

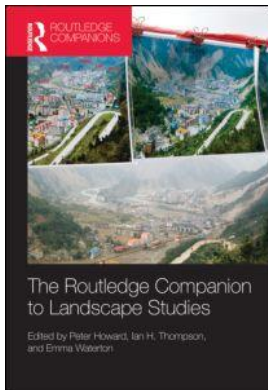
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# Landscape planning: reflections on the past, directions for the future

*Sue Kidd*

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The European Landscape Convention (ELC) defines landscape as ‘an area, as perceived by people, whose character is the result of the action and interaction of natural and/or human factors’ and landscape planning as ‘strong forward-looking action to enhance, restore or create landscapes’ (Council of Europe, 2000, Article 1). Signed in Florence in October 2000, the Convention reflects the now internationally recognised view that landscape is to be found and planned for everywhere and that given the accelerating pace of landscape change (associated with for example rising human population, growing levels of urbanisation, increasing resource demands and human induced climate change) proactive, future orientated and democratically informed landscape planning is urgently required. Although landscape design and landscape planning have been regarded as being part of the same continuum informed by common understandings, perhaps a key distinction that needs to be noted at the outset relates to matters of scale. While the former tends to be focussed on the detailed delivery of landscape intervention on a particular site, landscape planning is more strategic in its view and application and may relate to whole neighbourhoods, cities or regions and increasingly to national and transnational scales. Distinctions are also evident in terms of the types of intervention involved and methods used, and in the types of client and their motivations (Stiles, 1994).

This chapter aims to provide a critical review of current landscape planning theory and practice and to offer a reference point for future interdisciplinary research and research/practice exchange in this field. The account is inevitably rather partial and personal. It comes from a European spatial planning viewpoint and draws upon the author’s research and practice experience of integrating landscape planning perspectives into the theory and practice of spatial planning and vice versa.

In order to set the context for the discussion, the chapter starts with a sketch of the evolution of landscape planning from the early twentieth century to the present day, highlighting shifts in understanding and approaches over time. A key message here is that landscape planning has evolved from being a fragmented and at times schizophrenic field of activity to one which now can integrate a diversity of theoretical and methodological perspectives. This is followed by an exploration of the opportunities and challenges presented by integrated landscape planning approaches and associated research priorities with reference to protected area planning, urban landscape planning and landscape governance.

## A discipline of diverse perspectives

The clear definition of landscape planning set out in the ELC belies the long-standing and ongoing debates related to its scope, with the history of landscape planning revealing quite contrasting perspectives on what it entails. Although the existence of simple dualisms can be overstated, there is no doubt that the field is rich in different interpretations (Seddon, 1986). Key lines of division that have been the recurring focus of discussion include aesthetic v. ecological; preservationist v. functional and productive; special area v. whole landscape; rural v. urban; qualitative v. quantitative; and expert v. participatory interpretations, with the balance in landscape planning theory and practice shifting over time. The different disciplinary inputs to the development of landscape planning have been a stimulus to these debates and it has attracted a surprisingly wide range of interest (Conrad et al., 2011). Arts and social science contributions have come from areas such as landscape design, human geography, anthropology, history, archaeology and public health. Here the principal focus has been the aesthetic, cultural, social and personal significance of landscapes and associated concerns to protect and develop landscape beauty, and the cultural, historic, social and personal value of landscapes. Natural science contributions have also been prominent including physical geography, earth sciences, biological sciences and ecology. Here the concern traditionally centred upon the protection of species, habitats and significant geological features, but more recently has extended to a wider concern for ecosystem functioning and ecosystem health. As we shall see below, inputs from town and country planning and landscape ecology have been particularly significant in the theoretical and methodological development of the discipline.

## Nineteenth-century roots

Implicit in the ELC is the idea that landscape planning is a form of publically orientated activity undertaken in support of wider societal objectives. If this is taken as a key characteristic, then its modern foundations lie in the development of anti-urban sentiments that emerged in western Europe and North America in the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries. Influenced by the idealised notions of the 'rural idyll' and associated aesthetics presented by the Romantic Movement, together with developing concern for public health, two interconnected areas of landscape planning began to evolve.

The first was focussed upon rural areas and saw the development of preservationist approaches to landscape planning. These sprang from the new appreciation of natural beauty and natural history inspired by the Romantics. In Britain, for example, the works of John Ruskin and William Morris were paralleled by a growing band of influential and well connected interest groups, such as The National Trust for Places of Historic Interest and Natural Beauty (now the National Trust) and the Council for the Preservation of (now the Campaign to Protect) Rural England (Newby, 1988; Bishop and Phillips, 2004). These aroused public concern about the rapid encroachment of the countryside by urban development and lobbied for new legislation to protect the natural beauty and natural history of special sites and places for the quiet enjoyment of the wider population. Their efforts culminated in the landmark National Parks and Access to the Countryside Act of 1949, which saw the establishment of the framework of protected area designations and which is still the focus of much UK landscape planning activity today. This included the designation of National Parks and smaller Areas of Outstanding Natural Beauty where the principal concern was (and still is) stringent control of development to preserve natural beauty, and Sites of Special Scientific Interest and National and Local Nature Reserves where designation relates to particular nature conservation considerations. In the

United States, the works of Thoreau and activities of John Muir among others similarly reflected growing disenchantment with development patterns of the day, and a particular concern about the destruction of untamed wilderness through rapidly expanding forestry and farming activity. In response the world's first national parks were created here and the particular style of landscape planning that emerged for these areas set the tone for similar initiatives in many parts of the world. These were founded upon notions of environmental stewardship and an aesthetic appreciation of the sublime qualities of apparently untouched lands, which it was felt should be preserved in their pristine state by excluding human activity as far as possible (Selman, 2010).

The second strand of early landscape planning was urban focussed and saw the development of a proactive urban greening tradition flowing from a concern about the unsatisfactory state of the towns and cities that expanded rapidly from the nineteenth century onwards in the wake of increasing industrialisation and population growth. A series of urban surveys of the period shocked the middle classes with reports of intense overcrowding, lack of light and inadequate sanitary arrangements, poor health and low life expectancy, together with all the social ills that accompany such situations. These prompted the introduction of planning controls to ensure acceptable standards of new development, and initiatives aimed at urban improvement became popular. In this context connections were increasingly being made between health and access to light and fresh air and to the importance of opportunities for exercise presented by green open space. As early as 1682 the benefits of *rus in urbe* were being advocated in William Penn's 'Greene Country Towne' plan for Philadelphia. By the mid-eighteenth century London's parks were labelled as the 'lungs of London'. However, few cities were so fortunate in their provision of open space and even in London population growth was making the historic legacy of the royal parks inadequate. So developed the urban greening movement which saw the creation of new public parks in towns and cities across Europe and North America (Ward Thompson, 2011).

### Early twentieth-century pioneers

Pioneers of the new discipline of town and country planning were among the first to indicate ways in which these twin strands of early landscape planning might come together, and also to develop practice that helped to inform landscape planning methodology. Ebenezer Howard's Garden City concept, set out in his classic text of 1898 *To-morrow: A Peaceful Path to Real Reform* (Howard, 2010), remains a useful starting point for reflection on landscape planning approaches. Based upon an analysis of the strengths and weaknesses of the town and the country, Howard presented a vision for future development which, he argued, would bring the best attributes of each together in the form of carefully planned green and spacious new garden cities. These would be surrounded by a 'green belt' where development would be restricted and the needs of the community in terms of farming, forestry, water and outdoor recreation would be provided for. His vision therefore connected rural and urban planning and combined preservationist and interventionist approaches in both contexts with the quality of the landscape setting acting as the essential backdrop to his proposals. Far from being a blueprint or master plan, his ideas were highly conceptual and pointed towards a general direction for development rather than indicating its precise form, allowing for interpretation to fit particular contexts. Such thinking was complemented by Patrick Geddes, another pioneer of the period, who was significant in the promotion of regional scale planning, planning methodology and modern ecology (Geddes, 1915). Geddes believed that a detailed understanding of a region's environmental context should be an essential part of the panoramic regional surveys upon which plans for future

development should be based. Interestingly his efforts to put his ideas into practice in various parts of Scotland saw not only some of the first detailed scientifically based vegetation surveys in Britain, but also included innovative methods of more qualitative assessment of an area's aesthetic and cultural attributes drawing upon the interests and insights of an enthusiastic band of survey volunteers (Allen, 1976). Other early applications of these ideas and approaches are evident in Olmsted's ecologically informed 'emerald necklace' of parks and wetlands in Boston, and in Patrick Abercrombie's famous Greater London Plan of 1944, which, following a systematic landscape survey, provided for the establishment of the London Green Belt and the development of a network of parks, green spaces and river corridors which continue to be key features of planning for the city today.

### Landscape ecology inputs

By the mid-twentieth century landscape planning was maturing as a distinct area of activity within the wider field of landscape architecture (Stiles, 1994), and the subsequent decades have seen major strides forward in its conceptual basis and in its methods. Two important areas of input are highlighted here. First, Ian McHarg's (1969) seminal work *Design with Nature* heralded a new era of scientifically informed landscape planning (e.g. Hackett, 1971; Hough, 1984; Laurie, 1986) and the development of landscape ecology as an important field in its own right (Forman and Godron, 1986). Landscape ecology has drawn upon an increasingly sophisticated understanding of ecosystem functioning and the role of human activities in shaping landscape change which has been revealed by the application of systems thinking and the rapid development of information technology including GIS. It has exerted a powerful influence on the theory and practice of landscape planning because it can both explain the reasons behind the continuing decline in ecosystem health and provide clear principles for more effective ecosystem protection, management and improvement. In so doing, it has spurred experimentation with normative models of landscape planning which focus upon achieving defined goals based on notions of how things 'ought to be' from an ecological health perspective. Hawkins and Selman have identified three normative approaches which they consider to be in widespread use:

- the *landscape stabilisation approach*, which emphasises the role of landscape elements in conserving and enhancing biodiversity and scenery, and places particular emphasis on their 'hygienic' functions such as water and soil protection, air purification, and soil erosion control;
- the *focal species approach*, which seeks to create conducive environments for key species and in so doing protect the ecological dependency webs with which they are associated. Both these approaches place particular emphasis on defragmentation of the landscape. Connectivity is also an underlying principle here;
- in the *greenway approach*, connectivity becomes centre stage. Here ecological understanding is woven together with social and economic considerations and a multi-functional view of landscape planning emerges with greenways being promoted not just for species dispersal and hydrological purposes, but also for recreational, visual appreciation, pollution buffering, and heritage and cultural resource protection (Selman, 2006).

Landscape ecology has played an important role in promoting more rigorous landscape planning methods in other areas too. On the one hand, it has encouraged more systematic data collection (for example in terms of landscape character mapping) and innovative use of new technology

including modelling to support a more evidence based approach to landscape planning. On the other, it has encouraged the development and application of more systematic methods of planning analysis and appraisal such as Environmental Impact Assessment and Landscape Impact Assessment and systematic approaches for determining the focus of landscape management action (e.g. Warnock and Brown, 1998; Wood and Handley, 2001).

### **Collaborative planning inputs**

However, while landscape planning has become an increasingly scientifically informed activity, the latter years of the twentieth century saw growing public distrust of ‘experts’ and criticism of rationalist approaches to planning more generally, in line with the wider attack on modernism and the development of postmodern lines of thought. These highlight the inherently value-driven and therefore political nature of any form of public planning activity and have prompted calls for greater public engagement and the adoption of more deliberative and collaborative approaches to decision making. Such perspectives have profoundly affected the development of spatial planning theory and practice (Healey, 1997; Innes and Booher, 1999) and have been reinforced by insights from Implementation Theory (Pressman and Wildavsky, 1973; Berman, 1980; Weale, 1992). This highlights the importance of considering implementation issues at all stages of the planning process and emphasises the link between levels of public engagement in planning and effective implementation. These ideas have had particular resonance for landscape planning and not just for ethical and implementation reasons. As we have seen, landscape planning embraces concerns that extend beyond ecosystem health and that aesthetic, cultural, and social motivations are also deeply embedded. A key concern is peoples’ enjoyment of and engagement with landscapes and from this perspective, participatory approaches to landscape planning can be regarded as fundamental for at least two reasons. Firstly they facilitate understanding of the different ways in which people view and use landscapes and clarify what their needs and aspirations are for particular places. Secondly they provide a mechanism for public engagement and re-engagement with landscapes, and can foster associated social learning and capacity building (Selman, 2006). As a result, collaborative approaches have also become firmly embedded in landscape planning theory and practice and this is reflected very clearly in the European Landscape Convention, which has been formulated as a response ‘to the public’s wish to enjoy high quality landscapes and to play an active part in the development of landscapes (Council of Europe, 2000, preamble). The ELC requires signatory states to establish procedures for the participation of the general public, local and regional authorities, and other parties with an interest in the definition and implementation of the landscape policies’ (Council of Europe, 2000, Article 5). As with landscape ecology, collaborative planning ideas have also spawned developments in landscape planning methodology. These include methods for stakeholder mapping and analysis and structured approaches to partnership development and partnership working, as well as imaginative engagement techniques such as storytelling and various methods associated with visualising landscape futures (Jacobs, 2011).

### **Integrated approaches to landscape planning**

From the above discussion it is apparent that landscape planning today benefits from a rich amalgam of different theoretical and methodological perspectives. Figure 31.1 provides an overview of some of the key inputs to the more integrated view of landscape planning that pertains today. The following discussion develops this notion of integration further and highlights some of the opportunities and challenges presented by the adoption of more

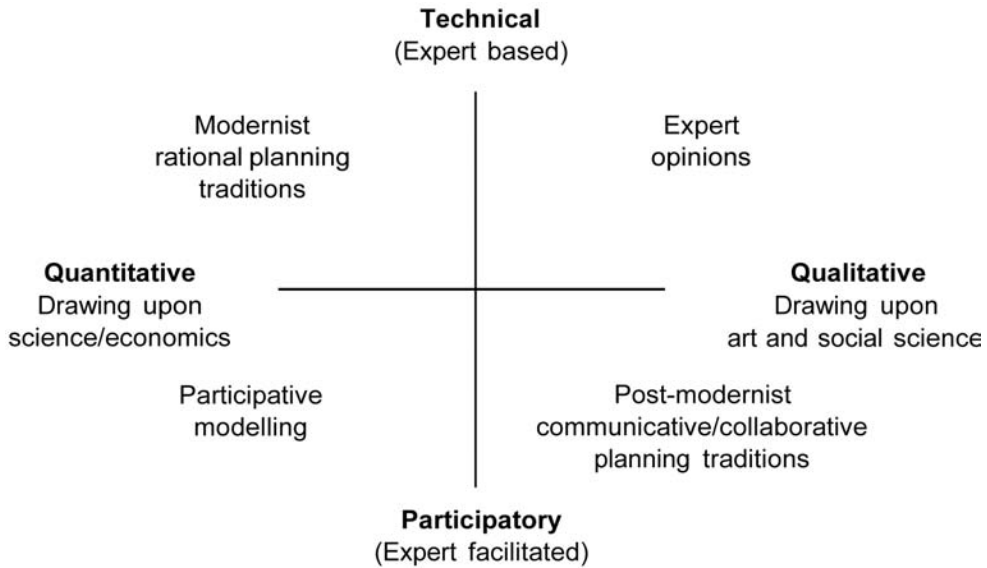


Figure 31.1 Theoretical and Methodological Traditions Encompassed within Landscape Planning.

integrated landscape planning ambitions before illustrating what these might mean for practice and research related to protected area planning, urban landscape planning and landscape governance.

The arguments in favour of integrated approaches to landscape planning have long been voiced but they have gained increasing support from both landscape ecology and town and country planning where spatial planning perspectives now hold sway, as well as from other arenas. In particular they have been encouraged by an intensifying focus upon sustainable development which is now, as revealed in the preamble to the ELC, the overarching objective of most landscape planning activities. This integrated view is reflected in various conceptual models of landscape (see Figure 31.2) that were produced in the early years of the twenty-first century (e.g. Countryside Council for Wales, 2002; Swanwick and Land Use Consultants, 2002; Countryside Agency, 2006) and in the development of ideas related to landscape multi-functionality (Brandt et al., 2000; Gallent et al., 2008) and ecosystem services (Haines-Young and Potschin, 2008) (see Table 31.1).

The impact of such thinking is potentially very significant for the future of landscape planning. Firstly, it helps to move beyond the divisions that have been a feature of the activity for much of the twentieth century and which have arguably dissipated its influence in the world by presenting confusing and at times conflicting messages. Secondly, it provides a firm grounding for more coherent and ambitious landscape planning approaches. Although there are recent signs of some retrenchment in the research community (Conrad et al., 2011), there is also encouraging evidence of a renewed vigour and sense of experimentation in this regard, illustrated for example in the uptake of green infrastructure planning in the UK and elsewhere (Mel, 2008), development of socio-ecological frameworks for planning sustainable landscapes in Australia (Bohnet and Smith, 2007) and in the ideas related to landscape ecological urbanism put forward by Steiner (2011). However, implementing an integrated approach to landscape planning also brings its challenges as experience from spatial planning indicates (Kidd, 2007).

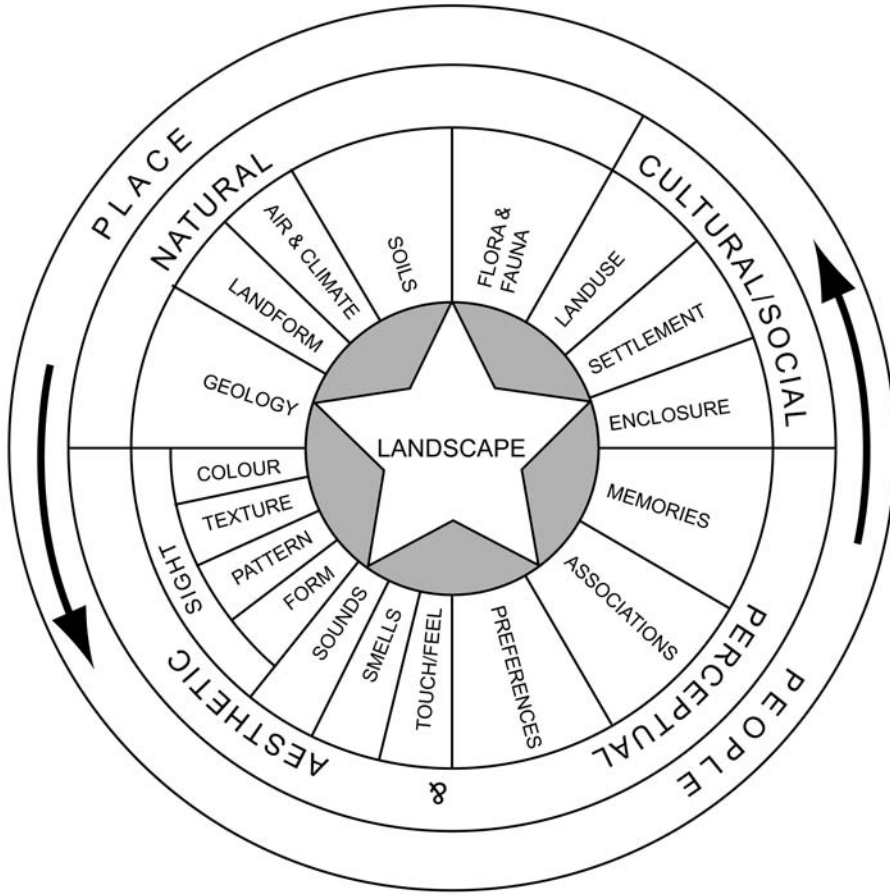


Figure 31.2 Landscape as an integrative concept  
 Source: Swanwick and Land Use Consultants, 2002.

Importantly it extends beyond matters of substance to include matters of governance and issues related to sectoral, territorial and organisational relationships. Table 31.2 provides a framework for considering what an integrated approach to landscape planning may mean from this perspective.

Firstly, it implies better *sectoral integration*, including joining-up economic, social and environmental policy agendas. Too often it seems that landscape planning is pursued in isolation of other, more politically prominent policy areas and, potential conflicts and synergies are given insufficient attention. To encourage this joining-up inter-agency integration is required between public, private and voluntary sector organisations and individuals who use and shape landscapes in different ways. In the UK context, for example, organisations like the *National Trust* and the *Royal Society for Protection of Birds* are increasingly large land owners and they are often at the cutting edge of managing landscape change. They are therefore in a good position to inform landscape policy development and also to deliver landscape policy objectives.



Table 31.1 Multi-functionality as an integrative concept

<i>Brandt et al. 2000</i> <i>Multiple Functions of Landscape</i>	<i>Gallent et al. 2008</i> <i>Multi-functional Green Infrastructure</i>	<i>Hanines-Young and Potschin, 2008</i> <i>Ecosystem Services</i>
<i>Ecological Functionality</i> 'an area for living' for human and non-human life	<i>Ecological Functionality</i> Carbon Sink Pollution Control Air Conditioning Micro-climate Control Flood Prevention Soil Protection Wildlife Refuge Wildlife Corridor	<i>Regulating Services</i> Air Quality, Climate, Disease, Erosion, Fire, Natural Hazard, Pest, Pollination, Water Flow, Water Quality  <i>Supporting Services</i> Nutrient Cycling Primary Productivity Sediment Soil Formation
<i>Economic Functionality</i> 'an area for production'	<i>Economic Functionality</i> Direct and indirect setting for business activity Direct and indirect setting for property Direct and indirect employment	<i>Provisioning Services</i> Fibre Food Freshwater Genetic Medicinal Other
<i>Socio-cultural Functionality</i> 'an area for recreation and identification with socio-cultural attributes'	<i>Socio-cultural Functionality</i> Formal and Informal Recreation Promotion of physical and mental well-being Interaction and community cohesion Education	<i>Cultural Services</i> Aesthetic Heritage Jobs Recreation Scientific Spiritual
<i>Historical Functionality</i> 'an area for settlement and identity which offers a sense of socio-cultural continuity'		
<i>Aesthetic Functionality</i> 'an area for experiences'		

Table 31.2 A framework for integration in landscape planning

<i>Sectoral</i>	Cross-sectoral Integration	Integration of different public policy domains
	Inter-agency Integration	Integration of public, private and voluntary sector activity
<i>Territorial</i>	Vertical Integration	Integration between different spatial scales of planning activity
	Horizontal Integration	Integration of planning activity between adjoining areas or areas with some shared interest
<i>Organisational</i>	Strategic Integration	Integration of planning strategies, programmes and initiatives
	Operational Integration	Integration of delivery mechanisms in all relevant agencies
	Disciplinary/Stakeholder Integration	Integration of different disciplines and stakeholders

Equally, the framework draws attention to issues related to *territorial integration* including vertical integration between different levels of plan making. This is a particularly problematic issue for landscape planning where plans may be very informal and where significant weaknesses and gaps in the statutory landscape planning hierarchy may exist. Similarly, horizontal integration involving the alignment of landscape planning activities between neighbouring areas is important, for example to ensure consistent delivery of catchment management measures or coherent greenway networks. Finally, there is a need to promote better *organisational integration*. This means not only achieving greater consistency and synergy in the landscape content of plans, but also ensuring that different organisations play their part in the delivery of landscape planning objectives by adopting appropriate day to day working practices. It also means encouraging different disciplines/stakeholders to come together to develop a better appreciation of varying perspectives on landscape matters and develop a stronger consensus about future directions. The challenges involved are clearly immense and these together with some of the opportunities to make positive progress in the current context are now illustrated.

### **Integrated landscape planning for protected areas**

As discussed previously one of the earliest landscape planning interventions was designation of protected areas covering places (mainly in rural areas) judged to have 'special' landscape qualities either for aesthetic/cultural or ecological reasons, or both. Although such approaches have generated a considerable body of criticism over the years, they tend to be enshrined in law and attract significant levels of popular support at least from some quarters. As a result they have an enduring quality and indeed are still growing in number and extent as a result of international obligations and activities, such as UNESCO's rolling programme of World Heritage Site Designations and responses to the United Nations Convention of Biological Diversity (CBD), as well as through national- and local-level initiatives. Interestingly landscape protection is a core feature of the ELC. Advocates of this approach, argue that the scale and pace of human development is leading to both a homogenisation and fragmentation of landscapes and that protective designations are a legally defensible way of holding the line and therefore of passing on cultural and biological diversity to future generations. On the other hand critics of the approach argue that such designations fail to recognise that landscape is fundamentally a dynamic entity and that protective measures designed to preserve what is there now are deeply flawed for a number of reasons. First, given that today's landscape is in itself the product of change over millennia, why should the current state be regarded as more worthy of retention than any previous state? In relation to biodiversity for example, would it not be more appropriate to look back to an earlier era and recreate the 'natural' habitats that once occurred in an area rather than maintain potentially biologically impoverished landscapes that are the product of ways of life that are economically and socially redundant? This approach is being advocated as a response to the enhancement and restoration objectives of the CBD. However, approaches based on retention of the present or recreation of the past can both be accused of displaying a Disneyland or 'zoolike' qualities. Not only are they likely to contribute to a loss of meaning (Rackham, 1986) or authenticity as they become increasingly divorced from the economic and social realities of the present era, but they are also likely to incur considerable effort and cost at holding the forces of change at bay. Equally significant, understanding derived from landscape ecology reveals that a policy which focusses upon the protection of ecologically rich islands is likely to be doomed to failure without supporting policies in the wider environment.

However, despite the arguments for and against protected area designations and their limitations in terms of more integrated landscape planning perspectives, it seems that that they

are here to stay and importantly, in the context of this chapter, will continue to be a key focus of legally required landscape planning activity. If this is to be the case, then it is important that the opportunity is grasped to showcase approaches that exemplify how integrated landscape planning perspectives can deliver more sustainable patterns of development. They are particularly well placed to do this as the special emphasis on landscape considerations implicit in their designation, means that there is scope to demonstrate what a landscape informed planning strategy for an area might look like. It is very rare that landscape (as opposed to economic growth, for example) is used as the grounding for plans in other contexts at the present time.

An appreciation of this 'showcasing' role is already evident and there are some helpful examples of more holistic and integrated plans for designated landscapes emerging. For example, national parks are a fairly recent designation in Scotland and it is informative to contrast their statutory purpose with the more longstanding national parks in England and Wales. It can be seen from Table 31.3 that Scottish national parks and their associated plans are not only required to be cross-sectoral in focus by integrating environmental and economic and social concerns, but also to encompass a broad view of environmental considerations. The objective of sustainable resource use is significant because it makes sustainability considerations a statutory requirement for UK national park practice for the first time. This is reflected in the content of the Cairngorm National Park Plan which covers issues related to energy, water and air alongside more traditional areas of concern. The plan starts from a broadly defined landscape perspective and sets out a wide-ranging framework for many aspects of life in the park which interconnect with its central concern with landscape quality (see Table 31.4). Similar examples of holistic, landscape led plans for designated areas are also emerging in the UK's Areas of Outstanding Natural Beauty such as the Wye Valley AONB (Gallent et al. 2008).

So there is some evidence that more integrated landscape planning approaches are being developed for designated landscapes but what other ideas might such strategies incorporate taking account of the discussion above? Two examples are put forward.

Taking the ELC definition of landscape planning as a starting point, it can be argued that it is important at the outset to establish an orientation that is based upon strong forward-looking action that addresses economic, social and environmental change. In protected areas such an orientation may seem out of step with the spirit of the designation and particular efforts may be needed for stakeholders to engage with this idea and think creatively about the future, critically assessing the balance to be struck between protection and landscape change. Various strands of landscape planning research, however, indicate potentially useful paths to explore. One that seems to merit further attention is the use of landscape history as a tool for forward planning. Marcucci (2000) for example argues that landscape planning tends to underplay the dynamism

*Table 31.3* Statutory purpose of national parks in the United Kingdom

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*England and Wales*

- To conserve and enhance the natural beauty, wildlife and cultural heritage;
- To promote opportunities for the understanding and enjoyment of the special qualities (of the parks) by the public.

*Scotland*

- To conserve and enhance the natural and cultural heritage of the area;
  - To promote sustainable use of the resources of the area;
  - To promote understanding and enjoyment of the special qualities of the area by the public;
  - To promote sustainable economic and social development of the area's communities
-

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Table 31.4 Strategic objectives of the Cairngorm National Park plan 2007

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*Conserving and Enhancing the Park*

Conserving and Enhancing the Natural and Cultural Heritage

- Landscape, Built and Historic Environment
- Biodiversity
- Geodiversity
- Culture and Traditions

Sustainable Use of Resources

- Energy
- Water
- Air

Integrated Land Management

- Farming and Crofting
- Forest and Woodland Management
- Moorland Management
- Deer Management
- Fisheries Management

*Living and Working in the Park*

Sustainable Communities

Economy and Employment

Housing

Transport and Communications

Waste Management

*Enjoying and Understanding the Park*

Sustainable Tourism

Outdoor Access and Recreation

Learning and Understanding

---

of landscape and often fails to set current planning activity against the backcloth of ecological stages, cultural periods and key stone processes related to the specific landscape setting. An examination of landscape history he suggests has the potential to improve description, prediction and prescription in landscape planning, and be a focus of more meaningful exchange with citizens about future directions for protected areas. An alternative and possibly complementary approach would be to focus upon landscape aesthetics and use an exploration of the different aesthetic appreciations of stakeholders (for example scenic and ecological aesthetics) as an entry point for understanding the multi-functionality of places and for exploring alternative perspectives. Authors such as Meyer (2008), Jacobs (2011) and Jorgensen (2011) suggest that aesthetic appreciation is a neglected area in landscape planning and that a focus upon this has the potential to challenge, expand and alter conceptions of beauty and open up new aesthetic appreciations reflecting current understanding of future circumstances. These might include for example new aesthetic appreciations related to necessity, resilience or sustainability. Given that aesthetic appreciation is often central to the designation of special landscapes this seems like a particularly fruitful avenue to explore further (see Chapter 9 in this volume for a fuller discussion of landscape aesthetics).

## Integrated landscape planning for urban areas

In contrast to the strength and continuity of landscape planning for designated (mainly rural) landscapes, activity related to ‘urban greening’ has had a much more chequered history (Spirn, 1986). A low point seems to have been reached in the early 1970s, reflected in Nan Fairbrother’s seminal text on landscape planning *New Lives, New Landscapes*. Here she sets out a comprehensive vision of landscape planning for rural uplands, rural lowlands and the urban fringe but she says ‘the built up cities are not discussed, this is the realm of town planners and to join in their internecine battles is to perish on alien ground’ (Fairbrother, 1972: 58). Thankfully, this position has not been shared by all landscape planners and those with landscape ecology interests have been particularly influential in gaining recognition of the value of greenspace and blue space networks within urban areas (e.g. Hough, 1984; Spirn, 1984) and re-establishing policies for their protection and enhancement as a core feature of urban planning (EU, 1994; Pauleit, 2003; Birch and Silver, 2009). This work has gone from strength to strength, with research on multi-functionality and ecosystem services translated into notions of green infrastructure presenting an increasingly coherent and persuasive case for effective planning of these critical urban assets (Benedict and McMahon, 2002). Reflecting back on the framework of integration in landscape planning set out in Table 31.2, there is much to be praised in these developments. They have been highly successful in promoting a cross-sectoral approach by indicating the ways in which landscape planning can contribute to ecological (Ahern, 2007), climate change (Gill et al., 2007), social cohesion (Benedict and McMahon, 2006), health and well-being (Tzoulas et al., 2007) and other agendas. They have also achieved some degree of organisational integration with support from different disciplinary groupings increasingly evident (e.g. Frumkin, 2001; Gibson et al., 2003). In addition, examples of more holistic multi-functional approaches to urban greenspace design and management are beginning to emerge, although there is still a long way to go in this regard (Landscape Institute, 2009). There are also some good examples of territorial integration illustrated by efforts to join up greenspace networks, across local authority divides particularly at the city region level such as the Glasgow and Clyde Valley Green Network and the Green Infrastructure Strategy for Leeds City Region. However, in Britain this is perhaps one of the weaker areas of achievement so far, with links to planning for the urban fringe and wider countryside often poorly developed, and complementary regional, national and transnational landscape planning often weak or absent. The work of the University of Massachusetts in proposing an ideal network of greenways and greenspaces for the USA shows what could be achieved here (Fabos, 2004). So how can this work on multifunctional urban greening be built upon drawing on the breadth of experience and insights that landscape planning can now bring to bear. Again two examples are put forward.

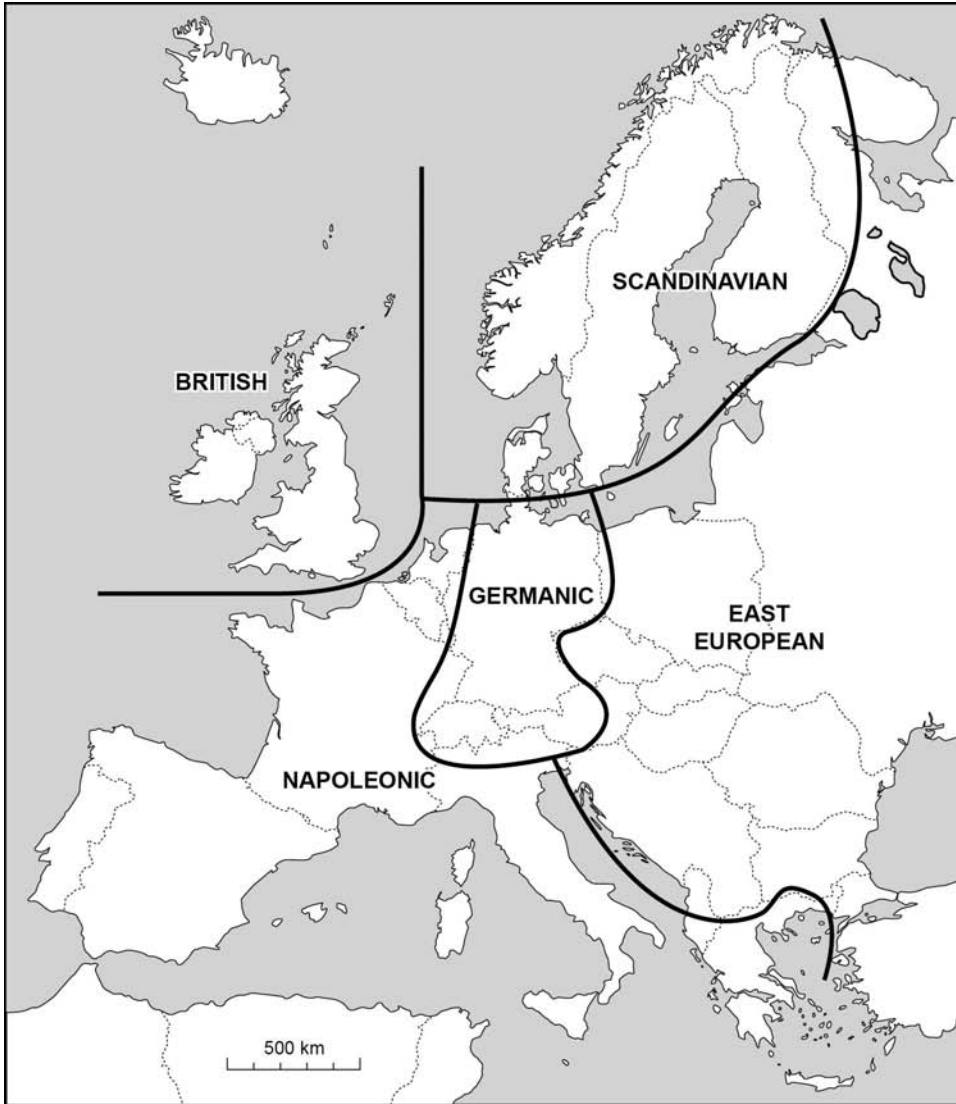
The first relates to the matters of landscape character and the potential for greater sensitivity to landscape diversity, distinctiveness and cultural heritage within urban areas. This tends to be a neglected aspect of urban greenspace planning at present. It is notable, for example in the UK context that landscape characterisation work is as yet very crude for urban areas in comparison to the position for rural landscapes. This situation is not unique to the UK, with similar situations being reported in areas as diverse as Taiwan (Yeh and Huang, 2009) and Norway (Swensen and Jerpasen, 2008). Conclusions from the Taiwan research indicate that urban development can significantly alter landscape patterns and landscape diversity and suggests that sensitivity to these matters is important from an ecological perspective. The case study research in Norway indicates that while municipal planners were aware of specific cultural objects, there was little appreciation of cultural distinctiveness of the wider environment and that cultural landscapes were seldom recognised as a resource in their own terms. Without this understanding

it was concluded that cultural interests tended to lose out to more tangible and functional areas of landscape concern such as recreation and nature conservation. Fuller engagement with the distinctiveness of urban landscapes therefore seems to be a key area for future development. A second area concerns developing the potential of urban greenspace as a productive and working environment. There is already a groundswell of interest and activity related to the promotion of urban agriculture (Viljoen et al., 2005) including thinking creatively about the use of city rooftops for this purpose (Hui, 2011). Similarly interest in the green energy generation potential of cities is growing (Girardet, 2004). Imaginative connections are also being made between this potential and concepts of leisurely work for ageing and economically faltering societies such as Japan (Yokohari and Bolthouse, 2011). From many perspectives therefore this seems another very timely area for future work.

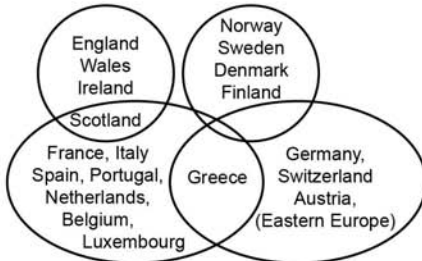
### **Integrated landscape planning and governance**

Designated landscapes and to a lesser extent urban areas are two examples of where landscape planning has gained a foothold and where there is a relatively solid basis for applying the integrated landscape understanding and practices that have developed over the past 100 years. However, landscape planning generally remains something of a ‘Cinderella’ activity and with a few notable exceptions, such as in Germany and the Netherlands, it is not well integrated into statutory planning processes. For example, the conclusions of a review of UK experience undertaken in the late 1990s (Punter and Carmona, 1997) remain broadly reflective of current UK statutory planning practice. Although there are signs of a supportive, more integrated and broad based view of landscape planning matters in government policy, the application of this thinking is increasingly the responsibility of local authorities and here despite some good work on local landscape character assessment for example, there is patchy evidence of landscape perspectives being formally incorporated into statutory development plans or influencing development control decision making. Beunen and Opdam (2011) and Conrad et al., (2011) conclude in different ways that this pattern is by no means unique to the UK, and they suggest that the research community is at least partly to blame for this situation. They believe that researchers have been too inward looking and that an increasing gap is emerging between research and practice. Beune and Opdam argue the case for more active engagement of researchers with those directly involved in landscape planning practice believing such engagement will encourage the uptake of scientific understanding in decision making. Conrad et al. on the other hand advocate increased involvement of stakeholders within research projects and context specific research related to landscape planning and its implementation. The value of this type of investigation is highlighted by experience from spatial planning where there is already a useful body of research of this type. For example, distinct legal and administrative families have been identified in Europe which are seen to influence the style and form of statutory planning practice across the continent and enable more generic ideas about spatial planning to be tailored to specific contexts (see Figure 31.3).

Research of this nature together with an assessment of the opportunities and barriers related to the effective delivery of statutory landscape planning in different country contexts seems to be a key area for future attention. However, integrated landscape planning (and indeed spatial planning) perspectives unfortunately make the picture much more complex than this. The sectoral, territorial and organisational dimensions of integration referred to earlier are reflective of the new era of governance which is taking hold in most parts of the world. This means that landscape and spatial planning interests increasingly extend beyond statutory processes and encompass many other ‘softer’ planning arenas. One expression of this is revealed in the



**LEGAL FAMILIES**



**ADMINISTRATIVE FAMILIES**

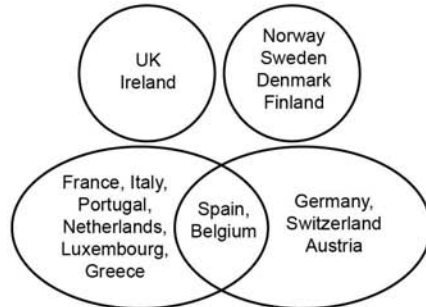


Figure 31.3 Legal and administrative families of Europe.

Sue Kidd

establishment of an ELC related information system where no fewer than 26 government departments are identified as possible contributors in each country. Each will have its own particular 'take' on landscape planning matters and particular contribution to make to the delivery of landscape planning ambitions. The same is true for many other stakeholder groups and disciplinary interests. Teasing out what role each might play and how these interests could come together in different contexts is potentially a very rich seam of research which has been barely touched upon, but which is clearly core if integrated approaches to landscape planning are to effect change on the ground. The ELC provides a valuable touchstone for encouraging more active engagement from all parties in landscape planning in the 33 countries that have so far signed the convention. There are proposals for a Global Landscape Convention which in time might raise the profile of landscape planning in many other parts of the world as well. This means that research relating landscape planning and governance will be central to developments over the coming years.

## Conclusion

In the introduction to this chapter I mentioned the discussion by Stiles (1994) where he explored the differences between landscape design and landscape planning and considered whether they could be envisaged under the umbrella of landscape architecture as a single unified discipline. At that time he concluded that they could, but I wonder whether he would come to the same conclusion today. Landscape architects, through their education and activities are clearly vital to the future of landscape planning and are uniquely placed to advocate the integrated landscape planning understanding that has emerged from over a century of research and practice. However, the integrative framework that they have played a large part in developing deserves wide dissemination. As Selman (2010) suggests it brings together so many aspects of sustainable development, positioning an understanding of landscape character, distinctiveness and resilience at the heart of place making and the integration of multiple planning goals. If this vision of landscape planning is to realise its potential it has to be taken on board by many others who lie beyond the landscape profession. The same is true of spatial planning, which in its own way has come to the same conclusion about the need for integrative planning approaches to promote more sustainable patterns of development. This is a challenging point to have reached for academics and professionals in both fields, as it requires a loosening of disciplinary and professional divides and a reaching out in research, education and practice on a scale that has not been seen so far. In addition to the previous suggestions about fruitful avenues for investigation these considerations must also be high on the future research agenda.

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