

E — Overview of spatial planning in practice

E1. An overview of the practice of spatial planning has to begin with the statement that the options provided by spatial planning legislation (planning instruments and procedures) for pursuing goals of spatial planning have not been fully exploited, either in terms of quantity or quality. In other words practice lags behind the intention of the laws. In Austria this might have to do with the prevailing attitude of politics that gives more importance to a tactical approach (case by case) than to strategies based on underlying concepts. Thus within the political-administrative system, planning is traditionally considered to be less an instrument, but more of a restrictive self-imposed duty for politics, even to the extent of being seen as an obstacle. This general aversion towards planning in the field of spatial policies is especially difficult to overcome and must be seen in the light of highly valued land ownership in Austria and in the historical context of the concepts (see Section A, Land quality/building quality).

E2. Thus, the plans and programmes provided for in spatial planning legislation at the state and regional level are considered less to be tasks of the administration, but rather an array of options which may be selected as the policy need arises. This is how the significant legal modifications — such as the recent new goals and instruments for settlement development — should be understood: not as a more concrete and binding duty, but as an indication of a change in attitudes towards general concepts of values and goals.

E3. Views on policies and public discussions refer primarily to the project level. Planning for larger scales in space and in time are clearly in the background. Since spatial planning, however, basically cannot afford to disregard these aspects, a trend is emerging to work out outlines that are more flexible and not legally binding and grow 'in the political shadow' of projects and subsidy measures that stand 'in the political limelight'. Their function, on the one hand, is to serve as the basis for arguments and evaluation of decisions by spatial planning authorities, and on the other hand, as information material for the continuous work of convincing bodies within the political-administrative system and the general public.

E4. A useful description of the practice of spatial planning policy in Austria differentiates clearly between the different levels of local, regional and national. This is not only because the distribution of competence at these different levels and the various instruments at their disposal play a significant role, but also because the different ways in which planning is interpreted at the individual levels is also responsible for the treatment (or non-treatment) of certain subject fields. The content of the planning process is decided ultimately by political weight, and not by statutory standards on goals and instruments. Planning topics are naturally also subject to political changes.

E5. Austria became a member of the European Union on 1 January 1995. This report refers to the status as at 1 January 1994. Therefore no implementations of EU policy can be reported. (For the influence of the preparations for membership on the Austrian spatial planning system see Section A, European Union)

National level

E6. Spatial planning policy at a federal government level has, for over 20 years, meant regional policy, which in turn is perceived to consist primarily of regional subsidies. This is limited to disadvantaged areas such as peripheral rural regions (without tourism) and old industrial regions. The instrument of government subsidies for private investments in disadvantaged areas was used flexibly and adjusted several times to the current status of application experience and of regional policy theory. Currently, the main focus lies in subsidies for innovation and non-material investments aimed at strengthening the endogenous potential of regional economic structures. Among these are also innovation centres and technology transfer facilities in which the federal government is also involved, through providing funds (see Section B, Policy instruments, Federal level). During the evolution of regional policy over the past two decades, cooperation between the federal government and the states has become progressively closer. The most important regional subsidy action is financed by the federal government together with seven states. The definition of assisted areas is also carried out together within the scope of the *Österreichische Raumordnungskonferenz (ÖROK)* (Austrian Conference on Regional Planning, see Sector B, Policy institutions, Federal government).

E7. Planning with spatial impact varies greatly in practice in the individual fields of competence of the federal government. Whilst forestry spatial planning operates independently and for the entire territory, in the case of the federal waste disposal plan the definitions of locations for incinerator plants

and dumps (for hazardous waste) as prescribed by law are still absent. Despite the fact that competence clearly lies in the hands of the federal government, final decisions on locations are only possible with the political consensus of the concerned *Land* (state). In both federal ministries responsible for transportation, planning has been limited in the past to project planning. At present sectoral planning — more or less a necessary counterpart to spatial planning in respect of spatial aspects and time periods — does not exist for the railway network, nor for the national road network. General transportation policy goals are contained in the *Österreichische Gesamtverkehrskonzept 1991* (Austrian transport policy scheme of 1991). A federal transport routes plan is currently being formulated, which should be completed in 1996.

E8. In the course of the last 20 years several attempts to improve coordination of the different planning activities of the federal government which have a spatial impact, through proper federal spatial planning law, have failed. Discussions that sought to go further and deal with ideas to reorganise the distribution of competence between federal government and states in matters related to spatial planning never took place. The rules of procedure, a sort of substitute, worked out together by experts at federal and state administration level, with the aim of improving the flow of information on spatial planning matters between federal government and states, has not yet been adopted.

E9. The *Österreichische Raumordnungskonferenz (ÖROK)* (Austrian Conference on Regional Planning) is available as a common platform for cooperation in dealing with fundamental matters of national spatial planning. From a political point of view, the most important recent events were the definitions of national assisted areas, the negotiation proposals in connection with the membership of the EU for the Structural Fund objective areas, as well as the Austrian rules of procedure for work involved in the planning of programmes for regional cooperation with the EU. The *Österreichische Raumordnungs-*

konzept 1991 (Austrian Spatial Planning Concept of 1991) was worked out and adopted jointly by the federal government, states and municipalities as guidance for all bodies responsible for spatial planning. The implementation of measures is carried out according to political priorities that result from the current state of political affairs and not according to written norms. National planning materials produced by the *ÖROK* (e.g. population forecasts) do not have any directly perceptible political effects. However, due to their broad application, they function as a type of bonding agent between the different bodies responsible for planning.

Land level

E10. At state level the practice of producing plans and schemes varies considerably from state to state. Two relatively old *Landesraumordnungsprogramme* (state development programmes), Styria 1977 and Upper Austria 1978, have been supplemented by two new programmes (Burgenland and Salzburg 1994). In addition to formulating general goals for the regions and local planning, these programmes also contain location categories (e.g. central places, industrial locations and tourism locations in different stages). The Salzburg comprehensive state development plan contains far-reaching guidelines for settlement planning at the regional and local level (see Table B5). Moreover, the trend of applying case-oriented regional development programmes to certain sectors that require prompt regulation is also emerging at this level. Current issues at this level are the location of shopping centres and waste disposal sites. In the past years, integrated transportation policy concepts have been produced in all states that focus on local public transport, not in the form of binding programmes, but as a basis for the state government in its negotiations with the federal government and bodies responsible for transportation policies (see Table B7).

E11. Among the states' most important sectoral responsibilities with spatial impact is the organisation of waste disposal management

(for non-hazardous waste). In practically all states, schemes and plans have been produced, or are in the process of being formulated, that restrict their catchment area and determine the locations for regional waste treatment and disposal plants. The selection of locations for waste dumps is in part the responsibility of the regional (municipal) associations. The actual construction or commissioning of new locations often faces significant local resistance.

E12. The states have the competence for setting up national parks, an activity that has become the focus of political attention due to increased environmental awareness by the public. The federal government also has interests in this field, especially in connection with international agreements. Changes to the present distribution of competences are not being considered. On the contrary, the federal government is attempting to achieve the necessary coordination by participating in the funding of the necessary investments.

E13. The responsibility of the states is also to provide the municipalities with the proper instruments for spatial planning at a local level. In some states, not only were new instruments for bringing building land onto the market introduced, but also separate funds and companies were set up at state level to assist municipalities in their active land policies, e.g. acquiring properties in order to achieve planning goals.

Regional level

E14. At the regional level planning activities cover only a part of the national territory. *Regionalpläne* (spatial plans at regional level (plans for the level between municipality and state, competence of the state government) only exist for a few regions. The first generation of planning (1970s and 1980s) attempted to meet a comprehensive overall planning objective. Due mainly to the enormous amount of work and coordination involved, this type of planning activity is gradually being discarded. The most recent regional planning programmes usually restrict

themselves to a few concerns or to only one, but on the other hand, lay down concrete and binding guidelines for the municipalities. For example, settlement limits, the securing of certain undeveloped zones (for agriculture, for ecological reasons, or for securing raw material) and guidelines for shopping centres (see Section F, Commercial development).

E15. At this level, plans and programmes are usually only produced for subject and geographical areas for which spatial planning policy measures appear necessary. The complete coverage of the whole area is not usually a goal at this level. A consequence which cannot be avoided, of course, is a situation in which sectors and geographic areas exist that are not covered by supra-local objectives issued by the state for guiding the municipality's local spatial planning activities.

E16. The participation of municipalities in the production of regional programmes practised by the state administration varies considerably. Procedures in the individual states range from the complete assignment of the task by the state to municipal associations set up for such specific purposes (Salzburg), participation in regional planning advisory councils (Upper Austria, until now Lower Austria, Styria, Tyrol), through to the mere opportunity of making a statement in appraisal procedures (Burgenland, Carinthia, Vorarlberg and, in the future, Lower Austria).

E17. Apart from binding plans that contain regulations for municipalities, another type of plan has recently experienced a strong re-awakening. In the course of preparations for membership of the EU, attempts were made at producing development policy-oriented regional planning. Under the project management of the individual states, *Regionalwirtschaftliche Entwicklungskonzepte* (regional economic schemes) have been prepared in programme workgroups since the end of 1993. These concepts are the basis for the Single Programming Document submitted to the Commission for the different objective areas. Different federal and state ad-

ministration bodies participate in the programme workgroups, as well as representatives of the social partners. It is funded together with the federal government. It is too early to evaluate to what extent the work on these regional planning concepts (in which participation differs enormously) will lead to long lasting planning structures.

Municipality level

E18. The only level on which comprehensive spatial planning activities cover the whole country is the municipal level. Municipalities are also the only bodies in this respect subject to the legal obligation to carry out planning activities and also to a formal monitoring by a superordinate territorial authority. As far as the contents of their municipal development policies are concerned, however, they have a relatively strong position. On the one hand, the constitution empowers them to act autonomously in local spatial planning, and on the other hand, they have the option of acting freely as private enterprises beyond the regulatory administration. Combined with a degree of financial responsibility, municipalities have considerable scope for implementing autonomous policies for spatial development. Usually they do not depend on state governments or on the federal government to implement supra-local sectoral planning. Thus, in Austria the development of spatial structures — not only on a local scale — is decided in practice primarily by the municipalities.

E19. The primary instrument of spatial planning is the *Flächenwidmungsplan* (zoning plan), which has been understood by municipalities until now to be more of a protocol of the status of building land zoning, rather than a long-term guideline for steering spatial planning development (see Sections A, Land policy, and B, Policy instruments, Local level). Moreover, it is hardly suitable for determining contents at the project level. In other words, those projects at a municipal level that are important for spatial planning development are seldom to be found in the medium-term perspective *Flächenwidmungs-*

plan (zoning plan). Rather the zoning plan is justifying the decisions by subsequent amendments.

E20. An invariable main topic for municipalities is meeting the demand for housing. The driving force behind the present 10 year demand for more than 300 000 dwellings in Austria (current total number of dwellings is roughly 3.4 million) is the rapid increase in the number of households, with declining numbers of household members. The task of the municipalities in this context is the procurement of space by zoning building land and providing infrastructure. Housing construction concentrates mainly on extending the peripheries of settlement areas. Over the past 10 years, however, urban renewal with schemes for the restoration of existing dwellings and increasing density have gained significance. In rural areas, the importance of the utilisation and the revitalisation of existing structures in villages for settlement development has also been recognised.

E21. The unrestricted freedom of property owners until now to either use developed building land, or to leave the land unused, has caused actual settlement development patterns to deviate from the intentions of planning goals, and instead has led to the 'legal despoliation' of the landscape with ensuing high development costs. However, these costs are not borne solely by the municipalities due to the various subsidies available. In addition, the dominant type of dwelling generally desired by people — from the outskirts of large cities to the narrow mountain valleys — is the do-it-yourself free-standing single family home. The latest amendments to spatial planning laws and new regulations for housing construction subsidies in several states, indicate a reversal in this respect: in the future the space-saving construction of dwellings and settlements will be encouraged. There are various reasons for this: high land prices, expensive waste water disposal through lengthy multi-branched canal networks, the depletion of reserve building land in certain regions. The new provisions in the spatial planning laws of some states have also limited the 'freedom of non-

utilisation' in order to bring unused building land to the market.

E22. Industrial plant location remains the main object of competition between municipalities. The reason for this is to be found in taxation legislation and revenue equalisation between the territorial authorities that makes the municipalities highly dependent on their own income. Very often enterprises looking for a new location negotiate the land purchase, and thus the location, first with the property owner, and then both together contact the municipality to request re-zoning from green land to commercial-industrial building land. Therefore often the commercial demand directs the zoning of industrial areas (and not the other way around). The degree of competition between the municipalities has increased insofar as a rising number of larger municipalities now offer industrial parks with additional enterprise-oriented services.

E23. In numerous cities, urban hinterlands and regional centres in rural areas, the construction of shopping centres were a regular item on the agendas of local spatial planning activities. Because of the supra-local effect of shopping centres, their construction in all states requires a special permit from the state government. The reason lies in the interrelation between the structure of service facilities and settlement structure. For example, the expansion of shopping centres at the fringes of settlement areas destroys the structure of local services, damages traditional service centres in the cores of settlements, and generates additional traffic. But regulations issued by the authorities are hardly suitable for controlling this trend. These regulations, which are continually being refined, are repeatedly by-passed. Often the municipalities present themselves in alliance with the project applicant before the state because the higher tax revenues are more obvious than the disadvantages of development. The realisation that suitable locations are not a matter that can be solved case by case, but only within a larger territorial context, has led to supra-local spatial planning programmes for shopping centres

in some states, which define suitable municipalities as locations for development and issue guidelines for the selection of locations within small areas.

E24. The problems associated with motorised traffic affects all municipalities. In smaller municipalities the topical issues usually centre around the question of town bypasses, while in larger municipalities with high levels of traffic, pedestrian shopping zones in town cores and traffic reduction in purely residential areas are the current issues. In the cities, site development work by public transport is continuous, but gradual. In rural areas improvements are achieved mainly by tariff associations and the coordination of time schedules (tariff unions). The consequences of despoliation and sparsely settled areas are being felt in both cases, because they promote automobile traffic and lead to the failure of public transport due to low profitability.

E25. Village appearance and townscape maintenance concentrate primarily on valuable historic urban cores, although some cities have set up advisory councils for the purpose of improving general architectural quality and ensuring developments acceptable in town planning terms. In larger cities the focus is shifting more and more to 'greenscaping' settlement areas. The activities involved in securing undeveloped zones (green zones, green belts) also include the purchase of land and its landscaping.

E26. These principle issues of local settlement development illustrate that actual development is hardly ever a result of the implementation of long-range spatial planning schemes. The reasons for this are not to be found in the planning instruments themselves, but rather in the principles of a policy that traditionally shies away from planning for the future. However, all projects are legitimised by the corresponding zoning in the land use plan.

F — Policies and issues

Agriculture

F1. Conflict between agriculture and forestry as economic factors and regional development in Austria can be characterised simply by contrasting the figures of almost 3 % of gross domestic product to the proportion of cultivated areas of 86 %. Within a larger context there are three different types of areas:

- Austrian Alpine area;
- Austrian part of the Bohemian massif (Mühlviertel and Waldviertel);
- flatlands and undulating areas in the north and east of the foothills of the Alps.

F2. Agriculture and forestry in Alpine areas have unfavourable economic conditions due to the surface structure and climate, and the increasing competitive situation due to intensification and mechanisation of agricultural production. In spite of this, agriculture and forestry are indispensable for maintaining the subsistence of the Alpine economic and settlement areas:

- for the cultivation and upkeep of the cultural and recreational areas (both economic areas and living space are primary resources for the tourist industry);
- for securing the natural environment (also for the non-Alpine population e.g. area of

water regeneration and water reservoir); as well as

- protection against natural dangers (e.g. protective forests).

F3. The decline in the rural population apparent over a longer period of time, has come about due to changes in economic structures, and in part also because agricultural land utilisation (under adverse conditions in the Alpine area) has potentially endangered the fulfilment of its basic ecological functions.

F4. Austria has a large number of mountain farms (36 %) due to the extensive mountainous area (in addition to the Alpine area, and Waldviertel and Mühlviertel). Related to the differing location situations, a marked regional division of production has developed in Austria. Due to the loss of significance of self-sufficiency of farms and the increase in production for the market, and as a result of the general mechanisation and specialisation in agriculture, crop production has declined in mountainous areas. Agricultural production in Alpine areas now concentrates on the cultivation of meadow lands (cattle, dairy products). Most farms in Austria are family owned with very low numbers of non-family workers. In 1986 the Austrian average member of workers per full-time farm was 1.9 full time employed persons. Approximately 60 % of agricultural enterprises in Austria are owned by part-time farmers. The average

land holding of farms in Austria is approximately 24 hectares and in Alpine areas 40 hectares.

F5. Forestry is relatively important for agricultural enterprises in the Alpine area. Roughly two thirds of forested areas are in the Alpine area. Because of its special ecological importance, forestry in Austria is subject to strict control by the federal authorities and its cultivation is regulated by a binding *Waldentwicklungsplänen* (forestry development plan). The forestry authorities are also

Table F14: Components of incomes in agriculture, 1993

	Total income per worker		Percentage of income components in %				
	in 1 000 ATS	% of national average	Agricultural income	Public assistance for agricultural enterprises	Income from sources other than agricultural enterprises	Total income from gainful work	Social income (public assistance)
Mountain farms in the Alpine area	173.7	90.3	40.4	17.3	20.3	78.0	22.0
Austria total	192.3	100.0	43.5	16.4	22.3	82.2	17.8

Source: BMLF, 1994.

F6. Following the recognition that the economic development gaps which existed between favourable and unfavourable locations in agriculture were not to be balanced by price policies, the federal government introduced direct payments independent of production to mountain farmers in the 1970s and expanded this programme successively (total volume in 1993 including direct payments: ATS 1 054 million for 86 000 farms). The medium range future of agriculture and forestry will depend essentially on the new regulations fixed by GATT. Projections on the effects of further price reductions of agricultural products show that, in order to maintain agriculture and forestry as the basis for settlement, maintenance of infrastructure and other economic uses, regionally differentiated adjustment strategies are needed.

Commercial development

F7. Over the past 15 years no other spatial planning issue has received as much atten-

tion as shopping centres. This is based on the conflicts triggered on several levels by a large number of shopping centre developments. The actors involved in this process of increased retail activity include the project applicants, the municipalities, the state governments and the Constitutional Court. As reaction to the emergence of these types of commercial centres — upon demand by the chambers of commerce (as representative of retailers) — special regulations for shopping centres were included in the spatial planning laws of all states at the beginning of the 1980s. Restrictions, which vary across states, were placed on the size of shopping centres, depending on the size of the municipality, and every act of zoning for this purpose by the municipality was subject to the approval of the state government. During the 1980s, the Constitutional Court revoked several case decisions, and as a consequence some legal provisions for being unconstitutional, because these had made positive decisions contingent on need (or excess

responsible for planning danger zones, determine which areas are to be kept free of settlements, and are responsible for the protection against torrents and avalanches in danger zones. The agricultural cultivation which is indispensable for the maintenance of the Alpine landscape and its ecosystem, is not feasible without government subsidies. In 1988, the gross income per worker in mountain farms in Alpine areas was only 71 % of the national average, and for farms located in zones with the most adverse conditions only 47 %.

demand). The provisions were redrafted continually over several years, due to the fact that the project applicants kept trying to bypass procedures for special permits.

F8. The latest trend in how spatial planning deals with the future development of service infrastructure involves applicants conforming to existing settlement structure. This means that the basic needs of the population should be satisfied as close to the residential areas as possible, and the functioning of the settlement cores, with their traditional service infrastructure, should be safeguarded. On the other hand, the designation of location municipalities and requirements for small area locations in state-wide spatial planning programmes results in clarity at the outset regarding which location permits will not be granted.

F9. It is also true that legal regulations and planning activities have always lagged behind development. Even the territorial authorities involved did not always take the same course: often the municipalities concerned sided with the project applicants in conflict with the federal government, because the tax revenues expected were more obvious, or were considered more important, than the disadvantages of the spatial structure. Furthermore, within the state government, conflicts occurred between those responsible for spatial planning and other members of the government.

F10. In political discussions two phases may be discerned. First of all, there was the competition between the different retailers for the same market (large enterprises versus small enterprises) which concerned the consumers who objected to the disappearance of small shops, whilst taking advantage of the new services offered. However, it is now recognised by the public that the consequences are more far-reaching. The additional traffic, especially to locations only accessible by automobile, is becoming the argument to refuse permission for the development of large complexes on 'green meadows'. Finally, it is also partially recognised, that not only small enterprises fail and disappear in this compe-

tion, but as a consequence the entire structures of the service locations is destroyed and entire settlement areas lack a service infrastructure in their vicinity.

F11. Stricter regulation of spatial planning, and also a certain degree of market saturation, have curtailed these problems in many regions. Commerce has in turn also contributed to development by following a new trend of establishing urban shopping centres in central locations. In order to at least maintain the remaining small shops in 'fragile' locations almost all states have gone over to assisting these enterprises with subsidies of all kinds. Grants and soft loans for investments as well as regular subsidies are evidence of the importance that is still being given to this problem.

Economic development

F12. Following full sovereignty in the mid 1950s, a phase of economic growth commenced which lasted until the oil price shock in the mid 1970s. Regional economic development was characterised from the outset by the fact that the eastern part of Austria, which had been in the Soviet occupied zone, lagged practically 10 years behind the rest of the country in respect of investment, and in addition also had to contend with the disadvantages of its adverse location in respect of the closed borders to neighbouring countries. The concept of the eastern border region was thus predominant in regional policy until recently (the new circumstances have revived this view of eastern Austria as a European region at the eastern-most external boundary of the EU, and its internal market is now a primary issue once again). The economic prosperity of the 1960s and 1970s nevertheless highlighted considerable regional disparities. This led to ambitious goals in regional policy with regard to the reduction of regional disparities in standards of living. Large investments in social and technical infrastructure, and the successful establishment of industrial plants in rural areas, led to the belief that it was possible to reduce regional disparities. The slowdown in

economic growth since the mid 1970s highlighted the reality that regional disparities were hardly reduced; on the contrary, in some respects they even increased. Polarisation between the centres and the peripheral disadvantaged regions increased under the economic slump, and together with the newly emerging problems of old industrial areas with weak economic structures, was characteristic of the situation at the beginning of the 1980s. During this period a regional policy philosophy evolved that essentially still characterises regional policy today: it follows the idea of mobilising the endogenous potential of regions, of orienting subsidy measures on innovation, and including non-material investments.

F13. The most important instrument of innovation-oriented regional policy is the subsidy programme *Regionale Innovationsprämie* (regional innovation bonus) which is jointly funded by the federal government and seven states (excluding Vienna and Vorarlberg). Its goal is to promote economic renewal in old

industrial areas and economic growth in peripheral rural areas. Preference is given to investments in product and process innovation. The subsidy scheme will continue until the end of 1995. For the two subsidy programmes (see following paragraph), the (same) assisted area is defined by the *ÖROK* (demarcation for regional industrial and trades assisted areas). Between 1990 and 1992, 180 projects with total costs of roughly ATS 663 million were assisted. This is an amount of almost ATS 8 billion of subsidised investments. An indication of the innovation orientation of regional policy since the late 1980s has been the development of technology and incubation centres. The federal government is involved in subsidising practically all innovation centres and technology transfer institutions through the use of funds for regional innovation incentives. The municipalities, states, chambers and private enterprises act as responsible entities (partners) of these institutions, but the federal government is only involved in exceptional cases.

Table F15: Regional development 1961-86 in Austria

	Net regional product per capita (Austria = 100)			
	1961	1971	1981	1986
East				
Metropolitan region	132	135	135	139
Industrial regions	77	78	77	75
Rural regions	57	56	55	54
Subtotal	109	110	110	112
South/Central				
Metropolitan region	111	113	120	118
Industrial regions	104	87	82	78
Rural/Alpine regions	75	68	67	63
Rural/other regions	48	48	46	47
Subtotal	87	81	81	79
West				
Metropolitan region	125	125	130	128
Industrial regions	99	102	101	99
Rural/Alpine regions	76	80	82	82
Rural/other regions	60	62	59	60
Subtotal	97	100	101	100
Austria total	100	100	100	100

Source: Austrian Institute for Economic Research (WIFO).

F14. In addition a (federal) promotion programme exists for promoting endogenous regional development which has as its main focus subsidising the use of consultancy services for innovative projects by small agricultural enterprises, trade and commerce, tourism and energy. The goal is to overcome the lack of knowledge and difficulties in accessing the appropriate information which are factors that may lead to 'bottlenecks' in economic development. This is often a prerequisite for establishing projects that justify an investment subsidy. Special attention is given to projects that include regional cooperation. Between 1990 and 1992 60 projects with total costs of ATS 37 million were subsidised.

F15. Since the early 1980s regional advisors of the federal government have been employed in the individual problem regions (presently two). Their task is to overcome regional information barriers and to improve cooperation between public and private actors that implement measures in the areas covered, on the one hand, and between the competent federal and state departments on the other. Parallel to the regional advisors of the federal government, the advisory network of the *Österreichische Arbeitsgemeinschaft für eigenständige Regionalberatung (ÖAR)* (Austrian Association for Endogenous Regional Development) was set up in the 1980s as a private initiative but with the financial support of the federal government. Also within the scope of the active labour market policy of the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, advisory activities on a regional level are carried out through a separate organisation, the Austrian Research and Advisory Company (*ÖSB*). It concentrates on job-creating project consulting and the establishment of enterprises by employees.

F16. The share of regional subsidies in the total economic subsidy expenditures of the federal government is approximately 13 %. While the assisted areas only receive a less-than-proportional share of the sectoral (non-regional oriented) subsidies (approximately 87 %), the regional subsidies were just enough to enable the problem areas to par-

ticipate in the total subsidy funds in proportion to their number of inhabitants. The application for regional subsidies within the scope of the EU Structural Funds will introduce a new phase in Austria's regional policy.

Environmental management

F17. With the increasing concern by the population with regard to the maintenance of artificial nature landscapes, the designation of landscape conservation areas and nature conservation areas in the past decade has increased, as have the conflicts between competing land use interests (especially agriculture and forestry, hunting and tourist development). Recently, the focus of public attention and discussion has been related to several projects for the establishment of national parks that are the competence of the states (Nature Conservation Laws). Existing national parks are:

- Hohe Tauern (along the high Alpine ridge in the border area between Carinthia, Salzburg and Tyrol);
- Nockberge National Park (Carinthia);
- Neusiedlersee-Seewinkel (cross-border, jointly with Hungary).

Those in preparation are:

- Donau-Auen National Park (east of Vienna);
- Kalkalpen National Park (Upper Austria);
- Kalkhochalpen National Park (area between Salzburg and Germany);
- Thayatal National Park (cross-border, jointly with the Czech Republic).

F18. Based on the national significance of these projects, and their relevance for several international agreements, the federal government also has an interest in this context. The interests of the federal government in the conservation of nature are to be safe-

guarded without modifying the distribution of competence through its participation in the different subsidy programmes. The following points are contained in the national park strategy of the Ministry of the Environment:

- one national park per landscape unit as maximum;
- objective shall be the fulfilment of International Union for Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (IUCN) criteria of Category II;
- funding only jointly with the states;
- use of all options available for increasing the efficiency of the national parks' administration, e.g. sponsoring, private enterprise organisation forms;
- production of a catalogue of objectives for further national park developments in agreement with the states;
- drawing up of financing programmes for the setting up of national parks in agreement with the states;
- further work on subsidy programmes for realising national park objectives in agreement with the states;
- stronger participation of the National Forest Authority.

F19. The Ministry of the Environment set the following objectives for subsidies:

- safeguarding artificial nature landscapes through purchases, leases or making national land available (together with the states);
- public relations work;
- basic research for ensuring a national park's adequate development (applied research with appropriate participation of local inhabitants) and basic research;

- management measures in nature zones (core zones);
- landscape programmes.

F20. Since 1990 the distribution of subsidies has focused up to 50 % on public relations work, 20 % on research projects and maintenance of cultural landscapes as well as 10 % on tourism.

Heritage

F21. In 1985 the state of Lower Austria was the first state to issue Austrian state guidelines for village renewal. Since then practically all states have adopted similar programmes and have begun their implementation. Village renewal is considered a cross-sectoral task encompassing the entire sphere of living conditions in villages. Village renewal may serve as a means:

- for regional policy;
- for achieving the goals of spatial planning;
- for solving local problems;
- for promoting identification.

F22. The initiatives, subsidised with state funds, comprise local work groups and associations that cover activities ranging from planting trees and flowers, creating biotopes, waste avoidance and waste separation, building solar collectors, the revitalisation of old buildings and adaptation of community centres, to the publication of village chronicles and the organisation of village festivities. In Lower Austria alone over 350 villages participate in these activities. Evaluation analysis illustrates how investments made within the scope of village renewal plans have directly and indirectly produced a number of jobs.

F23. Based on its positive experiences with village renewal, in 1993 the state of Lower Austria set up, as a supplement, the town

renewal programme. The first phase will carry out pilot projects with six test cities. Urban renewal should reach beyond monument preservation and landscaping the main square. Its intention is to maintain small towns in Lower Austria as functioning and attractive centres of rural areas. Based on the experiences of the testing phase, the action will be extended to cover at least all district capitals. A Lower Austrian town forum will serve as a platform for the exchange of knowledge and information, common initiatives and municipal cooperation at a European level.

Housing

F24. The majority of the built-up areas in Austria are in residential use. In large cities almost two-thirds of newly built-up areas are in residential use, and in the urban hinterlands it is 80 %. Residential space required per person rose between 1971 and 1991

from 22 m² to 33 m², which is an increase of 50 %. The main reason for the increasing demand for residential space is the rising number of households that are declining in size, a trend that is not influenced solely by population development. The reason for this trend is because in Austria in total less than 40 % of land is theoretically available for settlement (in Tyrol, for example, only 13 %), and in the Alpine valleys (including the presence of tourists) densities of 400 to 1 000 inhabitants per km² are attained. Moreover, the number of second homes is equivalent to housing demand for a 10-year period and finally, in spite of everything, the space-consuming free-standing single family home is still the most desired residential form for over 90 % of the Austrian population.

Please see Figure F18: 'Growth of the number of dwellings between 1971 and 1991 (as % of 1971 figure)', at the end of this document.

Table F16: Distribution and increase of types of dwellings in Austria

Total number of dwellings		Detached houses		
1991	change 1971-91, in %	1991	change 1971-91, in %	As % of total 1991
3 393 271	27	1 312 602	40	39

Source: ÖSTAT, census 1991

F25. Development of settlement is guided primarily by demand for dwellings in certain locations. Land prices and accessibility to jobs are the main factors influencing location preferences. In rural areas which are highly attractive to tourists, demand for holiday homes also exists. However, this is now subject to more stringent restrictions in spatial planning legislation (e.g. only permitted on the basis of a specific zoning). As a result areas with the strongest dynamic of settlement development are urban hinterlands and tourist regions.

F26. The process of settlement development as a whole strongly involves the public sector, though not in the form of planning directives but rather in the form of financial incentives. In the area of subsidised housing

construction, which makes up a large part of total housing construction (in the 1980s 70 % of new dwellings were financed with housing subsidies), financial assistance applies criteria related to the qualification of the household applying for financial assistance (tied to income), and now also partly to the type of dwelling (preference being given to multi-story dwellings over single family homes), but not to location criteria.

F27. In the future, however, the expansion of settlement areas will be more controlled. On the one hand, because in a large number of municipalities, for financial reasons, it is no longer possible to develop the entire area of building land as defined in the *Flächenwidmungsplan* (zoning plan) properly, i.e. with connection to the sewerage system. On the

other hand, the states are beginning, among other measures, also for this reason, to define settlement boundaries in *überörtlichen Plänen* (supra-local plans) that must be adhered to by municipalities. In the area of housing construction subsidies, several states specifically promote the restoration and creation of additional dwellings in already existing buildings (for example attic expansions). This is resulting in a process of (re-)increasing the density in existing residential areas especially in the larger municipalities and cities. In particular, in the western states which have a high demand due to demographic and socioeconomic factors and where, at the same time, there is limited space for settlement expansion due to the Alpine location, stricter regulation of settlement development through spatial planning measures is being assessed. Under these circumstances, comparably higher building land prices also play an important role.

F28. In multi-story dwellings, mainly non-profit building cooperatives have responsibility for construction (in the 1980s they erected 41 % of new dwellings in multi-story housing constructions). The number of social housing projects run by the municipalities (until now especially in larger cities) is decreasing. However, municipalities are acquiring more and more (depending on their financial power) building land which is sold to building cooperatives at inexpensive prices. In some states this is promoted by new provisions in state planning laws which facilitate the acquisition of building land for constructing social housing projects for municipalities.

Industrial development

F29. Although trade and industrial enterprises only take up a small part of the total settlement area, their locations are widely dispersed over the country. As Figure F19 illustrates, industrial locations are by no means to be found only in urban areas; they also exist in rural areas throughout the entire Alpine region where the iron and steel industries are located (Upper Austria). The very wide dispersal of locations can be traced

back partly to the beginnings of industrial production that used the raw materials available locally (e.g. iron ore, timber and water). On the other hand, the fiscal system has contributed to this situation. The municipalities' high dependency on their own income from local industries has turned the municipalities into competitors (in spite of revenue equalisation) in the market for firms willing to (re)locate. Hardly any municipalities could go without the idea of having an industrial area. Consequently many municipalities in peripheral locations with relatively low chances of having industrial plants locate there, have zoned areas for this purpose (even if undeveloped). In contrast, in urban agglomerations and Alpine valleys there is limited space for plant expansion or relocation. For this reason the securing of suitable locations and areas for production is becoming more important for regional spatial planning, because location requirements are increasing (e.g. relating to transportation links and waste water disposal) thus continually reducing the number of locations available.

F30. Municipalities must accommodate the requirements of businesses relating to location. Enterprises willing to locate in a certain municipality will join with the property owners and request that the municipality rezone green land into industrial building land.

F31. Meanwhile, the requirements of enterprises willing to locate have also increased in respect of the location's infrastructure beyond the purely technical and physical one (e.g. business support services). A rising number of larger municipalities now also offer industrial parks with additional enterprise-oriented services. Thus the 'level' of competition between the municipalities has increased. But even these services were initially relatively spontaneous activities of the property owners and municipalities — sometimes with the support of the state — and were hardly ever the subject of long term location planning such as in *überörtlichen Raumordnungsprogrammen* (supra-local spatial planning programmes). Recently more central control is becoming apparent. Consequently, private enterprise location

companies founded by the state governments are increasingly entering the market as investors and operators of new industrial parks.

Please see Figure F19: 'Locations of industrial employment in Austria', at the end of this document.

F32. Establishment of new plants, locations, expansions and modernisation of enterprises, usually with additional space requirements and/or location selection, are financially supported in assisted areas from the corresponding states' regional subsidies and from the federal government. Within defined regional assisted areas, only in isolated cases are location differentiations made by setting planning goals.

F33. The selection of locations within small areas can also be influenced, theoretically, by other approvals than the building permit which is tied to the zoning. For example neighbours have the right to object according to the commercial regulations code on the grounds of exposure to different dangers. However, here one may discern clear tendencies to reduce these obstacles on the grounds of speeding up procedures. On the whole the relatively strong position of enterprises will be probably be strengthened rather than diminished.

F34. The selection of locations within larger areas will be influenced by the availability of regional policy funds in the objective areas of the Structural Funds. This cannot be anticipated for Austria whilst at the stage of establishing the Single Programming Documents.

Leisure and tourism

F35. The following base figures characterise the scope and economic importance of the tourist industry in the whole of Austria:

- the Austrian tourist industry has an accommodation capacity of roughly 1.2 million beds, approximately a quarter of which are in private homes (1989);

- accommodations registered 24.7 million arrivals in 1993/94 and 122.5 million overnight stays of which three-quarters were foreigners: the winter-summer ratio was 43:57;

- the share of travelling expenses spent in the *Länder* (states) of Tyrol, Salzburg and Carinthia was 70 %;

- the contribution of tourism to employment is roughly 250 000 (absolute) jobs in total in Austria; approximately 400 000 jobs are directly or indirectly dependent on tourism since diverse sectors also profit from tourism (e.g. commerce).

F36. Approximately 80 to 90 % of paid overnight stays in Austria and the economic activity related to these, take place in the Alpine area. In the case of winter sports tourism, the dominant position of the Alpine area is even stronger, since 98 % of the total capacity of cable cars in Austria are in this area.

F37. Regarding the conservation of the value of the landscape for recreation and leisure, the following three types of problems can be identified:

- Alpine tourist areas with dynamic development for winter tourism;

- lake areas intensively used for tourism;

- main Alpine valleys with a variety of uses and intensity of use, where the potential for conflict is rising, and thus reducing the suitability for tourism, in particular due to the constantly increasing amount of traffic.

F38. In spite of partial success in some areas, there is often an obvious discrepancy between the recognised and partially binding objectives set or the desired status, and the current situation or actual development. Regional planning and development programmes that have attempted to implement the objectives for development up to now (if they existed at all) have only had a restricted effect as steering mechanisms due to their

content or implementation. Although considerable relief measures have been taken and success achieved in restoring the natural condition, especially by the installation of sewerage systems and purification plants in lake areas and other tourist centres, the expansion of the technical infrastructure and the implementation of regulative measures often lags behind requirements. Subsidies granted until now have taken too little account of the environmental impact. An exception is the water management fund which has been successful in achieving a high degree of restoration of the lakes. There are relatively few funds available for the preservation and appropriate planning of local recreational areas.

F39. The future conflict situations that will arise from a possible growth in demand, faced with a supply that cannot be increased, will require fundamentally revised political strategies. Settlement development influenced by tourism, water management, tourist traffic and the labour market (prejudices against too many foreigners) are the areas in which bottlenecks occur. These bottlenecks have resulted in the depletion of resources and the limits of saturation that can be measured objectively. In addition more and more pressure is being felt subjectively and expressed in attitudes of rejection that are becoming widespread.

F40. The liberal application of existing control instruments and the massive indiscriminate subsidising of new lifts and cable cars by the states and federal authorities up to the 1980s, contributed to the tendency to concentrate and to the inherent polarisation of the system (growing disparities between the intensive use of 'high performance areas' and less developed tourist 'problem areas'). Unless measures are taken to control the situation, it cannot be expected to improve through self-development, i.e. spatial redistribution which will eliminate imbalances in demand. (What might be expected to self-regulate would be a temporal redistribution to alleviate peak periods, although these are restricted in the main growth areas to day excursions and short holidays.) More prob-

able is the danger of 'high performance areas' collapsing due to oversaturation and thus losing wealthy and prominent guests without this having any advantages for other (less developed) areas of Austria (guests 'emigrate' to other countries or to other sports). Taking the lack of flexibility of the tourist industry when faced with a loss in attractiveness of their products, this could imply the economic ruin of resources due to overuse as well as their ecological depletion.

F41. As a consequence of this, new strategies are emerging that might be able to attain short term and sustainable effects. For winter tourism for example the following measures are suggested:

- stopping public subsidies to regions outside assisted areas; this applies to cable car stations and accommodation enterprises;
- definition of winter sports areas, outside which no more permits will be issued for lifts and/or cable cars;
- regional quotas for number of beds;
- local quotas for number of skiers;
- restrictions for motorised individual transportation (for tourists) at destinations with alternative means of public transportation.

F42. In individual cases such measures are already being tested, for example with the exemplary schemes for means of ascension to mountain tops, by the Vorarlberg state government. These have already helped to reduce original expansion plans to one third in cooperation with the state government, municipalities and cable car operators. In this area it is necessary that the abovementioned type of measure be implemented throughout the entire territory of tourism regions. The same principle should be applied to areas strained to the limit by summer tourism.

Natural resource

F43. In Austria drinking water is obtained almost entirely from groundwater. It consists of equal parts of karst water (mountain spring water) and interstitial water. By international standards the water quality is very high. For this reason the population is very sensitive to any degradation of its high quality that may occur in isolated cases caused by larger damage, as well as to groundwater contamination over larger surfaces caused by certain forms of agricultural cultivation. The problem areas are usually densely populated and intensively cultivated agricultural valleys and basins. In contrast the karst areas in Austria are characterised by low contamination with nitrates.

F44. For this reason the amendment to the Water Law in 1990 imposed stricter regulations on agriculture. As of a certain degree of cattle density, or the use of certain fertilisers, farms are required to apply for permits under water legislation. If certain limits are surpassed in a groundwater area then, according to the new water legislation, the authorities are obliged to initiate its restoration. Presently, surveys are being carried out on groundwater quality. The Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry has launched pilot projects for groundwater restoration, in order to gather experience for the successful realisation of measures in the future. The new provisions are aimed at maintaining groundwater with drinking water quality or of reinstating this status. The protection of groundwater, however, is not restricted to groundwater protection and conservation areas.

Transport

F45. The prevailing method applied until now of adapting transport infrastructure to a demand based on trend forecasts, has not led to satisfying conditions concerning transportation. Furthermore, to orient priorities for the achievement of projects exclusively on the alleviation of current bottlenecks and to ignore the network as a whole and the competition among the means of transport is

contrary to two basic principles of the *Österreichische Gesamtverkehrskonzept 1991* (Austrian transport policy scheme 1991):

- avoidance of traffic;
- use of the means of transport with the least impact on the environment.

F46. Even more so than in the past, the point of departure for Austria's transport infrastructure policy will be a concept that encompasses more than one sector, e.g. encompassing various means of transport in order to attain the objective of changing over to means of transport which limit impact on the environment. The *Österreichische Gesamtverkehrskonzept* (Austrian transport policy scheme) presented by the competent ministry in 1991, contains important guidelines but does not state any concrete policy measures. This can be expected at the earliest from the *Bundesverkehrswegeplan* (federal transport network plan) which is presently being prepared and should contain a concrete programme for coordinating investment in transport networks. From a regional policy perspective the Austrian transport policy scheme should pursue the following goals:

- to link Austria's urban regions and economic centres to western and eastern Europe by improving and expanding the high speed transportation networks;
- to link the regions and their centres via high speed and qualitatively suitable transport routes to the superordinate main transit routes;
- to create transport links between Austrian and neighbouring border regions with the aim of encouraging development potential at fringe locations.

F47. Future transport infrastructure policies should be guided by the awareness that no other area of governmental policy has as much influence on regional development by spending similar amounts of funds to achieve similar effects.

F48. The *Neue Bahn* project was the government's first step towards a comprehensive modernisation of the Austrian Federal Railways and the expansion of the railway network. A large number of measures have already been implemented since its start. These include:

- expansion of the principle railway network;
- on the one hand, the reactivating of regional railway lines, and on the other, the closing down of lines;
- the improvement of service quality.

F49. The opening up of the borders to the east required a series of short term measures and, as a consequence, changes in time schedules.

F50. Municipalities, states and federal government have joined to form 11 tariff unions that organise and finance local public passenger transportation. These partly have the form of stock corporations. The Austrian tariff unions distribute the tariff losses in different regions according to different percentages among the territorial authorities. In the case of the *Verkehrsverbund Ostregion* and the regional tariff unions of Vienna, Lower Austria and Burgenland, 50 % of losses are borne by the federal government and 50 % by the respective state. In other tariff unions, and in the case of the tariff union Vorarlberg, a so-called one third solution is applied: one third is borne by the federal government, two thirds by the state; in the latter case one third by the state and one third by the local territorial authorities.

F51. In the area of principal road networks, current issues only concern the completion of the motorway network in a few places. New routes are not being discussed.

F52. International cooperation is even more necessary in the field of overall conditions of transportation policy than in the expansion of networks. In view of the degree of liberalisation in cross-border traffic — and even more

in the course of European integration — pure national strategies to reorient transportation policy are not only limited in their effect, but may even distort competition. From an Austrian point of view, two fundamental principles of the *Österreichische Gesamtverkehrskonzept* (Austrian transport policy scheme), namely the use of state-of-the-art technology that avoids the negative impact of traffic and the principle of calculating true costs, can only be implemented if the overall conditions for transport policy are agreed internationally. A transit country such as Austria can and should sometimes be innovative — even more so when considering the high degree of sensitivity of the Alpine regions — especially in respect of transport policy, but it will not achieve any goals in this field by acting alone.

F53. The transit agreement signed by Austria and the EU will probably have a greater impact on the future development of transportation policy on a European level than on road freight transit traffic. The projected reduction of NO_x emissions produced by road freight transit traffic by 60 % contained in the agreement is not a guarantee for reducing the amount of traffic. The parties to the transit agreement have agreed to expand the railway network, especially for combined freight transport, and to gradually incorporate price calculations which are based on the true costs of transport (which means taking external costs into account).

Waste management and pollution

F54. Increasing amounts of waste, coupled with the unsolved problems of dumps and garbage incinerators, led to a reorganisation of waste management legislation in the *Bundes-Abfallwirtschaftsgesetz* (Federal Waste Management Law) of 1990. This law has assigned to the federal government the task of sectoral spatial planning related to the construction of waste treatment plants for hazardous wastes, including the determination of locations. The basis for this law is the *Bundes-Abfallwirtschaftsplan* (federal waste disposal plan) which determines the regional

waste treatment capacities required. The search for suitable locations was carried out together with the state concerned. These locations have not yet been determined, although action is needed urgently to solve the problem of incinerators and dumps for residual hazardous waste. At present there is only one incineration plant for the entire country, namely the waste disposal plant at Simmering on the eastern border of the city of Vienna. At least two further plants are planned: one will be located in the central area of Linz (Upper Austria) and the other in Upper Styria. The amount of waste expected to be handled by the residual hazardous waste dumps is 345 000 tonnes per year, three quarters of which is residuals from incineration plants. At least three such dump locations are needed. Securing locations depends, in practice, on collaboration between the federal government and states.

F55. Similarly, the states have created new legal and organisational bases for waste management in their areas. These include, with slight variations, *Landes-Abfallwirtschaftspläne oder -konzepte* (state waste management plans or schemes). As a rule the municipalities are responsible for collecting and transporting waste, and the waste associations (associations of municipalities) are responsible for waste disposal. While the catchment areas for regional waste treatment plants are determined by the state, the procedures for determining the specific location of plants (e.g. for recycling) and dumps are sometimes determined by the state, and sometimes the search for a location is the task of the regional waste association, which then submits the corresponding proposal to the state government. In any case, the legally binding determination of the location requires a decree issued by the state government. The plans are presently in varying stages of implementation. Some plants are being constructed, although others have been delayed because of local opposition. This illustrates that legal powers do not suffice to realise a planned solution, but that it is necessary to achieve political consensus between the territorial authorities at all levels. The impact of the recently introduced envi-

ronmental impact assessment procedure is too early to be evaluated.

F56. The latest report produced by the Federal Bureau for the Environment states that improvements in reducing emissions have been achieved regarding air quality, although, from an environmental protection perspective, the extent of the reduction is not enough. Since 1980 it has been possible to reduce sulphur dioxide (SO₂) emissions by approximately 80 %. This reduction was unique throughout Europe and was due mainly to the de-sulphurisation of heating oils and technical measures taken in power and industrial plants. Dust emissions have also been reduced by 50 % within this period. Much more difficult has been the reduction of ozone pre-substance nitrogen oxides (NO_x), volatile organic compounds and carbon monoxide because these are emitted by a large number of small, spatially dispersed sources (especially automobile exhausts, household smoke and solvents). Since 1980 ozone pre-substances have been reduced by only 12 % (nitrogen oxides), volatile organic compounds by 5 % and carbon monoxide by 11 %.

F57. Based on its location in central Europe, Austria is especially affected by imported air pollution. Almost 165 000 tonnes of sulphur were imported in 1990 which was almost 10 times as much as was exported, and in the case of nitrogen oxides, imports of 80 300 tonnes of nitrogen were over three times as much as exports. In 1990 roughly 90 % of sulphur depositions were traced back to sources outside the country. In order to achieve clear reductions, the appropriate measures (similar to those in Austria) need to be taken especially in eastern Germany, the Czech Republic and Poland as well as in Italy.

F58. The hygienic condition of almost all Austrian lakes today is very satisfactory. This was achieved by large scale restoration measures carried out in the 1970s and 1980s. Since then, waste water from near-by settlements has been collected in ring sewerage systems. It has not yet been possible to

attain sustained improvements in a small number of lakes because their water quality is degraded mainly by the inflow of nutrients from the agricultural fertilisers that come from the immediate surroundings.

F59. The water quality of Austria's rivers has improved over the last few years, although, some waterways have suffered degradation.

In spite of more stringent measures taken in respect of waste water treatment, the cellulose and paper industry remains the principle cause of water contamination. Over of recent years restoration measures have been taken that focus on certain municipalities, as it is recognised that large urban agglomerations are no longer the main source of problems.

Appendix I. Glossary

(following the English alphabetical order)

appraisal procedure

procedure of putting forth statements; obligatory in connection with issuing a law or decree

Stellungnahmeverfahren

assisted area, promotion area

area for which regional assistance measures are provided

Fördergebiet

Austrian Conference on Regional Planning

national council on spatial planning with representatives of *Bund*, *Länder* and the unions of towns and municipalities

*Österreichische
Raumordnungskonferenz (ÖROK)*

Austrian Institute for Regional Studies and Spatial Planning

non-profit making association serving the domain between research and politics; assisting the spatial planning work of the authorities at all levels through applied research, planning work and expertise in contract work

*Österreichisches Institut für
Raumplanung (ÖIR)*

Austrian Regional Planning Concept of 1991

spatial planning concept at national level, main product of the ÖROK (⇒), guideline for public planning bodies

*Österreichisches
Raumordnungskonzept 1991
(ÖRK '91)*

Austrian transport policy scheme

catalogue of goals and objectives for transport policy

*Österreichisches
Gesamtverkehrskonzept*

building authority

grants building permits; building authority of first instance is the mayor (⇒)

Baubehörde

building code

system of regulations for building construction, basis for the building permit

Bauordnung