be deterrent anymore; it would move. Secondly, it was too much trouble in Germany to also transform the creek into a meandering one. Therefore they had to deal with too many other policies. That is why they made the concession of only having a meandering creek on the Dutch side of the area (Interview T. Senden).

6.4.3 Conclusion

Translating this into a vision for the area, a shift has taken place from 'Mastery of Nature', where nature was inferior to the mining industry and agricultural purposes, towards a more 'Partnership with Nature', where nature has a more intrinsic value. Still human actions take place in the area, but at a minimum influence (grazing cattle). People are also allowed to visit and enjoy the area. However, zoning is applied to protect the most vulnerable species. This is the concession that the managing parties in the area had to make. In this way they were subordinate towards the level of government, which assigned the policy status of recreation in *combination with* nature development to the area.

Based on the relationship between the visions of nature and the process of cooperation, it can be assumed that, in this case, the fact of having the same ideas and motives is conducive for the process of cooperation. However, still concessions had to be made in order to have a good cooperation process resulting in a successful project. In this situation, the function of recreation has a key role. Natuurmonumenten was aware of the fact that this concession had to be made. At end this caused no problem.

Although the participants in this area do not have the ambition that the area will be designated as a Natura 2000 area, it should not be a problem if the area does have this status. The most important actors in the area already cooperate with each other, with the consequence that there will not be major confrontations when a management plan must be drawn up. Reflecting on the aim of the Natura 2000 legislation, this corresponds with the dominant vision in the area; restoration of the area. Despite the fact that the recreational use of the area will be large, this is not in conflict with the Natura 2000 legislation. Since in the design of these areas also other criteria, such as economic or social criteria, may be included (De Levende Natuur, 2007).

Chapter 7 Conclusions

In this chapter the research question will be answered: “What is the influence of different views about nature and her function on the cooperation in a cross border nature conservation project? Does the Natura 2000 legislation encourages this cooperation?”. The answer to this question will be guided by the sub-questions answered earlier in this research. Also there will be a reflection on the hypotheses compiled at the beginning of this research. Furthermore, the limitations of the research will be discussed. Finally, some recommendations will be given for further research about issues that were noticed in the process and might be interesting for further research.

7.1 The influence of different visions on the cooperation.

In general, with regard to the findings of the case studies, it can be said that the visions on nature and her functions do influence the process of cooperation. This can be in a positive or in a negative way, which can be justified by the case studies. As seen in the situation of three out of four case studies, similarities between visions carried out by the actors forms a good starting point for the cooperation process. Regardless on which level this agreement is formed for the first time. However, it can be seen that in most cases first there was agreement on the level of management (‘Wooldse Veen/Burlo-Vardingholter Venn’ and ‘Ketelwald’). Secondly, the statement can be justified with the example of ‘De Gelderse Poort/Niederrheinische Pforte’. Due to a decision made in the past, the area has a different appearance in each country, it is in contrast with each other. Despite the intention of the project was to create an area without a state border.

However, overall it can be recognized that because of the more or less positive influence the cooperation between the different parties (national as well as international) went smoothly. When strictly looking at the process of cooperation, different levels of intensity of cooperation can be recognized. One finding of importance is that there is a major difference between the level of management and the level of government. First of all, there is a difference due to the sharpness of the border. It is remarkable that the managing parties in most cases look beyond this border and consider the nature areas as being a whole, despite the fact that the area is divided over the different countries. Secondly, the initiative of the cooperation was, in most cases, first at the level of management (with the exception of ‘Natuurpark Roode Beek/Rodebach’). An important statement that can be derived from this recognition is that cross border cooperation on nature conservation is still performed from a bottom-up approach. At the level of management the existence of regular meetings and common goals for the area can already be seen. When eventually matters had to be discussed on the level of government, these early contacts came in handy. Still it was noticeable that in the beginning it was difficult to look for the right equivalent authority, especially at the level of government, due to the different political systems in both countries. Despite these difficulties, the overall movement from only cooperation on the level of management towards cooperation on both levels took place.

Reflecting on the first hypothesis in this research, *when views about nature and her functions are the same amongst actors, cross border cooperation has a bigger chance to be successful*, it can be concluded that this is the case.

7.2 The encouragement of the Natura 2000 legislation on the cooperation

In general, with regard to the findings of the case studies, it can be concluded that the encouragement of the Natura 2000 legislation on cross border cooperation is minimum. A possible cause of this is that the Natura 2000 legislation does not directly forces that thoughts about the nature in the specific area are the same for all actors involved. Although the Natura 2000 legislation aims at the preservation and restoration of endangered and valuable species and their habitats, its vision is not automatically transferred to the actors in the area. An example of this is the case study 'De Gelderse Poort/Niederrheinische Pforte', where, on the Dutch side of the area, the strategy is based on the development of (new) nature areas. Therefore, the legislation might only imposes which goals must be reached. Furthermore, looking at the case studies in general, it can be seen that before the introduction of the Natura 2000 legislation the actors were already in line with each other on the visions. These visions also correspond to the vision carried out by the Natura 2000 legislation. In some cases, this was already embedded in a development plan for the area. So with the introduction of the Natura 2000 legislation these existing ideas could easily be embedded in the management plan. Comparing the case studies with a Natura 2000 status and the ones without this status, it is seen that there are little differences. The cooperation in the areas without a Natura 2000 status was not less successful than the areas with this status. It might even be mentioned that the Natura 2000 legislation does not guarantee a successful cooperation looking at the case study 'De Gelderse Poort/ Niederrheinische Pforte'.

Reflecting on the second hypothesis, *since the Natura 2000 legislation has a top down approach, it 'forces' local actors to have the same specific vision about nature and her function*, it can be said that this is not the case.

On the other hand, it can be argued that the Natura 2000 legislation still indirectly has influence on these visions. Not in the case of forcing a certain vision, but more in the way of bringing people together. In these meetings visions can be shared, with the possible consequence that at the end one strategy for the area might be formed. This indirect influence is a consequence of the implementation of the Natura 2000 legislation, where the political systems are very determining. As seen in the Netherlands, the Natura 2000 legislation is more systematically embedded in management plans. This differs highly between the different states in Germany, where in some cases, it is not required at all. However, during the research process it was noticeable that both countries have an incomplete picture of how the Natura 2000 legislation is implemented by the neighbours.

The Dutch think that in Germany a management plan is not required at all, which is not always the case. Furthermore, they believe that when a strategy is set up for the area, there is nothing that other parties can do about it, which again is not true. Also the Germans have some strange thoughts. For example, they think that when an area is bought by a managing party, they can do anything what they want with it, which off course is not true. These misunderstandings show that there are still a lot of things that are unknown, which might suggest that actors do not look further than our own border.

Since this research has been done from a Dutch point of view, these management plans turned out to be a crucial factor in forming conclusions regarding the influence of the Natura 2000 legislation on the cross border cooperation.

Nevertheless, the requirement of setting up a management plan is not always experienced as being a positive aspect. Especially managing parties experience it as a democratic monster. The actual idea itself is recognized as an ideal situation and very important, but the way how a management plan must be set up, is seen as a burden. The common opinion is that the involvement of many different parties results in huge (unnecessary) delays. This leads to frustration since most of the nature goals, which correspond to Natura 2000 goals, were already initiated before the Natura 2000 legislation was even introduced. Here a conflict can be recognized between the top-down approach of the Natura 2000 legislation and the bottom-up approach on which the cross border nature conservation areas are based on. This observation justifies the statement by Zbicz (2003, p.23), *“although transboundary ecosystem-based conservation strategies neither should nor can be imposed from the top by well-meaning international organizations and agencies, it can be fostered, encouraged, and nurtured, and this can make a difference”*.

However, participants are not entirely negative about the implementation of the Natura 2000 legislation. Still the legislation brings an additional status for the areas, which results in a situation in which matters can be organized in an easier way. The downside of this is the statement *“because it is a Natura 2000 area”* can be used in and out reason, resulting in repulsion towards the legislation.

Finally, it can also be concluded that Natura 2000 does not encourage cross border cooperation. The legislation can certainly not be the reason for cross border cooperation. In all cases, the cooperation was already in progress before the Natura 2000 legislation was implemented. Therefore, it can be said that the third hypothesis, *the Natura 2000 legislation encourages cross border cooperation in general*, is not true.

7.3 Limitations of the research

With hindsight it can be reasoned that the way the theoretical framework is used during this research, could have been differently. Since, in this research, visions on nature are interpreted in ways dealing with how the area is managed and what future vision the

different parties in the area have for the particular area. This made using the original framework difficult. Therefore it can probably be concluded that some features of the theory can be explained differently in contrast to the way it is used in this research.

This can be justified by the definition of 'Mastery of nature'. In this research, this vision has been characterized by minimum or no human (interfering) involvement in nature, nature and culture is separated and nature regulates its own development. However, there is a second way of defining this vision. In this way, humans have the power to decide that nature can develop on its own in a certain area. With this decision nature does not develop in a spontaneous way, which makes humans also masters of nature.

The second limitation of this research is that many different visions (of one actor) can occur in one area. In most cases, one vision is not representative for the whole area, so that overlap between the different visions occurred. This is a consequence of the connection with the use of nature. Therefore this thesis generalized this into the most important vision of the actor. Another consequence of this way of using the theory (and the framework), is that the two extremes ('Mastery of Nature' and 'Wilderness Vision') are the most differentiated from each other. The three categories of visions between them are more closely linked with each other, which makes it hard to distinguish between them and again then they show overlap.

Thirdly, the decision of only interviewing managing and governmental parties can be questioned. This can result in not having a complete overview of all the visions there are present in the areas. Here, an example can be the inclusion of farmers. However, in most cases (parts of) the areas were already designated, designed and managed as nature areas. So in those cases the managing parties and administrator parties were already the most influencing in the areas.

Finally, although clearly mentioned at the beginning of this research, in the process of cooperation only attention is being paid to the visions, whereby the influence of the availability of resources on the cooperation have not been taken into account. When the availability of resources would be taken into account, conclusion might be different about the successfulness of cross border cooperation.

7.4 Recommendations for further research

Although the case studies used in this research show no major influence by the Natura 2000 legislation, participants talked about Natura 2000 sites where this was the case. The participants mentioned (Interview L. Bruinsma) that in some cases a different purpose had to be achieved than was initially envisaged. However, this cannot be proved by the case studies used in this research. To fully understand the influence of Natura 2000, it is necessary to take a look at a larger range of sites. The cross border factor is not even necessary to take into consideration in such a research, because this factor shows little

influence on the visions used in the areas (with exception of the 'Gelderse Poort/Niederrheinische Pforte' case study).

Secondly, another possibility for further research is the influence that Natura 2000 (and maybe even the intensifying nature policy) has got on the public. As this research has revealed that it has become more and more difficult to explain measures that have to be taken towards the public. Increasing resistance is emerging, which eventually can become a problem. That is probably why the argument of Natura 2000 should not be used in and out of season, because eventually it loses its value. A consequence is that when protection is really necessary and there is no support, people are fed up with it.

Thirdly it can be suggested to do further research on what influences the Natura 2000 legislation has on the current discussion (and developments) of the future of the nature policy in the Netherlands. During the research it was noticeable that this topic plays an important role among the managing parties nowadays. It is feared that European nature regulations (including Natura 2000) will become, in the future, more and more important, because of the degeneration of the national nature policy. Major concerns arise around the areas which connect the Natura 2000 sites. These areas do not have this status, but are just as important, because of their connecting role.

Finally, to expand the research even further, the connection with political cultures might be made. An important reason to examine these political cultures is because political institutions and actions have to be understood in a cultural context. Political activities are directed by interpretations and preferences, not by bare facts and interests, as rational choice theorists postulate. Political culture points at the importance of 'meaning' (Mamadouh, 1999a).

Elazar (1994) distinguishes three 'phases' around political cultures:

- Sources of political culture, such as race, ethnicity, religion, language and life experiences;
- Manifestations of political culture, such as political attitudes, symbols and style;
- Effects of political culture, such as actions, institutions, policies.

Suggesting that the same principles of this research are used in the next, the focus has to be on values (of the human-nature relationship), which form the basis for all three phases mentioned by Elazar (1994). As it can be seen, the first phase includes the source of the specific political culture, which will influence the manifestations and the effects of the political culture. This process is recognized by Jasanoff & Wynne (1998, p.5), who argue that *"the institutionalization of social norms and practices into stable patterns of political culture is increasingly seen as influencing the direction of research strategies, the production of knowledge, and the application of knowledge to action"*.

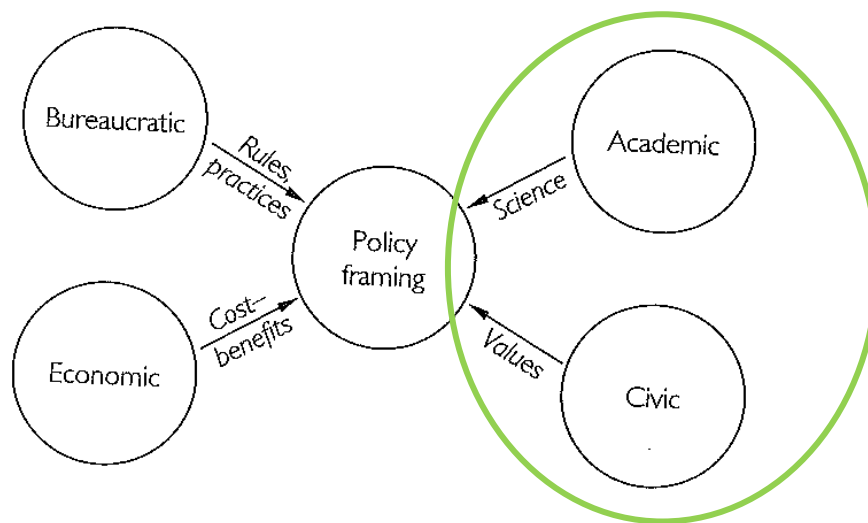


Figure 11. The four 'policy cultures'. Source: Jasanoff & Wynne (1998)

Jasanoff & Wynne (1998) conclude that policymaking is divided into four 'policy cultures' – bureaucratic, economic, academic and civic. Each policy culture has its own doctrinal assumptions, its images and ideals, and its own political constituencies (Jasanoff & Wynne, 1998). Although a thorough research has not been done yet, at first sight it can be suggested that 'Scientific' and 'Civic' play, in the case of this research, a large role. This can be concluded because policy making has been changing over the last decades; it is changing from making policy 'behind closed doors' to a more 'interactive' form of policy making. So not only is policy based on scientific facts, but also on the values of the public.

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Annex 1: Interview Guide

- Doel van het onderzoek:

Het uiteindelijke doel Van dit onderzoek is het geven Van een inzicht in de samenwerking tussen twee Europese lidstaten op het gebied Van het vormen Van nieuwe grensoverschrijdende natuurontwikkelings strategieën en beleid, en de invloed Van Europese regelgeving (in dit geval Natura 2000). Hierbij wordt specifiek gekeken naar de verschillende gedachtes over de mens-natuur relatie. De hypothese/aanname die hierbij Van toepassing is, is dat de samenwerking makkelijker verloopt als deze verschillende gedachtes, en daarmee ook de politieke culturen, hetzelfde zijn. Dit doel zal behaald worden door het onderzoeken Van de verschillende gedachtes en meningen over hoe om te gaan met natuur in verschillende grensoverschrijdende projecten, betreffende Nederlands en Duitslands grondgebied.

Dit doel vertaald naar de hoofdvraag geeft het volgende resultaat:

“Wat is de invloed Van Natura 2000 op de samenwerking in grensoverschrijdende natuurgebieden, kijkend naar de verschillende gedachtes over natuur? Bevordert Natura 2000 deze samenwerking?”

- Vragenlijst:

1. Wat is de rol Van uw organisatie in het natuurgebied?
 - a. Wat doet uw organisatie binnen het natuurgebied?

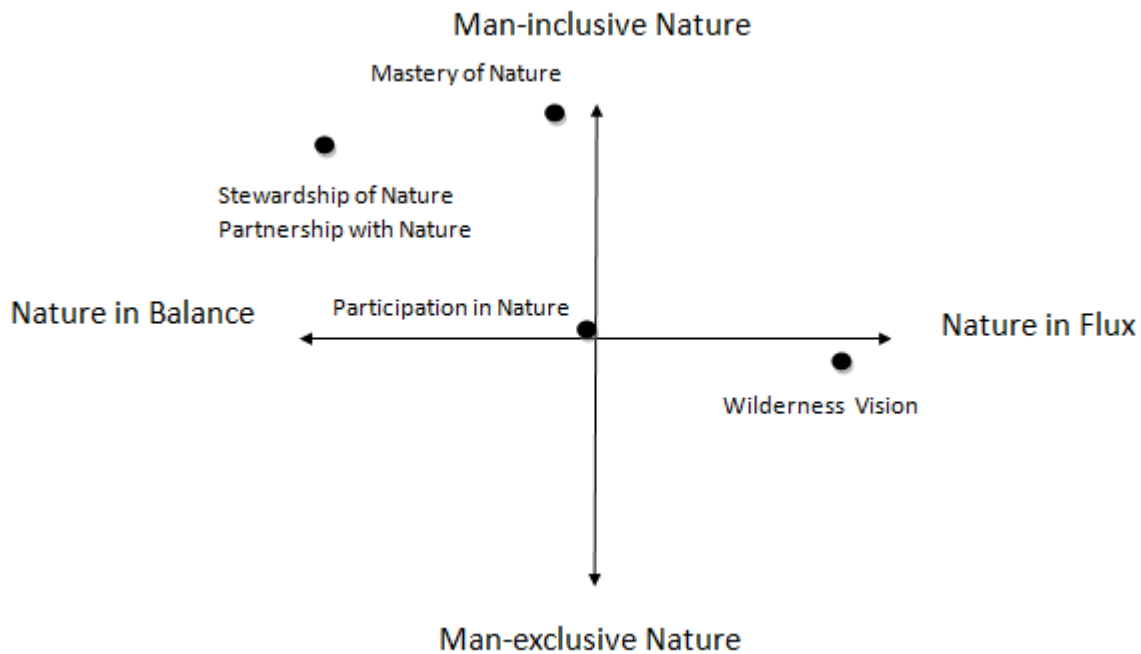
[Afbeelding 1 en tabel 1 uitleggen en laten zien]

2. Hoe kijkt u zelf en uw organisatie aan tegen de natuur binnen het gebied?
 - a. Welke rol speelt de mens binnen natuur volgens u?
 - b. Wat is volgens u de verhouding/relatie tussen de mens en natuur?
3. Hoe is de samenwerking tussen de verschillende Nederlandse en Duitse actoren verlopen?
 - a. Aanleiding (wie nam het initiatief)
 - b. Welke actoren zijn erbij betrokken
 - c. Het verloop Van het proces
 - i. Welke rol heeft uw organisatie gespeeld binnen het proces Van de samenwerking?
 - ii. Rol die de andere actoren in namen
 - iii. Mogelijke knelpunten
 - d. Uitkomst

[Terug verwijzen naar de eerdere uitgelegde Afbeelding 1 en tabel 1]

4. Heeft u tijdens de samenwerking gemerkt dat het beeld tegenover natuur verschillend was tussen de verschillende actoren?
 - a. Was de relatie tussen mens en natuur een discussiepunt binnen het samenwerkingsproces?
 - i. Zo ja, tussen welke natuurbelden en actoren?

5. Heeft, naar uw mening, Natura 2000 invloed (gehad) op het proces Van de samenwerking?
 - a. Welke rol heeft het gespeeld? Welke rol speelt het?
 - b. Is Natura 2000 bevorderlijk voor de samenwerking (is de samenwerking makkelijker geworden)?
 - i. Zo ja, in welk opzicht? Ook op het gebied Van hoe tegen natuur wordt aangekeken?
 - ii. Zo nee, gelooft u erin dat Natura 2000 bevorderlijk kan zijn?
6. Als het natuurgebied aangewezen zou worden als Natura 2000 gebied, wat zou dan, naar uw mening, dit voor gevolgen hebben op het proces Van de samenwerking? Heeft dit wel gevolgen of maakt het niks uit?
 - a. Zo ja, in welk opzicht? Ook op het gebied Van hoe tegen natuur wordt aangekeken?



Figuur 1. Human-nature relationships

Gedachtegangen over natuur	Kenmerken
Mastery of Nature	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Natuur heeft puur een functionele functie en instrumentele waarde; Is Van mening dat de natuur vooral als economische hulpbron dient, of ten minste ondergeschikt is aan de mensheid; Het resultaat hiervan is dat natuur vaak gekenmerkt wordt door 'soorten' die gewoonlijk geassocieerd met menselijke nederzettingen. Functional arrangement
Stewardship of Nature	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Mensen staan boven de natuur; Mensen zijn de verzorgers Van een kwetsbare natuur; Een voorzichtige en beschermende houding tegenover de natuur. Arcadian
Partnership with Nature	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Mensen zijn de verzorgers Van de natuur; Er is harmonie in de relatie tussen mens en natuur, ze 'delen' de planeet; Cultuurlandschappen. Arcadian
Participation in Nature	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> De natuur staat boven mensen, mensen zijn onderdeel Van een groter systeem; Menselijk handelen worden geleid door de natuur. Nature Development
Wilderness Vision	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Minimale of geen menselijk betrokkenheid bij de natuur; Natuur en cultuur zijn gescheiden; Natuur regelt haar eigen ontwikkeling. Nature Development

Tabel 1. Gedachtegangen over natuur

Annex 2: List of participants

Wooldse Veen – Burlo-Vardingholter Venn:

- Luc Bruinsma (Provincie Gelderland)
- Gert de Lange (Gemeente Winterswijk)
- Barry Teunissen (Natuurmonumenten)
- Robert Wolf (Provincie Gelderland)
- Peter Pavlovic (Kreis Borken)

Gelder Poort – Niederrheinische Pforte:

- Jaap Ex (Provincie Gelderland)
- Theo Wijers (Staatsbosbeheer)
- Robert Wolf (Provincie Gelderland)

Ketelwald - Reichswald:

- Fons Mandigers (Natuurmonumenten)
- Theo Wijers (Staatsbosbeheer)
- Henny Brinkhof (Werkgroep Milieubeheer Groesbeek)
- Dietrich Cerff (NABU)
- Hanns-Karl Ganger (Formstamt Kleve)

Natuurpark Roode Beek/Rodebach:

- Tim Senden (Gemeente Onderbanken)
- Frank Baselmans (Natuurmonumenten)
- Ulrich Wassen (Kreis Heinsberg)
- Heinz Houben (Gemeinde Gangelt)