

IMPROVING COHERENCE BETWEEN
URBAN AND TRANSPORT PLANNING IN THE NETHERLANDS:
TOWARDS IMPROVED ACCESSIBILITY

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Improving the coherence between urban and transport planning is an often mentioned goal for policy makers and planners. Coherent planning provides more and better choices for activity participation and travel (better accessibility) and allows for more efficient spending.

However, this paper shows that improving coherence is far from straightforward. It presents an empirical analysis of recent developments in both housing and employment patterns in the Netherlands, and taking an institutional (policy-oriented) approach to analysing the current Dutch (national, regional and local) urban and transport policies, the paper shows how financial arrangements, (formal) regulations and habits prevent better co-operation.

After analysing the most relevant obstacles in the Dutch policy and planning, the paper elaborates strategies for improving the coherence between urban and transport planning and elaborated: increasing proximity; transit oriented development (TOD) chains and smooth transfers. These strategies can be implemented in the Netherlands and they can be valuable for urban and infrastructure policies abroad as well.

1. INTRODUCTION

Improving coherence between urban and transport planning is an objective for policy makers and planners, in the Netherlands as well as abroad. Coherent planning provides more and better choices for activity participation and travel (better accessibility) and allows for more financially more efficient spending.

Increasing coherence is a shared responsibility of urban and transport planners. However, in the current Dutch practice, urban planners often disregard the needs of transport planners and their plans create and transport planners tend to focus on infrastructure solutions with accessibility problems. Their lack of co-operation is not necessarily due to unwillingness. There are simply many habits, regulations and institutional barriers to co-operation.

Lack of coherence can lead to undesired results. Extensive qualitative studies carried out by PBL in 2013/14 (PBL 2014a, Snellen and Hilbers 2014) show for example that newly developed Transit Oriented Development (TOD) locations do not flourish at the expense of older TOD locations. Investments in new locations

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of employment and amenities, but not to growth. Past investments will de
We also found that lack of coherence increases car dependence. Improved
enables scaling up of housing, jobs and amenities markets. People can t
also forced to travel further. Furthermore, we found reduced levels of ac
amenities as a result of a more dispersed urban pattern.

In a recent PBL study, the strengths, weaknesses, dilemmas and problem s
eight strategies for improving coherence between urban and transport
Netherlands were assessed. Furthermore, the decision making processes an
for projects in the fields of urban and transport planning were reviewed.
courses of action to achieve greater coherence were identified. The fi
happen. TOD cannot be realised without urban and transport planners wor
the moment, TOD is not very successful in the Netherlands, most likely du
operation. The second main course of action is increasing the proximity
amenities to enable people and companies to satisfy their needs while req
For this, urban planning is in the lead. However, co-ordination with t
necessary since this type of development sets different requirements for
The third course of action is improving transport chains by improving
modes. For this, co-production between urban and transport planning at
level is crucial.

None of these courses of action are easy and straightforward.
communication and co-ordination between urban and transport planners,
choices by policy makers and administrators and the willingness to act
clear allocation of responsibilities in administrative arrangements and f
support coherent planning.

2. FUNDING AND DECISION MAKING PROCESSES

The current financial and administrative arrangements for urban and trans
support coherent planning in the Netherlands. Part of the problem is the
transport planning and funding for urban planning differ fundamentally
Investments in transport infrastructure are made by government and highly
and regional authorities have to obtain national funding for larger infr
In contrast, urban development is funded almost entirely locally by var
local investors, housing corporations, municipalities and regional org
funding for urban planning has almost completely disappeared. The 'lo
funding is that of hierarchical planning, urban planning is much more dep
funding and market consideration.

The strict separation in funding between urban and transport plan
situation where smart coherent planning is difficult to fund, while su
supported. Examples can be found of local urban planning choices to
locations that result in large amounts of traffic on regional or national
that require large national transport investments in the road network t
Sometimes these locations are chosen over others because their urban dev

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lower, for example because of cheaper land acquisition, yet the total transport development may well be much higher.

The Dutch MIRT program (multiannual funding program for infrastructure transport planning) aims to provide more coherence between urban and transport planning. This works relatively well in the strategic agenda setting phase, but proves less successful when actual decisions have to be made to fund projects. In this context, the costs and benefits of national investments are balanced with national policy objectives. In the Netherlands, urban planning is decentralised to local and regional governments, though national urban planning aims, making it very difficult to justify investment in transport projects. As a result, almost all of the MIRT funding goes to transport projects. Transport budgets to help implement urban planning projects that would otherwise be difficult: regional or local authorities have to bear the (extra) costs to fund investments in infrastructure or would improve opportunities for urban development.

In the Netherlands, regional and local authorities only receive a small share of revenues. Most of their budget consists of grants from central government. The MIRT is a funding program for infrastructure and transport that decentralises budgeting to the local level. It is an important way to bring infrastructure funding closer to transport planning that also makes urban planning decisions. However, the BDU budgets do not cover operational costs of public transport, leaving very little money for transport and urban planning. Furthermore, the BDU is managed at the national level of government, while urban planning decisions are made by local governments.

At the local level, the grondexploitatie (land account) is the main instrument for transport projects. In the land account, municipalities can balance the profits from land sales to developers against the costs of other elements of area development, such as roads and amenities. Infrastructure expenditures can be financed from the benefits of land sales. The instrument therefore offers the opportunity for coherent urban and transport planning since the costs of both are balanced at the same time. However, the scope of the land account is limited to the location itself. Often, these developments include transport infrastructure other than local roads and these costs are not included in the equation. Most of those costs are funded by the central government and regional partners. The profitability of land accounts have been an important driver for transport decisions. However, since not all costs have been taken into account, transport costs have not served as an adequate integration mechanism between transport and urban planning at a larger level of scale. For example, developments with high costs for transport and low costs for additional infrastructure, such as developments within existing urban areas, are systematically underrated.

3. PROMISING COURSES OF ACTION FOR IMPROVING COHERENCE

Many strategies for improving coherence between urban and transport planning have been identified in academic literature, professional debates and policy documents. In this paper, we have identified the eight most prominent strategies and investigated their strengths and pitfalls. These eight strategies were:

- Transit Oriented Development

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- Transit corridor planning
- Creating a diverse palette of urban milieus (urban environment typology)
- Increasing proximity
- Small-scale and/or incremental urban development
- Providing multimodal access
- Increasing travel speeds
- Improving transport chains

From the analyses of these strategies we derived three most promising ones in order to improve the coherence in Dutch policy and practice between infrastructure developments. The following sections elaborate on each of these, especially necessary to make them work.

3.1 Proximity: Making Better Use of Existing Infrastructure and Built Environment

Bringing activities closer together is a very effective way of improving urban quality. For example, research has shown that the number of jobs within reach for people is more dependent on the amount of jobs within close proximity than on differences in job supply (PBL 2012, 2014a, 2014b, Snellen and Hilbers 2013). In addition, proximity facilitates making better use of existing infrastructure and services and therefore of earlier investments made. Furthermore, it supports the provision of amenities.

This sounds like a simple solution: just work on urban densification and compact developments instead of ever increasing urban sprawl by developing new greenfield close to motorways. However, there are some hurdles to jump. Often, actors and developers are under the impression that there is more demand for suburban business parks than for urban living and working. Furthermore, greenfield development is often easier and cheaper.

Policies aiming for more proximity in the built environment, for example through urban densification, can only succeed if the planned supply fits with demand for offices et cetera in the property markets. Recent property market analyses show that locations with urban qualities such as a central location, mixed land use and a range of urban functions close by are most vital (Jones Lang LaSalle and Tordoir 2014). Over the past decade, most additions to the property market have been made in suburban locations often close to motorways. For housing developments urban densification has been a policy for many years. However, developments have predominantly taken place in suburban locations. This does not mean that there is no future for urban densification: there are many locations still available in the existing urban areas to be used for other purposes. Furthermore, research has shown that in the years to come the demand for housing in urban areas to justify approximately 40 percent of new housing will be developed within the boundaries of existing cities and towns. The demand for single-family housing (Bouwfonds 2011). Building this kind of housing within the city is certainly possible. There are many forms of building in higher density than single-family housing in green neighbourhoods. When these are developed in close proximity of transport facilities such as train stations and light rail

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connected for walking and cycling, coherence between urban and transport improved.

In spite of convincing evidence of demand for more urban living and work proximity will not happen in the Netherlands without extra policy attention. Office developments will have to be critically evaluated and balanced against before planning consent is granted. The same holds for new housing developments within the existing urban fabric should be prioritised over suburban or rural. Provinces can play an important role in this process under Dutch planning regulations. Potentially, more small-scale, organic forms of (re)development can increase proximity and better utilise existing urban facilities and infrastructure (Urhahn Urban Design 2012).

Unfortunately, however, the rules and habits in Dutch infrastructure planning and funding are not very supportive of urban developments within existing areas as discussed in section 2. Since 2008, the situation has only deteriorated. To balance out costs for infrastructure needs with benefits obtained from private development have reduced. The economic crisis has had detrimental effects on the private sector. Developers can hardly make a business case for new projects. It has become difficult for infrastructure investments can be financed from land and property development. Local governments have hardly any funding available to pay for infrastructure from their own sources. As we have discussed in section 2, budgets for infrastructure at the central and regional level of government and municipalities have been cut. There are opportunities to secure income from local taxes.

Reconsidering the planning and funding processes in order to support integrated urban planning is necessary. The current crisis might just be the perfect opportunity. What better time to change direction than when driving ever so slowly. The national planning department is rethinking the MIRT procedures. It will investigate how the program could be geared more towards investing in urban infrastructure instead of mainly in infrastructure line developments, and how the program could offer options for incremental developments.

Furthermore, the department's policy for better use of existing infrastructure could be broadened to the urban planning domain, thinking about better use of transport infrastructure and the existing built-up area over time. New developments at well-chosen locations, incremental developments that respond to demand and risen opportunities, can make optimal use of existing infrastructure networks and at the same time support the amenities in urban areas to enable better returns on previous investments. However, the system of infrastructure recovery act is constructed for large-scale developments and in some cases for development it constrains balancing costs and benefits between transport and urban development (Sorel et al 2014).

The fact that local and smaller-scale developments are not the responsibility of the government is not a valid argument against national investments in these areas. The national government has a system responsibility for planning: it has to be a well-functioning planning system. This means that central government has to create the preconditions for urban development, including a workable set of rules and funding.

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funding of these plans. Furthermore, if developments take place within existing infrastructure, this may well reduce the traffic load on roads, which would fit national ambitions with regard to the performance of the transport system.

A different strategy would be to make regional and local actors, who influence decisions most, less dependent on national government for funding. One option would be to decentralise a larger part of the budgets. An important question when considering this is what would be the right level of government to decentralise to. The Dutch situation (between the local and provincial level) is generally considered to be the right level for this type of decision making. On this level, funding for both infrastructure planning and urban planning could be used for integrated planning decisions. Regional governments would have to be granted planning authority in this case at this moment. Moreover, regional bodies will probably soon be granted more opportunities to acquire income, for example through provincial and local taxes.

A second option would be to grant provincial and local governments more opportunities to acquire income, for example through provincial and local taxes. This has in the past been suggested by many researchers and advisory groups (e.g. Rli 2010; Marlet and Poort 2003; Rli 2013; OECD 2014; Rob/Rfv 2005). Although this would mean a drastic change in how government finances work in the Netherlands, it is an option that deserves serious consideration when aiming for better infrastructure and urban planning.

3.2 Improving Implementation of Transit Oriented Development (TOD)

TOD is probably the most commonly propagated strategy for improving coherence between urban and transport planning, both in the Netherlands as well as in many other countries. TOD is a generic term used for different ways of concentrating urban development around public transport stops and nodes. Many policy documents of national, regional and local governments in different countries show TOD aspirations and expectations, and the level is high (Bertolini, Curtis and Renne 2009; Calthorpe 1993; Certero 1998, 2000; Tan et al 2013 and numerous policy documents from national, regional and local governments).

However, implementation of TOD proves difficult (Bertolini 2013; Koopman and Rutten 2011; Tan et al 2013). The authority for decision making on and the funding opportunities of different elements of TOD plans lie on different levels of government or are in the hands of other actors. This hinders coherent development. It is important to create planning arrangements that enable integrated development.

Grosso modo there are three options to bring decision making with respect to urban and transport planning aspects of TOD closer together. The first option is to make one tier of government responsible for both: for instance by making regional government responsible for urban planning decisions instead of local government. The second option is to introduce (mandatory or voluntary) co-operation between local/regional and national government with regard to TOD-related decision making. The third option is to create a framework for

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regulations that places both the transport and built environment intermarket actors.

These options were derived from best practices in different parts of the Dutch urban region of Arnhem Nijmegen attempts to implement TOD through co-operation between municipalities and the regional body (Stadsregio). In the Danish central government plays an important role, while in Tokyo co-operation to develop both transit and the urban development around the public transport. In the rest of this section the Dutch case of Arnhem Nijmegen is discussed. At the end of the section we look at some lessons from the Copenhagen and Tokyo cases.

Despite the variation in which party directs the coordination process, there are similarities between the cases. In all cases, coordination of planning is done at the regional level. This is consistent with research into critical success factors, which shows that this is the most appropriate level of scale for coordination where coordination of planning efforts is most lacking in the Netherlands (Thomas and Bertolini 2014).

The regional body of Arnhem-Nijmegen chose to work on more coherent transport planning through co-operation within the region (Stadsregio 2007). Its role was to develop a strategy for public transport, roads and to invest in transit and, by working as a broker, bringing actors together. Transport planning in the region was mainly geared towards transit provision, particularly at locations that were already being developed and partly to develop new locations aiming for new developments.

This process took place in a complex administrative and financial environment. The regional body operated on a limited budget and with limited authority in decision making, the latter especially with regard to urban planning issues. Nevertheless, the regional body attempted to take the lead in several ways, an attitude that is certainly a prerequisite to successful TOD. The regional body stimulated integrated planning through transit, possible by investing in transit, temporarily compensating for losses through transit until urban development generated the necessary amount of patronage. The regional body made administrative agreements to link urban development to transport investments.

Most innovative was the attempt to connect transit development, urban development, land rights near transit stops and the operation of public transport in one framework. This almost succeeded. Market actors were interested and new coalitions were formed. However, the differences in planning horizons and timing in implementation between the transport planning sectors and an emerging economic crisis put a spoke in the wheel of the innovative plan (Matthijsse 2013; Mulder et al 2013).

The economic crisis forced the regional body to lower ambitions and to involve different actors involved to share the burden of sharply declining demand and offices. However, it struggled with the choices that had to be made. In the case of investments, choices were relatively easy: the number of new stations planned and a planned light rail link was converted into a bus line. However, in the case of planning the regional body had to take the interests of municipalities into account. Municipalities had already invested in land preparation and amenities at the locations and they depended (partly) on urban development gains to balance their investments. As a result it was very difficult to coordinate limitation of urban development.

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municipalities and in this case it created enormous pressure to continue in these areas, whereas locations elsewhere would better fit TOD ambitions.

In the years to come, the abolition of the regional bodies in the Netherlands and the subsequent reshuffling of BDU grants (see section 2) can provide the opportunity to reassign responsibilities in such a way that transport and urban planning decisions are taken together. Again, this is not straightforward. With the loss of a regional level of decision making on BDU funding of transport will have to be taken either at the provincial level or a level down to the local level. The latter comes with increased municipal competition and resulting oversupply of developments and appears to be a less attractive option.

Bringing the BDU responsibilities to the provincial level would mean that municipalities will have to become much more actively involved in urban planning policy (see also OECD 2013; OECD 2014). This would be a major change in the mutual relationship between provinces and the larger cities.

When rethinking the new rules and regulations for the BDU funds it is certainly worth considering to increase the opportunities to use BDU money in a more flexible manner, for instance making it possible to use funding for public transport developments if that increases the cost-effectiveness of public transport.

In Copenhagen and Tokyo other options for coordination of urban planning efforts are used and we can learn from these experiences. Due to differences in the administrative, legal and cultural circumstances foreign best practices are not directly transferred to the Netherlands. However, certain elements of the Danish approaches can be translated to the Dutch context.

In Copenhagen the urban and transport policy of the Fingerplan has a long history. Continuity and clarity of policy are important factors in its success. In the Netherlands adaptations have been made, yet the basic principles of the policy have remained the same for sixty years now. An important element in this policy is the fact that development is restricted to short distances from transit stops but also includes planning for longer distances. These restrictions are established in national regulations. Such regulations are used to obtain the desired results (Hartoft Nielsen 2013a, 2013b).

Despite the enormous difference in density and size comparing Tokyo and Copenhagen, we can even learn from their approach to TOD planning (Chorus 2013). The rules and regulations in Tokyo are such that development at a distance from transit stops is restricted. At the same time the metropolitan government gives market participants a high degree of freedom to develop property close to transit stops and even more when this serves the public policy goals. Instead of investing itself, the public sector focuses on public development, while the private sector submits plans and builds. The same applies to the Netherlands: develop and own transport infrastructure and operate public transport services. The public sector develops from urban development. Since public funding for urban and transport planning is being reduced in the Netherlands, the Tokyo approach may be an interesting one to investigate. It is not just useful in periods of economic growth. It is also useful in arrangements promoting transformation and redevelopment. Again, the government does not invest, it only facilitates. The framework of rules and regulations ensures that public interests are protected.

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3.3 Improving Transport Chains

Transport chains, especially those including public transport, play a role in urban transport yet receive relatively little attention from planners. Transport chains connect different locations and in urban areas in general often require multiple transport modes, including public transport. Smooth transfers between these modes improve accessibility and the attractiveness of public transport and therefore the return on public transport investments (Henry and Marsh 2008). They increase the number of transport options and improve the quality of transport chains – the whole chain of trips leading from origin to destination is not only rarely the subject of travel planners policies. Although they claim to improve accessibility as is stated in the national transport policy the focus is mainly on specific stretches of infrastructure or transit or on individual nodes and not on the whole transport chain.

The quality of these transport chains is crucial, since their travel time, cost and bother for travelling is almost always larger than for a single mode. People dislike changing travel modes. Time spent waiting and changing modes is often longer than time spent travelling (Van Hagen and Van Oort 2011; Litman 2009). Multimodal transport competing with unimodal trips is therefore very hard. If people can choose multimodal (chained) trips if their destination has limited car accessibility, for instance due to infrastructure limitations or parking restrictions. For trips to locations with low car accessibility, public transport cannot compete with the car.

Since public transport is not equally important in all locations, investments in public transport are less likely to flourish, as are investments in multimodal transport chains to these locations. However, there may be other legitimate reasons for investments in public transport and transport chains, for instance serving social goals and promoting transport equity.

Reducing the travel impedance of trip chains requires careful design of the transport chain and there is room for cost effective improvements (Brons and Rietveld 2004; Klinkenberg 2014). This is not just a transport challenge, since the experience of a trip chain also strongly depends on the quality of the (urban) environment where transfers take place. On a very local level, this requires coherence between transport modes and transport design. Especially around nodes that are both interchange as well as destination most TOD nodes are this is a challenging task. Swift and fluent transfers between transport modes in general require different design characteristics than an inviting environment where people can meet and interact with other people. Designers will need to find quality solutions to these quite different requirements. Especially transfers between car and bicycle and between bicycle and public transport set some interesting challenges.

Improving travel chains is not just a design challenge but also requires a long-term planning process. The whole process of planning and decision making in transport design in the Netherlands is currently not geared towards focussing on the whole transport chain is nobody's responsibility. A quality interlinking of transport

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operation between many actors. This can be challenging since they all have their own interests and ambitions.

A complicating factor is that in current policy a culture of silos has been developed, which means that actors tend to work independently of each other on their own element of the chain instead of working together towards a common goal. This culture is most unproductive for obtaining low impedance travel chains and needs to be overcome.

There is a need to formalise the responsibility for the quality of travel chains. Simply relying on good links making a strong chain and on the good actors working together will not yield the desired quality. Which actor must be made responsible for the whole chain will depend on the situation.

4. CONCLUSIONS

Coherence between Dutch urban and transport planning can be improved in many ways, some of which are neither straightforward nor easy yet worth the effort. Both urban and transport planners have a role to play. This research project has led to the conclusion that there are three main courses of action. These three differ in the way they focus on urban and transport planning, yet they have the intention to strengthen the link between both.

Improving proximity of destinations can improve accessibility and make use of existing urban and transport infrastructures. It requires concentrating development within the existing built-up area. This is currently safeguarded by zoning. However, urban developments in a more dispersed direction. Examples are the way in which urban developments are attributed to building plans, the fact that many municipalities and provinces have invested in land for development outside the current built-up area, and the consequences of urban planning choices for transport demand and accessibility. Improvements in cost attribution, selectiveness in where to develop, and a shared responsibility for transport planning for accessibility are necessary.

Transit Oriented Development (TOD) can play an important role in improving coherence between urban and transport planning. However, the large number of actors involved and their conflicting interests make it difficult to successfully implement. Current financial arrangements are obstructing pro-TOD choices and autonomous development, as well as intermunicipal competition work in an opposite direction. Furthermore, the lack of demand for housing, office space et cetera means new TOD locations are not being developed on existing ones. In general, selectiveness and scarcity are important factors. Decision makers should keep in mind that every TOD location is different: there is no one-size-fits-all strategy for TOD. With regard to funding, joining budgets previously earned by urban or transport plans into an integrated budget for accessibility could be useful.

For the success of TOD as well as for offering multimodal access to travel chains and smooth transfers are important. Currently, the transport system is not working, making improvements difficult to implement. Also, connecting transport and urban planning is not always going forward. Urban and transport planners are making choices on what is most important where (combining urban and transport planning, developing a high-density urban area is very difficult) and attributing responsibility for the transport chain to the most appropriate actor.

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NOTES

1 Contrary to regulations in many other countries, Dutch municipalities are prohibited from profit from buying land, preparing it for development and selling it to private developers. In the period before the financial crisis municipalities generated substantial income from this process.