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Protected landscapes - the great hope of European area protections policies?

Mehnen, Nora Alice Johanna

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**PROTECTED LANDSCAPES – THE GREAT HOPE OF EUROPEAN AREA
PROTECTION POLICIES?**

**A comparative study of governance
in IUCN category V areas**

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Rijksuniversiteit Groningen

**PROTECTED LANDSCAPES – THE GREAT HOPE OF
EUROPEAN AREA PROTECTION POLICIES?**

A comparative study of governance
in IUCN category V areas

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Nora Alice Johanna Mehnen

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Promotores: Prof. dr. D. Strijker

Prof. dr. I. Mose

Beoordelingscommissie: Prof. dr. J. Woltjer

Prof. dr. J. P. Bakker

Prof. dr. Th. Hammer

Preface and acknowledgements

It is my great pleasure to (finally) write this preface and the following acknowledgments. Protected areas have interested me ever since my initial studies at the University of Vechta, and writing my thesis about protected areas and being able to do my own research has been an honour and a privilege.

Protected areas have gained an increasingly high societal relevance in recent times; they are still growing in number, and in particular more and more landscapes are being given ‘protected’ status. But lately, the state has been withdrawing from some of its duties, and other actors have begun taking over these tasks. Often, it is difficult to ensure that interests are balanced, and that protected areas are not only marketing instruments or “paper tigers”. This has become clear during my fieldwork in France, England, Germany and Austria. (But more about that on the next two hundred pages...). The new cross-faculty Participation Network at the University of Groningen shows the importance of inter-, trans- and multidisciplinary research in this area. Similarly, recent publications (such as the Dutch reports *Onbeperkt houdbaar naar een robuust natuurbeleid* from the Council for the Environment and Infrastructure (Rli) or *Natuur en landschap op zoek naar een nieuw verbond; voordracht voor besturen van de 12 Landschappen* by Prof. dr. Hans Renes; both reports from 2013) confirm the relevance of the topic.

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Julia, Karin and Bethany, thanks for the English corrections, and Reinhard and Constanza for their translations.

Ever since completing my studies, I have had the opportunity to participate in and present at conferences, congresses and workshops – particularly important for me were the Nature Park Conference in the Burgenland, Austria (2007); the international conference on interpretive policy analysis in Kassel, Germany (2009); the ESRS Congress in Vaasa, Finland (2009); the International Conference on Landscape Economics, Vienna, Austria (2009); the Conference of Irish Geographers, Maynooth, Ireland (2010); the IGU conference *Wellbeing, Innovation and Spatial Transformation* in Groningen, the Netherlands (2010); the Master Class: *Actors – Regions – Identities: Constructing a regional identity and its impact on a region's inhabitants* with Prof. Paasi in Groningen, The Netherlands (2011); EUGEO in London, UK at the Royal Geographical Society (2011); the IGC Congress in Cologne, Germany (2012); the workshop on modeling the behavior of actors in Günne, Germany (2013), and numerous other events in Groningen and Oldenburg. Many thanks to the audience and chairs for their comments and inspiring contributions. I would also like to thank the journal and book editors and reviewers for their constructive feedback.

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Nora Mehnen, Groningen, October 2013

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Chapter 3 – Governance in protected areas – current state of research and existing research gaps.
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Chapter 4 – The Delphi method as a useful tool to study governance and protected areas?
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Chapter 6 – Actor involvement in protected landscapes – evidence from the Peak District National Park, UK.
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Appendix IV- Wer kennt den Begriff „Großschutzgebiet“? Deutschsprachige Fachtermini als Gefahr für den internationalen Wissenschaftsdiskurs – ein Essay.
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Chapter 1 Introduction



Nature Park Steirische Eisenwurzen (A)

1. Introduction

1.1 Motivation

Nature protection policies have undergone increasing differentiation over the last few years (Andersen & Loefflerink, 1997). They have a central role in shaping the state of our environment (EEA, 2012a). Also new changes in nature protection policies on the one hand and in regional EU policies on the other, for example in EU cohesion policy and the common agricultural policy, will have an impact on protected area policy and on the management of these areas. The focus thereby is nowadays on cooperation of various actors. In EU documents this is often called multi-level governance. The EU recognizes that geography matters and that regions, and also protected landscapes, are heterogeneous. Hence, it is crucial to consider country specific structural contexts, but also the new developments in European policy. Although protected areas have long been acknowledged as cornerstones of nature protection policies (Lopoukhine et al., 2012), every country has developed its own national protected area classification system, comprising of different kinds of landscapes and ecosystems protected by law, by contracts or by certificates. Therefore, the International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN)¹ has created an internationally recognized classification system of six categories, to make protected areas more comparable and transparent. These categories classify protected areas based on their management objectives, ranging from strict nature reserves (IUCN category Ia) to protected areas with sustainable use of natural resources (IUCN category VI). The gradation of naturalness from I to VI is more complicated. Category V areas in this system are landscapes with the fewest natural conditions (see Figure 1.1). They have been and continue to be shaped by human management, often over years, and which retain and often develop important natural, aesthetic, spiritual and cultural values (Dudley, 2009).

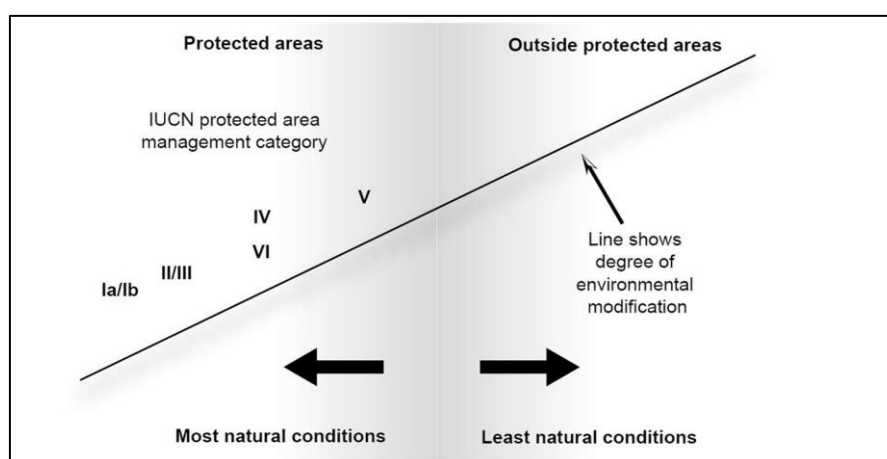


Figure 1.1: Naturalness in the IUCN categories (Source: Dudley, 2008)

An essay included in this thesis elaborates on the terms used internationally (see Appendix IV). In this thesis I wish to examine whether IUCN category V protected landscapes are the ‘great hope’ of

¹ For more about the IUCN and its classification system, see for example Chapters 4, 5 and 8; and Dudley, 2008.

European area protection policies. ‘Hope’ refers to the fact that we are dealing with the recognition and realization of the fact that in Europe, *use* and *protection* must and can be integrated. Category V expressly recognises this opportunity – this is our ‘hope’. In other words, in Europe there are hardly any areas left which are not influenced by humans and where humans do not play a decisive role in the development of nature. However, in recent years there has been increasing pressure for protected areas to involve multiple actors and to take their different interests into account. Park authorities have to recognize that actors who get involved will want influence over and to benefit from decision-making.

The focus of this thesis is on the main challenges facing the governance of protected landscapes and on actor involvement. Category V now dominates conservation efforts in Europe, at least in terms of area involved, with 52% of protected areas being so designated (Dudley, 2009; see Figure 1.2). The figure only provides a global overview of the spatial distribution of the various categories of area. Strictly protected areas, such as the 14 IUCN category II national parks in Germany, are not shown in a detail.

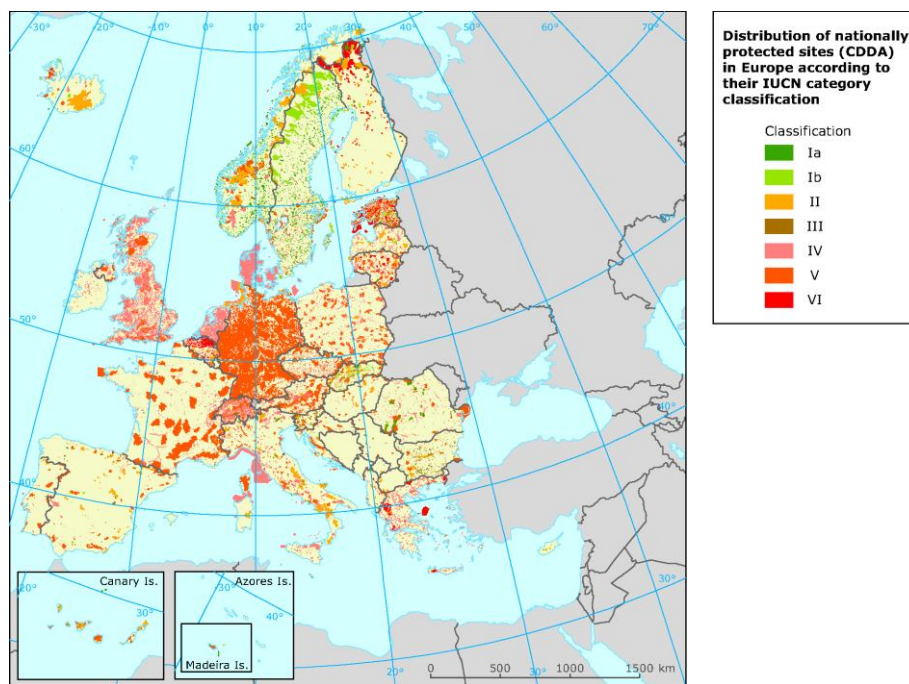


Figure 1.2: Distribution of nationally protected areas (CDDA) in Europe according to their IUCN category classification (Source: EEA, 2012b)

Before I introduce European nature policy in more detail, I would like to present a conceptualization of related terms and concepts, such as protected area, landscape, cultural landscape, protected landscape and governance, which influenced the direction the study took and the literature I focused on (see also Chapter 3).

The term *protected area* as used in this thesis is understood broadly and in accordance with the IUCN definition, which defines protected area as: ‘a clearly defined geographical space, recognised, dedicated and managed, through legal or other effective means, to achieve the long-term conservation of nature with associated ecosystem services and cultural values’ (Dudley, 2008, 8). The European Landscape Convention (2000) 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’. The term *cultural landscape* has a long tradition and the most prominent definition was produced by the American geographer C.O. Sauer (1963, 343): ‘A cultural landscape is fashioned from a natural landscape by a culture group. Culture is the agent, the natural area is the medium. The cultural landscape the result’. The IUCN defines *protected landscape/seascape* (IUCN category V) as ‘a protected area where the interaction of people and nature over time has produced an area of distinct character with significant ecological, biological, cultural and scenic value: and where safeguarding the integrity of this interaction is vital to protecting and sustaining the area and its associated nature conservation and other values’ (Dudley, 2008, 20). Hence, protected landscapes aim to preserve the traditional interaction between man and nature. Protection and use do not exclude each other in these areas. IUCN category V includes, for example, Areas of Outstanding Natural Beauty (UK), the English National Parks, Landscape Protection Areas (A, D and H), Protected by Conservation Order (DK), etc. (see also www.protectedplanet.net). The Netherlands is a specific case, because not all protected areas are designated within the IUCN classification system. *Nationale Landschappen* (National Landscapes), for instance, at first glance would fit into IUCN category V, but do not. Protected areas in the Netherlands are classified as IUCN category II (21 national parks), category III (9 nature conservation law areas) or as category IV (1956 habitat/species management areas/nature reserves) (www.protectedplanet.net). The 20 *Nationale Landschappen* are landscapes of international importance because they are either unique to the Netherlands or represent landscape features typical of the Netherlands. The IUCN system of protected areas classification is a voluntary system and its application is a decision of the management authority (which for *Nationale Landschappen* is the relevant province in cooperation with the national government). Janssen (2009a) states that the designation of the *Nationale Landschappen* represents the latest attempt to introduce IUCN Category V protected areas into the Netherlands. However, to date they have not been classified as IUCN Category V areas and it is unlikely that they will be classified as such soon. He also states that ‘the Dutch National Landscapes do not fully acknowledge the new conservation paradigm that protected landscapes combine social, economic and ecological objectives’. It is possible that the decision not to apply the IUCN category is because the main aim behind *Nationale Landschappen* is not to be protected areas in the traditional sense. They have been created primarily with the goal of improving the quality of the countryside for users, not to conserve biodiversity.

Indeed, their management is characterized by ‘development’ rather than ‘conservation’, which is a crucial distinction. It should also be remembered that, politically, it would have been impossible to designate national landscapes if these were intended to have the character of protected areas (Statement Dr Graham Bennett²). Janssen (2009a, 45) argues that ‘British National Parks, French *Parcs Naturels Regionaux* and German nature parks serve a far wider set of social, economic and ecological purposes, including for example addressing quality of life, climate change, conserving biodiversity and protecting cultural heritage’. He recommends redesigning *Nationale Landschappen* to be ‘flagships’ or ‘models’ of state policy on sustainable countryside management which integrate disparate sectors (nature, agriculture, recreation, water) and actors (public, market parties, state and civil society) (2009b). I support Janssens’ recommendations that the *Nationale Landschappen* in the Netherlands need a more durable status. The official designation as an IUCN Category V area would be a great benefit. As people recognize the advantages of the protected status, public support for the *Nationale Landschappen* would probably increase.

Nature parks and regional nature parks, which belong to the IUCN category V, are extremely interesting, because they were long overlooked, underestimated or interpreted unilaterally as recreational areas. However, the number of protected landscapes and particularly nature parks in Europe continues to increase (Mose, 2007).

My hypothesis is that once areas like these fulfil their goals and requirements, they could be regarded as models for the way Europe’s rural areas are dealt with in future. Land in Europe is so densely populated or used for so many other functions that in many places there is no scope for pure nature protection; there is always some sort of human use and influence as well.

Today, UNESCO *biosphere reserves* are recognized as model regions for sustainable development (German MAB National Committee, 2005). They protect biodiversity, support regional marketing and promote low-impact tourism and innovative, environmentally friendly agriculture. German nature parks now have a similar function. The IUCN states that ‘the need to make sure that some places remain in broadly their natural condition is as great as ever – but it is not enough. Protected areas should also include those lived-in, humanized landscapes where people and nature live in some kind of balance. These places and the communities that live in them are important in themselves and for the lessons that they teach us about sustainable living’ (Phillips, 2002, XV).

The term governance is intensively elaborated on in Chapter 3. Therefore, here I will merely introduce the main definition from the Institute on Governance and present the important achievements so far. The Institute on Governance (2002) defines governance as ‘the interactions among processes, and traditions that determine how power is exercised, how decisions are taken on

² Mr. Bennett is the Dutch contact person of the World Commission on Protected Areas and a board member of the IUCN’s Dutch National Committee.

issues of public and often private concern, and how citizens or other stakeholders have their say. Fundamentally, governance is about power, relationships, and accountability: who has influence, who decides, and how decision makers are held accountable. Governance may be used in different contexts – global, national and local, and social and institutional. Governance occurs wherever people organise themselves – formally and informally – to develop rules and relationships with each other in pursuing their objectives and goals’. At the 5th IUCN World Congress in Durban in 2003, the importance of governance in relation to protected areas was emphatically recognised. The Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD) highlights governance in its Programme of Work on Protected Areas.³ Some studies have dealt with the governance of protected areas. Important research was conducted by scholars such as Schliep and Stoll-Kleemann (2010), Thompson (2003 and 2005), Borrini-Feyerabend (2003), Borrini-Feyerabend et al. (2006), Fürst et al. (2006), Gailing and Keim (2006), Brenner and Job (2012). However, most of the research focuses on biosphere reserves or national parks. Only Gailing and Keim (2006) focused on a German nature park.⁴ Dearden et al. (2005) argue that ‘governance is now recognized as a critical aspect of effective conservation and is a prominent part of the Convention on Biological Diversity work program on protected areas’. Their survey only included IUCN categories I–III. Clearly, categories IV–VI have the potential to contribute to conservation, but also much greater variability in governance processes. Dearden et al. (2005) conclude that it would be useful to conduct a governance survey of these categories in the near future to build understanding of their challenges. A comparative study of IUCN category V areas in several countries has so far been missing. This thesis closes that gap.

1.2 History of nature protection and protected area protection policies in Europe

The European Union (EU) has a long history of experience of environmental policymaking, during which legal acts have been put in place and strategic paths have been defined. At first, policy focused on regulating technical standards, but the spectrum of policy instruments has expanded over the years to the extent that there now is a wide range of policy tools that can provide solutions to various and diverse problems (EEA, 2012a). Europe has multiple habitat types, which have a diversity of flora and fauna. The vast majority of European habitats have been shaped and managed by people for hundreds of years, resulting in a mixture of natural and semi-natural habitats.

While most of the 27 EU countries are unitary states, the majority of the selected case studies are located in federal states (e.g. Austria, Germany and the UK, France is a unitary state). The UK started the process of devolution (giving authority to its member states) in the 1990s (Jongman et

³ For more theoretical information on governance see Chapter 3. In the field of planning see also De Roo and Porter (2007), who propose a method of ‘actor-consulting’ and Woltjer (2000), who introduce the term ‘consensus planning’, which includes process-related quality demands such as transparency and legitimacy, but also substantive values and expert knowledge.

⁴ A summary of the studies can be found in Chapter 3.

al., n.d.). In unitary states the legislative and controlling power is allocated at the national level, whereas in some federal states – such as Austria or Germany – all power regarding nature conservation is devolved to the regions or federal states. In France, legislation with respect to nature conservation is focused on the creation of national and regional nature park wildlife protection programmes (Bischoff & Jongman, 1993).

The more recent history and development of European area protection can be briefly described as follows: from 1850 to 1909, small-scale natural monuments and nature conservation areas were designated. From 1909 to 1954 the first national parks were established in Sweden, Italy and France, which can be traced back to the national park movement in the US. The US served as a ‘model’ for later European adaptations. However, experience throughout Europe added weight to the idea that simple copies of the American original were impossible. Therefore, the next period (1954-1970) was characterized by the designation of numerous regional nature parks. There was then an additional designation wave of national parks (EEA, 2012b). Since the 1990s, protected landscapes with an integrative and linking character have become increasingly common: biosphere reserves and nature parks (Mose, 2007).

Figure 1.3 shows the development of the protected area designation (cumulative number and surface area) in 39 European countries. The protected surface area grows faster than the number of protected areas. This can either be due to the enlargement of existing protected areas or due to the new designation of larger protected areas.

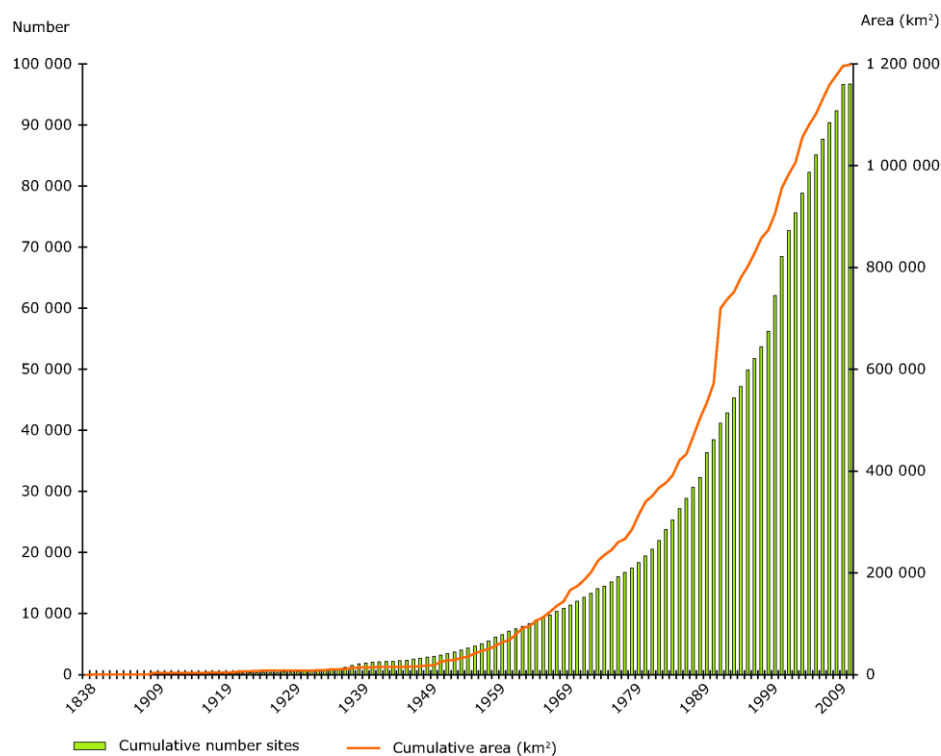


Figure 1.3: Cumulative number and surface area of protected areas in the 39 European countries (Source: EEA, 2012b)

It is necessary to distinguish more explicitly between strictly protected areas such as *national parks* and *protected landscapes* such as nature parks. In Europe's *national parks* and large nature reserves (except for the British national parks), nature is left to develop freely to a certain extent, and natural evolution can continue more or less unhindered. Economic development other than tourism is generally forbidden. *Protected landscapes*, especially regional nature parks, are cultural landscapes which have been shaped over hundreds of years. Protected landscapes, especially nature parks, have different emphases and key aspects in Europe. Areas in Italy, Spain, Slovenia, Croatia and former eastern Germany have a classic nature protection emphasis. In western Germany and in Great Britain they focus more on recreation and tourism. In France, Luxembourg, Belgium, Austria, Germany (from 2002) and Switzerland (from 2006) they are regarded as a 'motor for rural development' (Mose, 2007).

Today, expectations about the concrete use of protected landscapes for rural development cover a broad spectrum of potential achievements. They should preserve beautiful landscapes and endangered species (classical nature conservation areas), be instruments of regional development, areas for recreation and tourism, solutions for and/or avoidance of spatial use conflicts, and they should preserve ecosystem dynamics, strengthen regional identity (place-making) and preserve and advance the cultural landscape. They should also enhance the regional image (regional marketing) and strengthen the regional economy. A crucial expectation is that they are characterized by self-regulation and self-direction by local regional actors (governance) (VDN, 2005).

1.3 Actor involvement

The involvement of various actors and stakeholders in nature protection in general and in park management and governance in particular, has changed dramatically in recent years. Mose (2007) speaks of a paradigmatic change from static-conservative to dynamic-innovative European area protection policies. From the nineteenth century to 1960, protected areas were primarily run by central government, managed by scientists and natural resource experts, and led by specialists. They were managed for ecological purposes, and for visitors and tourists, without regard to local knowledge. They were more or less centrally planned and greatly concerned with general ecological goals (for example, to conserve specific species or habitats) without paying much attention to local conditions. Identical ecological blueprints were used in different areas. Today, protected areas are run by many different partners and managed by multi-skilled personnel, drawing on local knowledge (Phillips, 2003 and EEA, 2012b). Hence, public participation, stakeholder dialogues and actor-oriented management have received increasing attention in practice and research (see Reed, 2008; Stoll-Kleemann & Welp, 2006).

1.4 Success of protected areas

An analysis of the term *success* in the context of protected areas is necessary to this thesis. The objectives of protected areas have changed over time (a paradigmatic shift from static preservation to dynamic innovative strategies, see above), so a more differentiated view of protected area success is required today. A protected area is successful if it achieves general objectives – set, for example, by the IUCN for the relevant category – and if its local, specific (adapted to their ecological and socio-economic characteristics) self-defined targets are also achieved. The concrete formal objectives of the Nature Park Lauenburgische Seen, for instance, concern nature conservation and recreation (Ministerin für Natur und Umwelt Schleswig-Holstein, 1995). The protection objective is to protect the natural environment for a variety of plant and animal life, and to maintain the diversity, uniqueness and beauty of the landscape. The development objective is to improve or restore the protection of nature and landscape and recreation in nature and landscape through restoration, provision of recreational facilities and implementation of nature protection and landscape conservation measures. Recreation measures such as trail management are also expected to help ensure that protected areas remain undisturbed (Ministerin für Natur und Umwelt Schleswig-Holstein, 1995).

Stoll-Kleemann and Bertzky (2008, 355 ff) argue that ‘a protected area is successful if the defined goals will be achieved and the status of the achieved objectives can be preserved in the foreseeable future’ (see Stoll-Kleemann et al., 2006). Protected landscapes (IUCN Category V) have the objective of preserving the traditional interaction between man and nature. In these areas protection and use are not mutually exclusive; passive and active achievement of the objectives and goals are possible, and these goals have ecological and socioeconomic components.

Stoll-Kleemann and Bertzky (2008, 355ff) categorize protected area success, based on expert interviews, as follows:

- Implementation of nature conservation objectives (D1)
- Implementation of development objectives of the local population (D2)
- Implementation of nature conservation and development objectives (D3)
- Implementation of an effective protected area management (D4)
- Others (D5)

Nearly half of all respondents defined protected area success as a state of balance between the achievement of conservation objectives and local sociopolitical and socioeconomic goals. Stoll-Kleemann and Bertzky (2008) assume that a large proportion of respondents whose answers were assigned to the category D3, attributed successful implementation to a balance between conservation and development objectives in effective protected area management. Likewise, the current definition of effective protected area management overlaps in large parts with D3. In the

interests of strict accuracy, Stoll-Kleemann and Bertzky present the two categories separately. ‘Others’ (D5) catches responses which could not be assigned to any of the other categories. The success of protected areas depends on the appropriateness of their governance and management systems (e.g. organizational structure, adaptive planning tools) with regard to the local context, and on broader economic and governance issues.⁵ Stoll-Kleemann and Bertzky (2008, 359) differentiate factors influencing the success or failure of protected areas into three categories: management activities, governance factors and external threats. Stoll-Kleemann (2006, 76) states that ‘the probability of successful biodiversity protection and sustainable use is much higher if sound protected area management meets enabling governance conditions at local and regional levels’.

1.5 Sound management and good governance

Sound protected area management, provided by trained professionals, and citizen support ensure the maintenance of protected areas and anchor the success of nature conservation in the future. Protected area professionals are important for strengthening the management of protected areas and the adjacent land and balancing multiple interests. A comprehensive understanding of good governance goes beyond the actions of governments and involves the relationship with state and non-state actors: good governance is used here in the context of protected areas.⁶ After elaborating on governance and stakeholder involvement, I will now turn to the concrete research aim, research questions and research design

1.6 Research aim, research questions and research design

This study aims in particular at the comparison of protected landscape concepts, their governance structures and their implementation and conversion in Europe. The more specific aspects of how different actors with different conceptions and ideas are taken into account will be analysed on the basis of empirical case studies. The focus will be on the situation in Germany, Austria, the UK and France.⁷ Because no areas in the Netherlands are officially designated as IUCN category V, no case study was carried out here (see p. 4ff). I opted for case studies because there has been only little research at the concrete level of individual parks. Such studies require a lot of resources (such as people, finance and time) but provide great opportunities (see Yin, 2003; Scholz & Tietje, 2002).

⁵ Hammer & Siegrist (2008) for example, identified 14 success factors for sustainable tourism management in protected areas in the Alps. The 14 factors were grouped into the following three categories: 1. general conditions of protected area tourism, 2. cooperation between the actors involved, and 3. design of tourism services and products.

⁶ The ICCA Consortium (ICCAs: Indigenous Peoples’ and Community Conserved Territory or Area) and the IUCN Global Protected Areas Programme, Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit (GIZ), IUCN Commission on Environmental Economic and Social Policy (CEESP), the IUCN World Commission on Protected Areas (WCPA) and the Secretariat of the Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD) published a draft document ‘Governance of protected areas – from understanding to action’, which propose a set of broad principles for good governance of protected areas.

⁷ The reasons for selecting the case study areas are explained in Chapters 2, 5, 6 and 7.

This thesis explicitly considers the ideas and role of the different park users, in line with the dynamic-innovative approach. The tension between the goal of preserving and increasing biodiversity on the one hand, and human use for agriculture, recreation, tourism, hunting and residential use, on the other, is central. The opportunities to exploit the parks as vehicles for regional development can be derived from this tension.

The main research question is:

What is the role of network-like forms of cooperation between national, private and civic sector actors in processing joint regional development tasks (regional governance) in protected landscapes?

Other research questions are:

- Which actors are represented in protected landscapes and how do they cooperate?
- Which role do the different local-regional actors play?
- How should actors be involved to contribute to the success of the protected landscape?
- Can protected landscapes thereby become the ‘great hope’ of European area protection policies?

The research design consists of three different steps or modules: a secondary data analysis, case studies and the final analysis and comparison, which result in recommendations (see Chapter 2). My work is primarily concerned with the analysis of actor constellations and the modelling of the behaviour of actors in protected landscape governance processes. However, the research results can be applied to other rural areas that have the same objectives and are facing the same challenges.

1.7 Structure of this book

This book comprises five articles that all deal with governance of protected areas. These articles were written as independent publications for various journals; consequently, some overlap between them could not be avoided (particularly in Chapters 4-8). The thesis can be divided into three parts: first, an introductory part consisting of Chapters 1, 2 and 3; second, the five articles (Chapters 4, 5, 6, 7 and 8); and third, a concluding part consisting of Chapter 9 (see Figure 1.4). A glossary with an clarification of key terms, a list with the Delphi experts, the interview guideline and the essay are included as appendices.

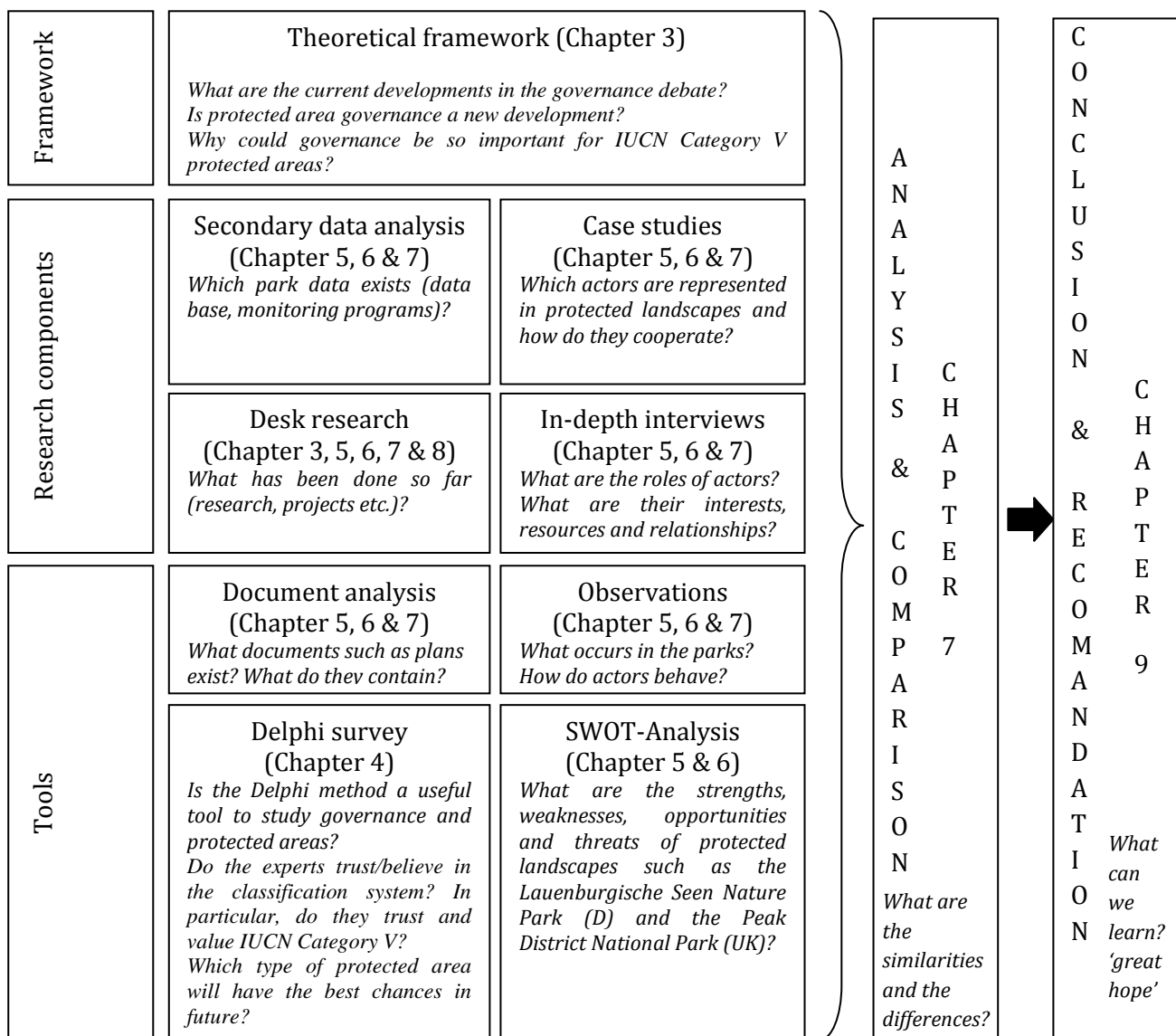


Figure 1.4: Structure of the book, research design and exemplary research questions

Chapter 2 explains the methods and reflects on their use. The value of a case study strategy and the value of a comparative perspective are central. The criteria for the selection of the case studies are explained. **Chapter 3** is based on a conference paper, which focuses on the theoretical framework. Differences and similarities between Urban Governance, Regional Governance, Rural Governance, Landscape Governance, Environmental Governance and Protected Area Governance are clarified. The present state of research is elaborated in this chapter. The next chapter (**Chapter 4**) incorporates a paper about the Delphi survey as a suitable research method. There are different protected area concepts, all with distinctive advantages and disadvantages. In this study we used the Delphi method to assemble information from different experts in Europe. The purpose of this study was to better understand the protected area debate and to gain knowledge about possible case studies. **Chapter 5** and **Chapter 6** present the case studies. Chapter 5 covers a German nature park, providing an overview of the relationship between sense of place and the governance of nature

parks. Chapter 6 addresses the Peak District National Park, in the UK. Both chapters address the research questions on which actors are represented in protected landscapes, how they cooperate and which role the various local-regional actors play within the concept of ‘protected landscape’. **Chapter 7** is a paper on the various case studies. It provides an analysis of regional governance processes in four different areas in the European Union. All of them are classified as IUCN-Category V areas – protected landscapes. This chapter addresses the question on whether there are network-like forms of cooperation between national, private and civic sector actors in the delivery of joint regional development tasks (regional governance) in protected landscapes. The basis of **Chapter 8** is drawn from a chapter previously published in a book on the economic value of landscapes and entitled ‘Governance of protected landscapes and its implications for economic evaluation’. The last chapter, **Chapter 9**, sets out the general discussion and conclusion of this thesis. Future strategies for protected landscapes are described and recommendations and good practice are presented. Whether protected landscapes are to become the ‘great hope’ of European area protection policies is discussed. A final section explores suggestions and advice for further research and proposes a typology for the governance of European protected landscapes.

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Chapter 2 Methodology



Nature Park Lauenburgische Seen (D)

2. Methodology

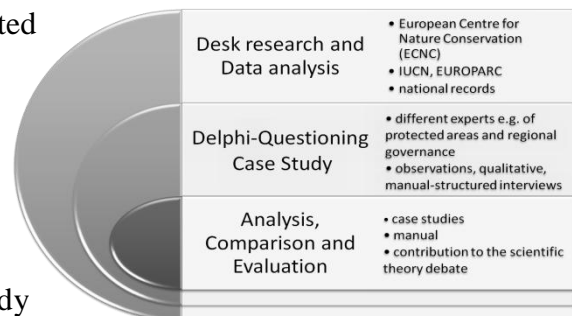
2.1 Methods

The methodological framework of the research project is supplied by a mixture of a number of methods. Desk research and data analysis are the main methods to begin with to provide an overview of the current situation of protected areas in Europe. Data are available from different sources: European Centre for Nature Conservation (ECNC), IUCN, national records and the World Database on Protected Areas.

The case-study method, which is recognised as a suitable technology for qualitative social research, will be used to verify the results from the Delphi survey and the desk research. The descriptions of work are thus based on observations and, in addition, on the empirical reports from various actors gained from qualitative, structured interviews conducted during extended visits to the case-study areas (Atteslander, 2000; Yin, 2009).

The project is structured into three modules with different work content (see the illustration below).

For the first module, data was gathered and protected areas in Europe were analysed, compared, determined and selected. The aim of this first module was the representation of the current state of protected landscapes. The second module consists of case studies. The analysis and evaluation of the case study



results, the reports, and their contribution to the scientific theory debate are the central emphasis of the third module.

Qualitative research methods were deemed appropriate for the study of the governance of protected areas for several reasons. First, because regional governance is related to interpreting, understanding and experiencing communication and cooperation structures. There is no one 'right answer' to the research questions and the data collected will be based on people's interpretations and perceptions. Second, since the concept of governance in protected landscapes is complex, a flexible, open-ended research approach was required. Finally, context, complexity and detail play important roles in exploring the particular situations at each case-study site.

A multiple case study design approach was used. The need for case studies arises from the desire to understand complex social phenomena (Yin, 2009). They are the preferred strategy when 'how' or 'why' questions are posed, when the investigator has little control over events, and when the focus is on a contemporary phenomenon within some real-life context. Multiple case studies allowed me to compare different cases and draw cross-case conclusions (Yin, 2009).

2.2 Triangulation

Triangulation is the use of multiple methods, theories and data sources – and often also different researchers – to overcome the intrinsic bias that often occurs from using single-method, single-theory and single-research studies (Denzin, 1989; Liamputtong & Ezzy, 2007). Hence, triangulation allows the researcher to develop a complex picture of the studied phenomenon.

As stated before, four different types of triangulation can be differentiated: data source triangulation (involves the use of multiple information sources, like information from different actors and from written notes and files), methods triangulation (involves the use of multiple research methodologies like interviews, participation, observation, documentary analysis or focus groups), researcher triangulation (involves the inclusion of a variety of researchers) and theory triangulation (involves drawing on multiple theoretical perspectives to new insights, such as postmodernism and feminism) (Liamputtong & Ezzy, 2007). Data source triangulation, methods triangulation and limited theory triangulation was used. Researcher triangulation was not possible due to staffing limitations.

2.3 Desk research

Desk research (sometimes known as secondary data or secondary research) involves gathering existing data from internal sources, governmental and non-governmental publications, free access data on the internet, professional newspapers and magazines, and in reports and commercial databases, to name but a few. Carrying out an initial desk research stage is strongly recommended to gain background knowledge of a subject and to obtain useful leads that will help to get the maximum information for the research (Jackson, 1994). Desk research was used to gather information about protected areas at an early stage of the project and in planning for the case study research. Desk research was also used to prepare the Delphi survey questionnaires.

Table 2.1: Advantages and disadvantages of desk research/secondary research (Stewart & Kamins, 1993)

Advantages	Disadvantages
Inexpensive	Results may be out of date
Time-effective	Results may be incorrect
Large amounts of information can be retrieved very quickly	The amount of information available may be very limited

2.4 Delphi survey

The Delphi method (also called Delphi study or Delphi questioning) is a systematic, interactive forecasting method which relies on a panel of independent experts. The carefully selected experts answer questionnaires in two or more rounds. After each round, a facilitator provides an anonymous

summary of the experts' forecasts from the previous round, as well as the reasons they provided for their judgments. Accordingly, participants are encouraged to revise their earlier answers in light of the replies of other members from the group. Finally, the process is stopped after a pre-defined stop criterion (e.g. number of rounds, achievement of consensus and stability of results; see Chapter 4).

I applied the Delphi method to gather information about the current scientific knowledge on protected areas and governance. The aim was also to select possible case study areas, based on the experts' recommendations.

2.5 Case studies

Case studies are multi-perspective analyses, which means that the researcher not only considers the perspective of the actor, but also of the relevant groups of actors and the interaction between them.

The case studies include the following different working steps and methods:

- Desk research, Documentary analysis
- Observations
- Analyses: SWOT Analysis, Stakeholder Analysis, Network Analysis
- Qualitative structured interviews with actors from the three different sectors (State, Economy and Civil society)

The most common definition of the case study methodology was developed by Robert K. Yin (1984), who defines the case-study research method as an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, where the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident, and in which multiple sources of evidence are used (see also Soy, 1997).

Scale/level of case studies

In my research, the scale and level of the case studies selected was determined by the protected area chosen and the relevant actors. Different European protected landscapes were compared. To uncover the regional governance processes in protected landscapes, a researcher needs to develop an understanding from within, but also from an outsider's perspective.

The strength of my study lies in the cross-national comparison it provides, but it is important to note only four cases are compared, and we cannot therefore generalize about all the protected landscapes in the case-study countries (Nadin & Stead, forthcoming; Tress et. al., 2005; Hajer & Wagenaar, 2003). However, only in a comparison can you evaluate similarities and differences, and can you learn to classify and convey the case-study characteristics.

Case study methodology

The history of case-study research is marked by periods of intense use and periods of disuse. The earliest use of this form of research can be traced to France, where the sociologist Le Play (1855) used case studies as a traditional research methodology (Tellis, 1997). Later, case studies were also used in cultural anthropology (see Lévi-Strauss, 1955). In the USA the case-study method was mainly used by the Chicago School (Hamel et al., 1993). Case studies can differ in their characteristics (see Table 2.2).

Table 2.2: Characteristics of case studies (Scholz & Tietje, 2002)

<i>Dimensions</i>	<i>Classification</i>
Design	Holistic or embedded Single case or multiple case
Motivation	Intrinsic or instrumental
Epistemological status	Exploratory, descriptive or explanatory
Purpose	Research, teaching or action/application
Data	Qualitative or quantitative
Format	Highly structured, short vignettes Unstructured or grounded in theory
Synthesis	Informal, empathetic or intuitive Formative or method driven

The most popular distinction is between exploratory, descriptive and explanatory case studies (Yin, 2009). Our study is descriptive and explanatory.

There are a number of misunderstandings about case-study research, such as the conviction that case studies are subjective and therefore not scientific, that it is often difficult to develop general propositions and theories on the basis of specific case studies, and that conclusions cannot be generalized to a broader population on the basis of an individual case and therefore a case study cannot contribute to scientific development (Flyvberg, 2006). The definite strengths of case studies are that they enable multiple perspectives and exploration of the dynamics of change, and offer flexibility in focus, methods and the depth of interpretation in context adopted.

Criteria for selecting case studies

I selected my case studies from a database of existing protected areas in Europe, including all IUCN designated and undesignated protected areas. I also asked the experts during the Delphi survey about other potential protected areas for fieldwork.

The case studies are used to derive hypotheses, but difficulties arise in developing generalized statements. These will be most reliable if the case studies are very similar, and differ only in the few important features analysed. Finding similarity in complex cases such as those studied is difficult, but some basic common features can be identified.

1) All areas should share the following characteristics:

- Protection status: the area should be designated as an IUCN Category V area, or meet its the definition.
- Process time: the area should have been in existence since 2000, there should be formal participation possibilities available and early developments towards regional governance approaches.

2) Characteristics which should/could be different:

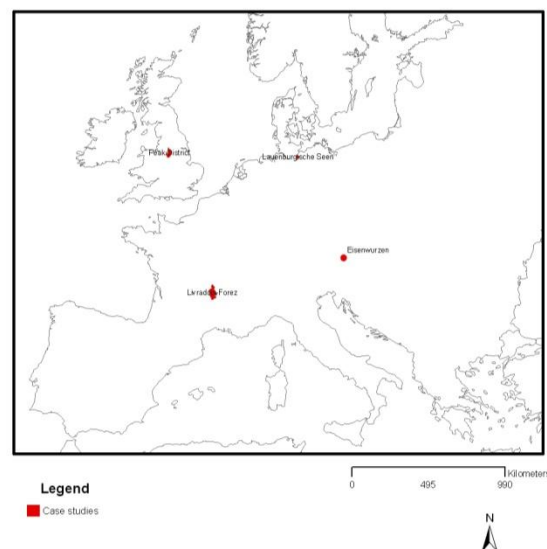
- Spatial location (different institutional frameworks and planning cultures).
- Initiation and organization of the protected landscape and other participatory structures, and governance arrangements (institutional frameworks or process dynamics).

3) Certain pragmatic characteristics which also need to be present:

- Research on the area exists and is available.
- Stakeholders are open to scientific cooperation.

Executing and analyzing case studies

The case studies were conducted in four protected landscapes in selected countries in Europe.



Map 2.1: Selected case studies

A case study often employs a number of techniques for gathering information: I used semi-structured interviews, stakeholder analysis, network analysis, documentary analysis and SWOT

analysis. I started the data analysis while conducting the case studies to keep abreast of the data and avoid getting lost.

In-depth interviews

The interviews were used for data collection and were important sources for the assessment and analysis of the governance structures and processes of the relevant protected landscape.

Stakeholder analysis

A stakeholder is any person or organization who can be positively or negatively impacted by, or cause an impact on, the actions related to the protected landscape.

Stakeholder analysis is a form of analysis that aims to identify the stakeholders likely to be affected by the activities and outcomes of a given project, and to assess how those stakeholders are likely to be impacted by this project. Stakeholder analysis can also be applied to protected areas (Rastogi et al., 2011). Stakeholder analysis aims to develop cooperation between stakeholders and, ultimately, to assure a successful outcome for a project. A stakeholder analysis is performed at the start of new projects or when there is a need to clarify the consequences of envisaged changes, usually in connection with organizational changes. It is important to identify all stakeholders, to assess their success criteria and translate this into quality goals.

SWOT analysis

SWOT analysis is a strategic planning method used to evaluate the Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats involved in a project or in a business venture. It involves specifying the objective of the business venture or project and identifying the internal and external factors that will aid or hinder achieving that objective. The technique is credited to Albert Humphrey, who led a research project at Stanford University in the 1960s and 1970s using data from Fortune 500 companies. Recently, it has been applied to regions in general (Karppi et al., 2001) and protected areas in particular (Fritz-Vietta et al., 2008; Schliep & Stoll-Kleemann, 2010).

Network analysis

Network analysis is the mapping and measuring of relationships and flows between people, groups, organizations and other information or knowledge-processing entities. The nodes in a network are people and groups, while the links show relationships or flows between the nodes. Network analysis provides a visual and a mathematical analysis of human relationships. There are several types of visual illustration of relationships, for example a matrix, a graph or a list. I used a different

approach to visualize the actors in the case study areas, following Brenner and Job (2012), because I wanted to show their interests and their resources rather than their connections (see Chapter 7).

Data analysis

Interview data was analysed through summarizing each interview using categories with subheadings and specific details or examples related by the participants, and through the comparison and linking of the categories within and between interviews (see Crang, 1997; Robinson, 1998). Accordingly, I made a short summary of each interview and created an Excel table of all the case-study information.

My work was not primarily about the personal feelings, motives and beliefs of the actors, but rather their functions and related interests. I therefore chose the methodological approach performed.

2.6 Reflection – validity, reliability and subjectivity

Validity refers to the best available approximation of the truth of propositions. There are two types of validity according to Campbell & Stanley (1963). Internal validity refers to the approximate validity with which we infer that a relationship between two variables is causal. External validity refers to the approximate validity with which we can infer that the presumed causal relationship can be generalized to and across alternate measures of cause and effect and across different types of persons, settings and times. Although validity, that is internal and external validity, is developed in the context of quantitative research, to ensure compatibility, people still use the same terms for qualitative research but not necessarily with the same interpretations.

In qualitative research, internal validity is affected by qualitative research designs, and external validity is related to the extension of qualitative findings.

Qualitative research design validity addresses the following questions: do researchers actually observe what they think they observe? Do researchers actually hear the meanings that they think they hear? Thus, the internal validity of qualitative research is the degree to which the interpretations and concepts have mutual meanings for the participants and the researcher.

Internal validity concerns the accuracy of the results. Results could be inaccurate if samples are not selected randomly. External validity concerns the generalizability of the findings to the population. Within the qualitative research paradigm, external validity is replaced by the concept of transferability. Transferability is the ability of research results to transfer to situations with similar parameters, populations and characteristics (Golafshani, 2003). Our results can be transferred to other protected landscapes and other rural areas, which have the same characteristics.

Quality of research – reliability

Although the term ‘reliability’ is a concept used for testing or evaluating quantitative research, the idea is used also in other kinds of research. If the idea of testing is regarded as a means of information elicitation, then the most important test of any qualitative study is its quality. A good qualitative study can help to ‘understand a situation that would otherwise be enigmatic or confusing’ (Eisner, 1991, 58). We therefore distinguish the meaning of the concept of quality in a qualitative study, which has the purpose of ‘generating understanding’ (Stenbacka, 2001, 551), from the sense of reliability, which evaluates quality in a quantitative study, with the ‘purpose of explaining’. According to Stenbacka (2001) ‘the concept of reliability is even misleading in qualitative research. If a qualitative study is discussed with reliability as a criterion, the consequence is rather that the study is no good’ (552).

On the other hand, Patton (2001) states that validity and reliability are factors which every qualitative researcher should be concerned about when designing a study, analysing its results and judging its quality. For example, while the terms reliability and validity are essential criteria for quality in quantitative paradigms, in qualitative paradigms the related terms of credibility, neutrality or confirmability, consistency or dependability, and applicability or transferability are essential criteria of quality (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). To align more closely to the term reliability in qualitative research, Lincoln and Guba (1985, p. 300) use ‘dependability’ in qualitative research, which closely corresponds to the notion of ‘reliability’ in quantitative research.

Subjectivity

Even though reliability is not exactly applicable in qualitative research, a different criterion, ‘disciplined subjectivity’ is proposed. Disciplined subjectivity is the researcher’s rigorous self-monitoring, continuous self-questioning and re-evaluation of all the phases of the research process. I was aware of my role as a researcher and my background, but for this research it was not the obstacle that it might have been in Eastern European countries, Asia or Africa.

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Chapter 3 Governance in protected areas – the current state of research and existing research gaps



Impressions from all four parks

3. Governance in protected areas – the current state of research and existing research gaps⁸

Abstract

In the last few years the discussion about governance in protected areas has become more and more important. This paper gives an overview of the current discussion and the recent state of research. In the current governance debate, protected area governance is becoming more significant. Main reasons for that are the changing role of the state, the pressure from different users and the increasing amount of protected areas. In IUCN (International Union for Conservation of Nature) Category V protected areas, especially in nature parks, different actors are important for the success of the park and the region as a whole. If a Nature Park functions simply as an area for recreation and tourism or if it could become an area for regional development depends mainly on “effective” governance. It is really important to involve actors from all three sectors (state, economy and civil society) in protected areas and we want to verify this assumption in further empirical research.

3.1 Introduction

The past years have shown increasingly rapid advances in the field of nature policy. There has been a progressive development of nonhierarchical structures and bottom-up decision making. Especially in the protected area debate a paradigmatic shift from a static-preservation to a dynamic approach has taken place (Mose, 2007).

Before we focus on Category V protected areas, we shortly introduce all categories. 1994 the IUCN⁹ has defined the following seven different categories of protected areas, which are still valid until now: Category Ia (Strict nature reserve), Category Ib (Wilderness area), Category II (National park), Category III (Natural monument or feature), Category IV (Habitat/species management area), Category V (Protected landscape/ Seascape) and Category VI (Protected area with sustainable use of natural resources) (IUCN, 1994; Dudley, 2008; www.iucn.org).

In this paper we use the term protected landscape equally to the term category V protected area, because almost all protected landscapes are classified as category V areas. Nature parks are a special type of category V areas.

Nature parks are protected landscape areas, which have developed through the interaction of man with nature. They have no or little wilderness. In Europe nature parks have slightly different names and meaning - e.g *Parco Naturale Regionale* in Italy, *Parc Naturel Régional* in France, *Park*

⁸ Chapter reprinted from: Mehnen, N., Mose, I. & Strijker, D. (2009): Governance in protected areas – current state of research and existing research gaps. First International Conference on Landscape Economics European Consortium for Landscape Economics, CEEP, July 2-4, 2009, Vienna, Austria. Book of papers. pp. 224–235.

⁹ The International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) was founded in 1948 as the International Union for the Protection of Nature (or IUPN) following an international conference in Fontainebleau, France. They define how protected area systems develop and how they are managed.

Natural in Spain and Portugal and *Naturpark* in Austria and Germany. In Switzerland they are called *Regionaler Naturpark* (Mose, 2007; <http://www.european-parks.org/index.php>).

Mainly protected landscapes (IUCN category V areas) combining different functions are in the focus of interest now. They are the places where people and nature meet. Furthermore they are often rich in biological and cultural diversity. Protected landscapes are protected areas based on the interactions of people and nature over time. Some of these landscapes could not even exist without the presence of people.

Since a few years the term governance has been used regarding protected areas and the term 'protected area governance' has been established (Borrini-Feyerabend, 2004; Dearden & Bennett, 2005; Fürst et al. 2006, Stoll-Kleemann et. al., 2006). A cornerstone was the Vth IUCN World Parks Congress in Durban 2003; since then the topic of governance has been applied also to protected areas. But a general discussion concerning governance in protected landscapes (IUCN category V) is still missing. With this paper we want to start this discussion and contribute to the general "governance in protected areas- debate".

"Governance" seems a fashionable term, which over the last years has become more and more important and is used in nearly every political and scientific research regarding regional development and nature conservation. However, there is still no common understanding of the term and a clear definition is missing. Furthermore, it is a complex term and it is used in different, complicated contexts and disciplines (Van Kersbergen & Van Waarden, 2001). The Dictionary of Human Geography (2000) describes Governance "as one of the keywords of anglophone social sciences especially in political theory, political sciences and human geography and differentiates two different broad uses of the term. The first use refers to the nature of organisation and the second one refers to the nature of the relationship between organisations (as networks or partnerships)". In simple terms "governance" does not mean much more than to coordinate, to govern, to control or to rule. Generally, governance deals with the question how social relations and interactions are coordinated. Apart from this general meaning of governance as "social coordination" (Mayntz, 1993), governance concerns the combination of different mechanisms of coordination and network-like structures involving different actors from the public and private sector. Pütz (2005) refers to an "almost inflation-like spread of the term governance" and relates it to the increasing discussion about new approaches and ideas in spatial planning and development about control, coordination and rules.

The description of governance processes refers to changing constellations of various actors as well as a changing role of political institutions, especially that of the state (Görg, 2007). According to Pierre (2000) what were previously indisputably roles of government are now increasingly seen as

more common, generic societal problems which can be resolved by political institutions but also by other actors.

Governance entails various approaches such as *corporate governance*, *multi-level governance*, *multi-actor governance*, *good governance*, *policy networks* and *public private partnerships*. Although the different governance concepts have some common characteristics e.g. the shift in policy practices from government (based on state institutions) to governance (based on different actors including state, economy and civil society) and the development towards an increasingly active involvement especially of non-state actors (Van Bommel, 2008).

Hence, the objective of this paper is to give an introduction to the theoretical, empirical and methodological implications of governance. In this paper we will briefly trace the evolution of the governance debate, we will describe the different governance terms and then turn to an examination of the ways protected areas governance occurs in empirical research. We conclude with a discussion of the current debate on protected area governance and the implications for our research in this field.

The three broad exploratory questions, which we want to address, are:

- What are the current developments in the governance debate?
- Is protected area governance a new development?
- Why could governance be so important for IUCN Category V protected areas?

3.2 Differences and similarities between Urban Governance, Regional Governance, Rural Governance and Environmental Governance and Protected Area Governance

Introduction

In consideration of the main contemporary trends (globalisation, regionalisation, integration etc.) governance processes have become very significant. In this context it is important to differentiate between government and governance. Both terms have certain characteristics in common but also some differences.

Governance can be referred to a changing role of the state – from top-down to bottom-up and involving non-state actors. There is an obvious distinctive shift from government to governance. While government focuses on autonomy of the central expert-guided government. Governance in contrast concentrates on interaction between different actors.

As we state above there is still no common understanding of the term and in fact a clear definition is missing. We want to present two general definitions of governance, one from the European Commission (2001) and the other from Berger (2003):

“Governance means rules, processes and behaviour that affect the way in which powers are exercised at European level, particularly as regards

openness, participation, accountability, effectiveness and coherence” (COMMISSION OF THE EUROPEAN COMMUNITIES, 2001).

“Generally, governance refers to the discussion of how to steer society and how to reach collective goals. As, however, governing the state and society is a contested process, the new perspective and pressures on traditional forms of government are at the heart of governance” (Berger, 2003).

The definition from the European Commission (2001) seems more general and Berger’s definition appears more political, which is quite interesting. Both definitions could be integrated Figure 3.1, which shows the different characteristics of governance.

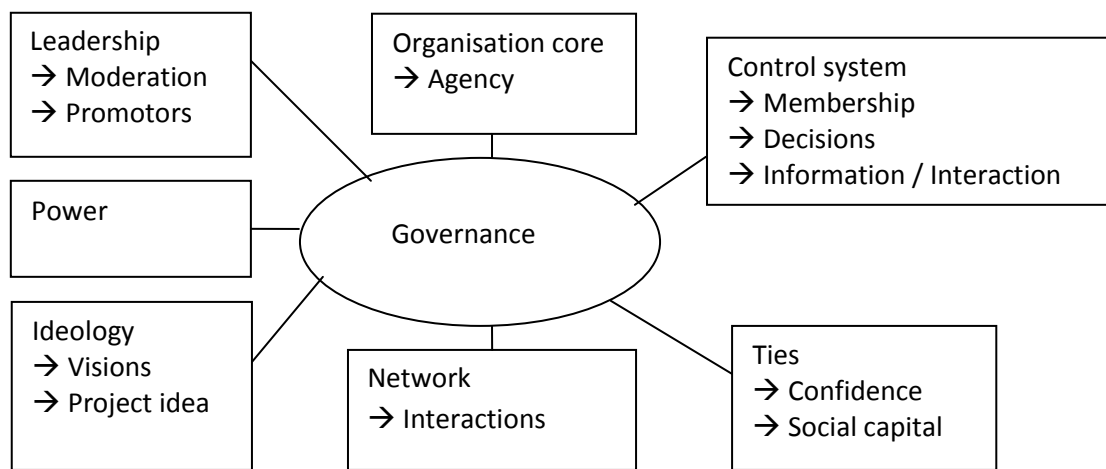


Figure 3.1: Characteristics and elements of governance (Fürst, 2005; slightly modified)

Since the increasing discussion about Governance, there has been a rapidly expanding field of different governance terms and governance fields (see figure 2). In this chapter we address the main important differences and similarities between selected terms of the governance debate, which are related to the protected area governance discussion (grey coloured in figure 3.2).

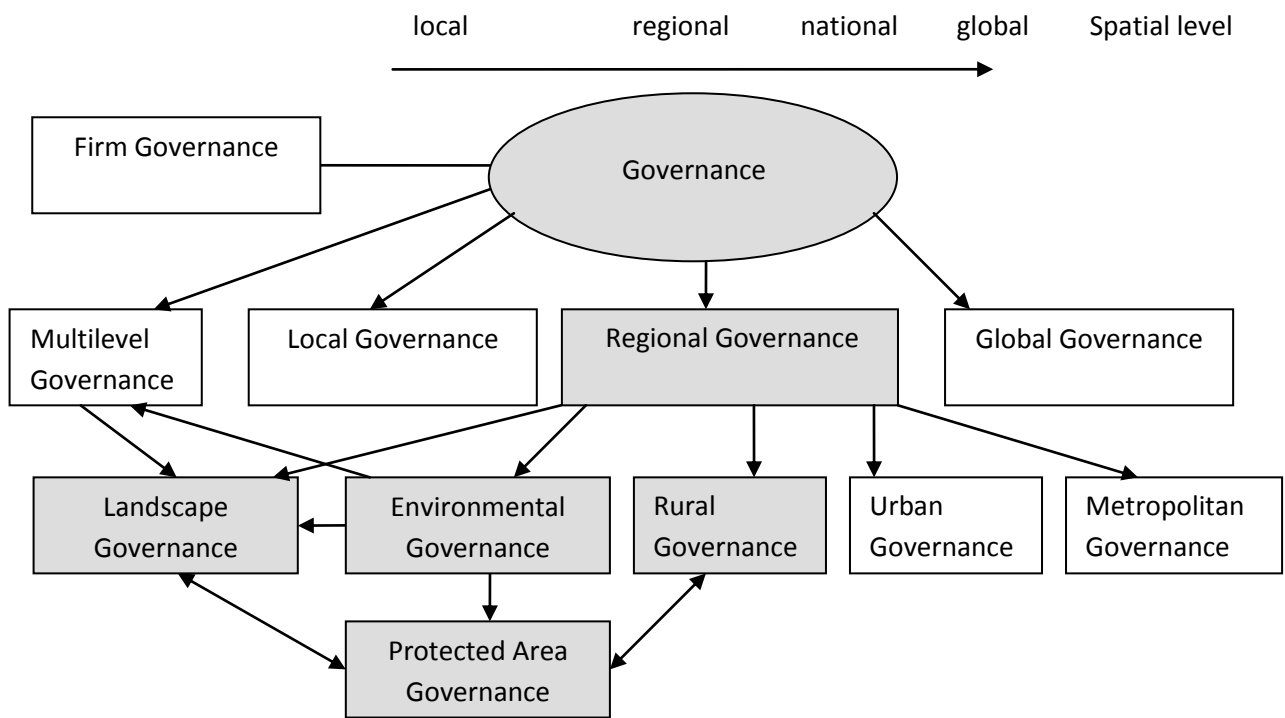


Figure 3.2: Governance types

Regional Governance

Like the term governance, regional governance became a buzzword in the social, political, economic and regional debate during the 1990's (MacLeod/Goldwin, 1999; Mayntz/Scharpf 1995). Regional governance includes metropolitan governance, rural or urban governance. It can be defined as a network-like collaboration of the state, the private sector and the civil society with the aim of coordinating actions of different actors and regulation processes of common problem solving at regional level (Pollermann, 2006; Fürst, 2005).

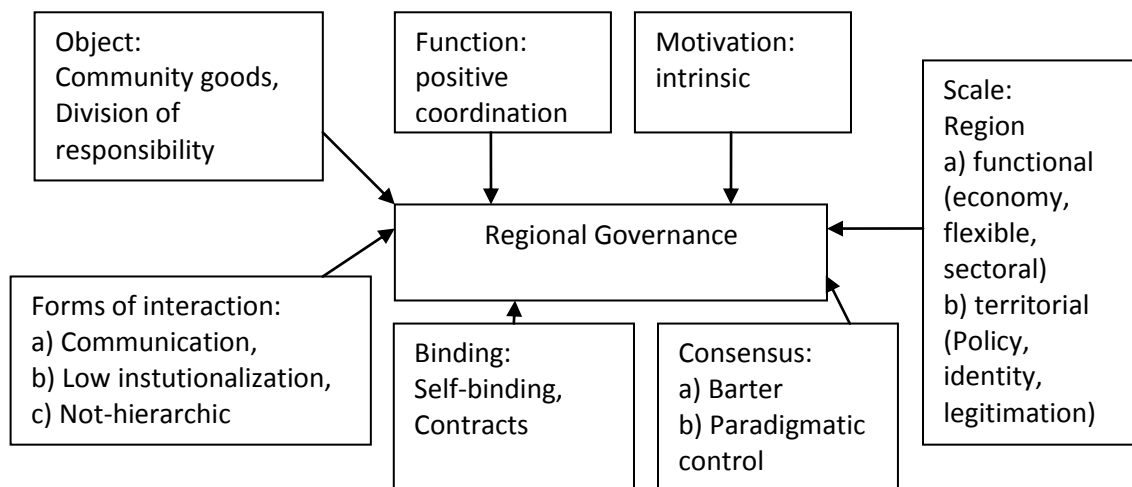


Figure 3.3: Functional elements of Regional Governance (Fürst, 2005)

In the regional governance discourse there is no agreement on the term, yet. It seems still unclear whether it is a concept, theory, paradigm, strategy, process or something totally different. Spatially,

regional governance refers to regions between the local and the national scale. Pütz (2005) introduces a new conceptualisation to empirically analyze regional governance. He states (2005) that regional governance incorporates and integrates regionally specific and network-like actor-constellations with state actors (politics, administration) and non-state-actors (Economy, civil society). It incorporates and integrates different modes of control: market, network and hierarchy, different areas/fields (political, functional, symbolical) and different scales (local, regional, national).

The work of Mayntz and Scharpf is of major influence in the German regional-governance-discourse, especially their concept of an actor-centered institutionalism (Mayntz/Scharpf 1995).

The actor-centered institutionalism is less a comprehensive, final theory than rather a pattern, a “search framework” or a research heuristic for the investigation of cooperative processes or collective decision-making processes. The term was shaped by Mayntz and Scharpf as an approach to policy analysis. With the actor-centered institutionalism past political decisions were examined, in order to develop with the gained knowledge problem solutions and institutions for a public interest-oriented policy.

The actor-centered institutionalism connects participant-centered and institution-centered approaches. Also important is Kooiman’s (2003) theory on governance. Kooiman’s governance theory regards interaction as its central category. With his conception of social-political or societal governance he developed approaches, in which he points out more than only the borders to government (Pütz, 2004). Region is suggested as a category of analysis in order to conceptualise regional governance as multi-scale-governance. Both, Mayntz and Scharpf’s as well as Kooiman’s approaches are more theoretical contributions than concepts which can be easily operationalised in empirical research. Two aspects are missing: both approaches do not incorporate a sense of place and space; furthermore, both approaches do not explain the interplay of their variables.

But, its origin has the regional governance debate in Great Britain. There was the regional level very weak organised, e. g. there were no administrative districts or regional associations. Since the 1990s the regional level has gained more attention and regional development agencies were chosen as a new approach. The debate about regional governance emerges (Rhodes, 1997). In the USA the debate about regional governance could not gain much ground. There the urban regime-concept was more dominant. One reason is that the local level is there really strong. However, there is an amount of Anglo-American governance literature (e.g. Lefevre, 1998; Jessop, 1998; MacLeod/Goldwin, 1999; Pierre, 2000). Only a few of them are also discussing regional governance.

The main assumption of governance is that all actors and stakeholders from the three different sectors have the same position and standing (see Figure 3.4). In our empirical research we want to

find out if that is really the case. Derzken (2008) clarifies that in some situations local actors cannot function as a professional key stakeholder.

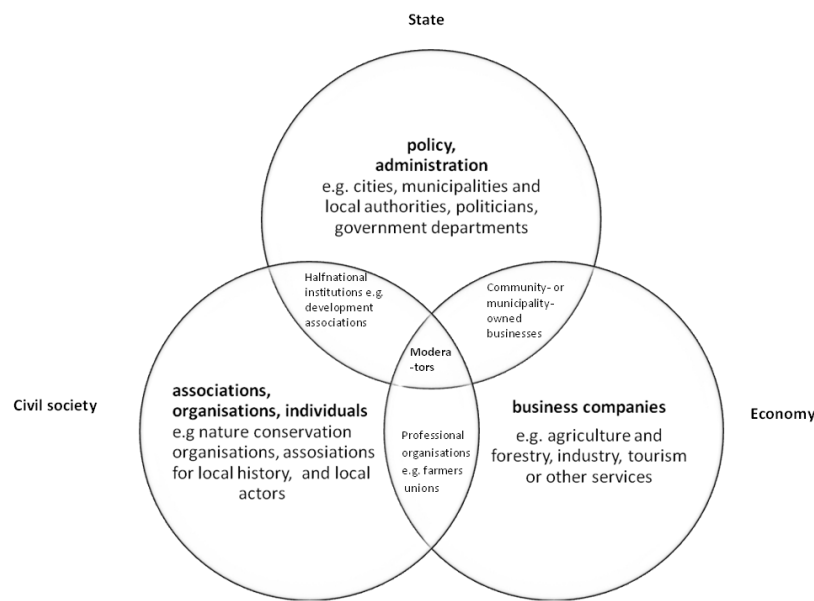


Figure 3.4: Actors differentiated by the sectors ‘state’, ‘Economy’ and ‘Civil society’ (Fürst et al., 2006; Pollermann, 2006; slightly modified)

Urban Governance

We shortly want to introduce urban governance, because it is a special form of regional governance. It is related to urban development and urban policy. Einig et al. (2005) state that the term urban governance is used in two different ways: first of all it is used as a terminus technicus, which names coordination modi for collective acts (e. g. the governance modi ‘hierarchy’, ‘network’ or ‘market’). The second way is the use of the term urban governance in a heuristic way as a general term. Urban governance is, in this meaning, a counter model to “government”. Hill (2005) defines the term „urban governance“ as the controlling and co-ordination of the co-operation of state, economics and society in affairs of public interest on the local community level.

Rural Governance and New Rural Governance

The term rural governance gives another spatial restriction and refers particularly to peripheral, rural areas. Particularly, for this concept there are still no proponents in research, which regard rural governance separately from the regional governance discourse. Goldwin (1998) noticed “an increasingly noticeable silence at the centre of contemporary rural studies concerning the ways in which rural areas are governed”. After his statement the discussion and research about rural governance have increased (see, for example Little et al., 1998; Little, 2001; Imrie & Raco, 1999; Jones & Little, 2000; Cloke et al., 2000; Brodda 2007). The governance of rural localities has come under increasing academic scrutiny in recent years reflecting a growing interest in the social sciences in the alleged shift from a system of ‘government’ to one of ‘governance’. Marsden &

Murdoch (1998) divided this shift into two main processes: *First* the increasing involvement of actors from outside the formal boundaries of the state in the process of governing. This means that governing is now argued to rely on networks of interconnected actors from the public, private and voluntary sectors rather than a hierarchy dominated network and defined by the central state. *Second* the internal organisation of the state has become more complex and ‘multi-levelled’ as sub and supra national institutions partially usurp the competencies of the central state (see e.g. recent developments in rural governance in the Netherlands [Investeringsbudget Landelijk Gebied (ILG)]). Government now relies on a complex network of state institutions that are defined both by their geographical territories and functional remits (Marsden & Murdoch, 1998).

Environmental Governance

Environmental governance has received considerable attention the last few years (Calhoun et al., 2003; Hempel, 1996). Multiple interpretations of this term can be found; Davidson & Frickel (2004) define environmental governance as “attempts by governing bodies or combinations thereof to alleviate recognized environmental dilemmas”. Hence, environmental governance needs to be viewed from a very broad perspective as many cross-sectional issues are involved and as the integration of the various dimensions of sustainable development necessitates a more holistic approach.

Hempel (1996) argues that environmental problems are in scope and significance increasingly transboundary, but governance remains sharply fragmented and territorial. According to his definition environmental governance is concerned with redesigning institutions and policies to promote sustainable communities. He uses the term “glocal” for describing that political institutions have to cope successfully with growing biospheric crises by cooperating with environmental authorities redistributed to both supranational entities and local communities. Since the last few years there is a tendency for solving environmental problems on an international level (see e.g. NATURA 2000, European emission policy, etc. [<http://www.eea.europa.eu/>]).

A vast volume of literature on environmental governance focuses on the top-down approach, according to which an improvement in governance is to be sought by reforming government and government-related institutions, assuming that the reason for the crisis of the environment is an institutional weakness. A small, yet growing, body of literature (Lipschutz & Mayer, 1996; Wapner, 1997; Fisher, 2004) is, however, devoted to trying to formalize the role of civil society in the governance process, since government badly needs the advice and support and action of civil society to channel the power of the people they represent.

Landscape Governance

Landscape governance is a component of environmental governance. It is neither exclusively nor primarily involved in the maintenance of untouched, natural landscapes, nor is it necessarily in concordance with the maintenance of a specific uniqueness of cultural landscapes. Görg (2007) argues “what seems to make the landscape concept useful as a link between governance processes in multi-level-politics and natural-spatial conditions is precisely its hybrid character, that is, that societal and “natural” factors are intrinsically linked to one another. Cultural, aesthetic, economic and social dimensions are as much involved as ecological functioning or abiotic conditions. Therefore, using the concept of landscape instead of the concept of region (cp. to regional governance: Pütz, 2004) is a more appropriate way of incorporating these dimensions. Herein, landscape provides the rescaling of politics with a material foundation, without returning to presumptions regarding ontologically prescribed spaces”.

Protected Area Governance

Since the Vth IUCN World Parks Congress in Durban 2003, the concept of governance has been applied to protected areas. Surprisingly many papers on governance of protected areas deal with marine parks (Ehler, 2003; Ehler, 2005; Portmann, 2007; Jentoft et. al., 2007; Christie & White, 2007). We assume that one reason is that marine protected areas are complex systems that, from a governance perspective, raise serious challenges with regard to their effectiveness, but they are quite different from land protected areas. For example, they have different actors, a fluent system with challenging characteristics. Marine protected areas are challenged with managing the multidimensional tapestry of totally different interests and influences on the coast and offshore. Besides, the ownership is more diverse and marine protected areas have been seen as traditionally public goods. Since the last years there has been a rising research about governance in Biosphere Reserves e.g. the GoBi-Project or Fürst et al. 2005 (see 3.4.).

3.3 What “types” of governance exists in Protected Areas?

The first attempts at establishing a governance typology for protected areas were made by Borrini-Feyerabend (2002) and Graham et al. (2003) in preparation for the Vth IUCN World Parks Congress in Durban. Four main types of governance were identified (see figure 6). The four protected area governance types have been proposed to classify different administrative structures in protected area management. The main question is who has the management authority and responsibility and can be held accountable.

Normally, in “government protected areas” government agencies on various levels hold the authority, responsibility and accountability for managing the protected area and determine its

conservation objectives and management rules. Most people are familiar with this type of governance. Usually the government is also the owner of the land (or at least large parts of it) and related resources.

“Co-managed protected areas” are also becoming increasingly common. Authority, responsibility and accountability for managing the protected area are shared in various ways among a variety of actors like government agencies, local communities, non-governmental organizations (particularly environmental groups) or private landowners.

Private governance in has a relatively long history, as kings and aristocracies often preserved certain terrain of land for themselves e.g. for hunting. Such private reserves had important secondary conservation benefits. Today, private ownership is still a very important force in conservation. The authority and responsibility for managing the “private protected area” rest with one or more landowner e. g. an NGO, foundation or a for-profit corporation.

The governance type “community conserved areas” (CCAs) involves governance by local communities and indigenous people. Land and resources are usually managed collectively.

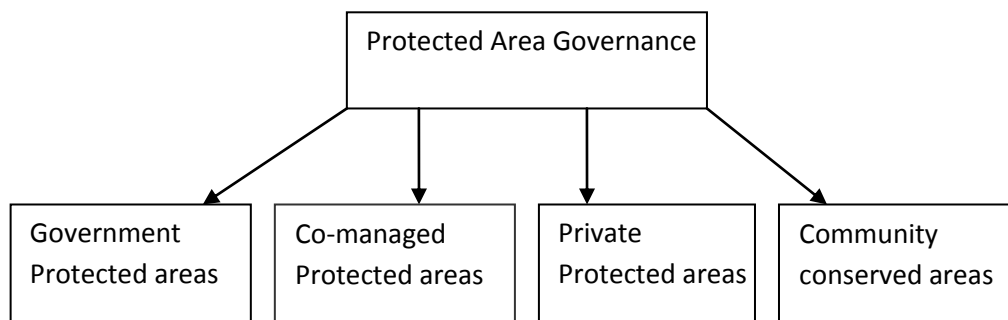


Figure 3.5: Durban Governance types in protected areas (based on Borrini-Feyerabend, 2004)

Another differentiation could also be possible e.g. regarding the different actors in protected areas and their relations. We assume that (formal) ownership does not exclude multi-actor governance and can be influenced by diverse factors. Maybe the Durban Governance types could be renamed as protected areas management types. But Borrini-Feyerabend (2004) explains that governance is different from management and governance types are different from the IUCN management categories. Consequently, the governance types are IUCN category neutral.

What are the advantages of recognizing different governance types for conservation?

Borrini-Feyerabend (2004) claims that “there would be no point in complicating the field of conservation without real necessity and benefits” by using different governance types for conservation. But she also mentions that national protected areas systems have progressively become more ambitious, enlarging their size and assuming more complex tasks, while irrevocable

damages to the natural non-protected environment have also become progressively more visible and worrying. Borrini-Feyerabend (2004) declares that if different governance types were officially recognized, CCAs and private protected areas would acquire “full legitimacy” alongside government-managed protected areas and co-managed protected areas. In her opinion this would greatly enhance their chances of combining and optimizing their overall conservation potential. A conservation system comprising territories and resources under various governance types would have a better chance of addressing currently existing conservation gaps (e.g., connectivity gaps). Such systems would be more complete and arguably more resilient, responsive and adaptive, since different economic, social and ecological changes unequally affect different social actors.

An even more important issue could be the governance principles for protected areas: legitimacy and voice, accountability, direction, performance and equity. Borrini-Feyerabend (2004) argues that the new challenge will be, to harmonise protected area governance within the broader system of governance at the landscape and regional level.

3.4 Present state of research

In this part we want to show some of the most important developments in protected area governance research. We want to show what (empirical) research has been done so far (Dearden et al, 2005; GoBi) and what is still missing. One cornerstone of the protected area governance debate was the Vth IUCN World Park Congress in Durban.

The Vth World Park Congress in Durban – Governance of Protected areas: New ways of working together

The Vth IUCN World Park Congress (WPC) was held in Durban, South Africa in September 2003. With close to 3000 participants from 160 countries, the congress represented the largest and most diverse gathering of protected area experts in history. A workshop stream deals particularly with governance of protected areas and identified governance during the Congress as a key factor and “central to the conservation of protected areas throughout the world” (Lockwood, 2006).

Trends in Global Protected Area Governance

Dearden et al. (2005) published a paper about the trends in global protected area governance from 1992 till 2002. They state that “governance is now recognized as a critical aspect of effective conservation and is a prominent part of the Convention on Biological Diversity work program on protected areas”. They did a survey in 41 countries. The survey was distributed by email and postal mail to more than 110 national protected area agencies around the world. The results indicate that protected areas are becoming more influenced by global forces. The survey resulted in 51 responses

from 41 countries. Almost 90 % of the respondents felt that protected area governance had improved over the last decade and 67 % felt that this had also led to improved management effectiveness. 83 % reported an increase in amount and strength of stakeholder participation. 54 % reported increased private sector involvements.

Dearden et al. (2005) proclaim three points to guide future action at the international level on global protected area governance: first ‘governance and management effectiveness’, second ‘change and consolidation’ and last something that they describe as ‘context’. With the first point Dearden et al. suggest that governance is a critical aspect influencing the ability of protected areas to provide the values for which society establishes them. They say that it is not sufficient to have the “right” numbers of protected areas in the “right” places; it is also necessary to ensure that their governance is able to manage them in an effective manner and produce the desired outcomes. With ‘change and consolidation’ they imply the enormous changes which have taken place over the past decade in the field of protected area governance. Their survey also only included IUCN categories I–III. Clearly, categories IV–VI have a potential to add to conservation, but also much greater variability in governance processes. Dearden et al. (2005) conclude that it would be useful to implement a governance survey on these categories in the near future to build understanding of their challenges. Dearden et al. (2005) state in their third point that global protected area governance has no “one best way”. Improved governance can follow multiple pathways. The challenge is to understand the particular context of the protected area systems, globally, nationally, and locally and the various pathways and their advantages and disadvantages. Every situation is unique, yet has commonalities that can be better understood through a structured series of case studies at the national and regional levels.

The Governance of Biodiversity Research Project (GoBi)

The GoBi research group, which is now located at the University of Greifswald, Germany, evaluates and analyses success and failure factors of protected area and Biosphere Reserve management and governance approaches. In particular, the research group assesses the circumstances under which meeting ecological imperatives requires robust management measures that empower local populations and respond to the challenges of global change impacts. The results are based on a broad range of different quantitative and qualitative data sets. These data sets consist of: a comprehensive literature review, 13 case studies in nine countries, a meta-analysis of about 165 cases drawn from this literature, and more than 170 detailed expert interviews.

Biosphere Reserves – currently about 531 sites in 105 countries (April 2008) – are areas of terrestrial and coastal/marine ecosystems that are internationally recognised under UNESCO’s Man and Biosphere (MAB) Programme. The GoBi research group states that the conservation success of

Biosphere Reserves and other protected areas depends on the appropriateness of their management systems and broader governance issues such as their political and legal system, resource-use patterns as well as the degree of involvement of communities living within or nearby them (Stoll-Kleemann et al., 2006; <http://www.biodiversitygovernance.de>).

3.5 Protected Area Governance in Europe

Now we want to give an overview of different studies in Europe. First of all we want to present the PhD-project from Thompson (2003) “Governance of England’s National Parks”. Then we want to stage the project from Fürst et al. (2006) about placemaking and governance processes in biosphere reserves in Germany and in the UK. We assume that the same characteristics of place making or making places processes exist in category V protected areas, especially in nature parks, maybe in weaker constellations. We understand placemaking as a collective process of environmental design (Raumgestaltung), with the aim to increase the quality of life and the quality of land use and with the intention to label the area ‘socio emotional’ (Fürst, 2004). Placemaking may be occurring especially in category V areas, because of the importance of people and different forms of use in these areas. The role of different actors in category V protected areas is also very essential but as well very complex. Placemaking is significant in/for these areas and related to local people and to governance. The social and cultural context is a key factor in these areas. Sometimes identity problems may occur between them. An important issue here is the image related to the management and marketing of these areas. Regional identity and the relation between people and places become more important key terms in this debate are the power of place and sense of belonging to place (Hayden, 1995 cited in Fürst, 2006; Forrest and Kearns 2001).

Governance of England’s national parks (Thompson, 2003)

Thompson has researched the governance in two National Parks in the UK – the Northumberland National Park in England and the Cairngorms in Scotland. In her thesis Thompson uses National Park policy in order to provide an empirical basis for analyzing the changing practice of government in a devolving UK. The research methodology involved three techniques; interviewing, observation and content analysis. Thompson declares that “governance of National Parks involves a myriad of organisations with a range of often contradictory policy and land management objectives. Organisations from outside government have historically been highly influential in the regulation of the Park areas”.

The National Trust (established in 1898) as Thompson mentioned is just one example of a non-governmental organisation that plays a role both in the management of land in the parks and which, using this role, also seeks to play a policy advocacy role at the national and regional levels. The

National Park Authority relies on the Trust's co-operation to implement its land management objectives. This one example serves to underline how, throughout the twentieth century, government has relied on actors from beyond 'the state' to implement and drive public policy.

Regional Governance and common goods – the case of natural resources (Fürst et al., 2006)

The analysis of new patterns of regional governance is the result of five case studies (three Biosphere Reserves in Germany and two in the UK) from a research project from Fürst et al. (2006). The project allows comparing the different trials for sustainable regions and the specific institutional boundary conditions in Germany and the UK. The research is based on interviews (with around 15 to 20 actors in every region), a workshop, a conference and content analysis of documents. In the UK there are eight Biosphere Reserves. They were all first designated in the seventies and in fact only one of those meets the Seville criteria now. In Germany there are fourteen Biosphere Reserves and all of them have a zoning with core, buffer and transition zone. Most of them made successful trials to support sustainable economic development. The results show that in Biosphere Reserves placemaking-processes can arise and that specific governance arrangements, which supported the management of Biosphere Reserves, develop.

3.6 Governance in IUCN-Category V protected areas

This chapter should only give a short overview of governance in IUCN category V protected areas. Empirical research is necessary to confirm our assumptions. IUCN category V aims to integrate protection and land use, and thus protected areas become instruments of regional development. In future this integration will be of even greater importance, due to increasing impacts of settlements and other forms of land use. In this context protected areas of IUCN category V have a central role, because they open this perspective explicitly. In that case Nature Parks are especially interesting, because they have been overlooked, underestimated or interpreted unilaterally as recreational areas for a long time (Mose, 2007). Category V represents a protected landscape or seascape. According to the IUCN Guidelines for Applying Protected Area Management Categories, the definition of a category V protected landscape/seascape is "a protected area where the interaction of people and nature over time has produced an area of distinct character with significant ecological, biological, cultural and scenic value and where safeguarding the integrity of this interaction is vital to protecting and sustaining the area and its associated nature conservation and other values" (Dudley, 2008).

Currently nature parks get special attention under the protected areas category V. They experience an enormous attention due to their increasing attractiveness as areas of leisure and valuable habitats as well as their less strict guidelines. Nature parks are a specific category of protected areas of the

German-speaking countries. However, in many European states there are similar types of large protected areas (such as Regional Nature Parks in Italy and France). Due to their central task to connect protection and the use of cultural landscapes lastingly they are gaining significance for the future. Only on the basis of continuous use cultural landscapes in Europe and their large biodiversity can be secured in the long term (Schenk; Hunziker & Kienast, 2007). Nature Parks are orientated not with priority by administrative boundaries, but by nature areas. They could function as "model areas" for sustainable regional development. Category V protected areas like nature parks are not just pretty places, with an abundance of wildlife and cultural resources. They are places where people live and work and are popular destinations for tourists and day visitors. They have considerable potential for tension between the major land uses (agriculture and forestry), recreation, tourism and traffic and the conservation of these areas. The questions of area protection, in particular the paradigm change of static-conservative to innovative-dynamic area protection and its application to the practice, shows gaps and deficits. Especially the value of Nature Parks in European area protection policies has hardly been investigated until now. In detail one deficit of previous research is particularly remarkable; it concerns the role of the local-regional actors during the nature park development. The publication of Fürst et al. (2006) has focused on the role of local-regional actors in Biosphere Reserves. Purposeful investigations of this problem in Nature Parks, however, have not been made available so far. The relation with the images of nature which different actors have in mind (Groote et al., 2006), and the implications for physical measures in, and governance structures of nature development projects have largely been lacking until now.

3.7 Conclusions

This paper is an attempt to provide an introduction to the theoretical, empirical and methodological implications of governance. We conclude that protected area governance is a relatively new field in the governance debate and it becomes more and more influential. A cornerstone was surely the Vth IUCN World Congress in Durban 2003. Since then the discussion has received an immense attention, especially regarding National Parks and Biosphere Reserves (e.g. Fürst et al, 2006; Thompson 2006).

In IUCN-Category V protected areas (in Nature Parks) the connections and relations between man and nature, use and protection are very strong. Therefore it is important to include all actors and stakeholders at an early stage. Category V areas, especially Nature Parks are extremely interesting, because they were for a long time overlooked, underestimated or interpreted unilaterally as recreational areas. But there is an increasing amount of protected landscapes and Nature Parks in Europe (Mose, 2007).

There are many questions still open that could not be answered yet (e. g. why are governance processes so diverse in different protected area categories, which actors are important to influence a governance process in nature parks etc.). So there is a need for further research. This will be done in different case studies in Category V protected areas.

The goal of our upcoming research is to give insight in how different actors interact in protected landscapes in Europe and how they combine nature and use. The main research questions we want to answer are:

- Which actors are represented in protected landscapes and how do they cooperate, and has that changed over time?
- Which role do the different local-regional actors play (attitudes of actors)?
- What different network-like forms of co-operation between actors of the three sectors (state, civil society and economy) exist in protected landscapes for the treatment of joint tasks of the regional development (regional governance)?
- To what extent can regional governance influence the dynamics of protected landscapes and the region and what does that mean for the regional development of the regions? How does regional governance link to a specific outcome (model for sustainable regional development)?

We will use a multi-method approach. Key factors are a European wide Delphi survey and different case studies in Category V protected areas in Europe, which include stakeholder-analyses, network-analyses, expert interviews and observations. We suppose that our research contribute to the general protected area governance debate and close the existing gap regarding the category V areas.

Acknowledgment

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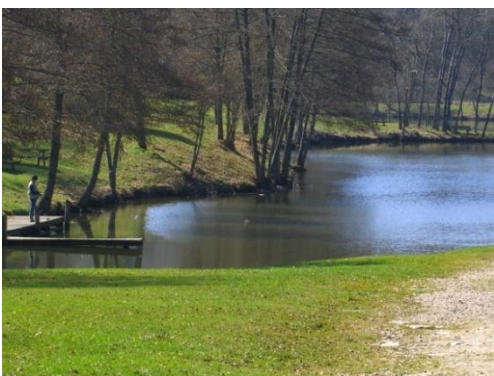
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Chapter 4 The Delphi method as a useful tool to study governance and protected areas?



Impressions from all four parks

4. The Delphi method as a useful tool to study governance and protected areas?¹⁰

Abstract

The Delphi method is a systematic, interactive, written method, which relies on a panel of experts. This paper seeks to discuss whether the Delphi method is an appropriate method for obtaining information about governance. In this study we used the Delphi method to assemble information from 11 professionals with vast experience in nature conservation, protected areas and governance. The purpose of this study was to get a better understanding of the scientific governance debate. Three rounds of questionnaires were sent to the selected experts. The results of this Delphi Questionnaire reveal that there is a broad common understanding of protected area governance. They also reveal insights into how individual categories of protected areas will develop in the future. However, the study also shows that specialists are not fully agreed on this point.

4.1 Introduction

The Delphi method is a systematic, interactive, written method, which relies on a panel of experts (Bortz & Döring, 2002; Dalkey & Helmer, 1963). The experts answer questionnaires in two or more rounds. After each round, the experts receive an anonymous summary of all their responses (Linstone & Turoff, 1975). Experts are thus encouraged to comment on their own replies and the replies of other panel members. Finally, the process is brought to an end once a predefined stop criterion is met (e.g. number of rounds, achievement of consensus or stability of results). This paper discusses whether the Delphi method is a useful method for obtaining information about governance. Recent trends in governance practices promote the Delphi method as one useful technique for eliciting data from a narrow constituency. The paper does not explore more participatory/more democratic methodologies. Regarding content, our study focuses on the attitudes and opinions of experts about governance in protected landscapes. The Institute on Governance (2002) defines governance as the interaction among actors, institutions, processes and traditions that determines how power is exercised, how decisions are taken on issues of public and often private concern, and how citizens or other stakeholders have their say.

Basically, governance is about power, relationships, and accountability, and the pursuit of goals and objectives (Institute on Governance, 2002; Schliep & Stoll-Kleemann, 2010)¹¹ whereas management is about achieving these objectives. Hence, management refers to ‘what to do’, while governance refers to ‘who decides what to do – the institutions and norms of decision-making’. The

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¹¹ Various other definitions can be found in Kooiman (1999), Rhodes (1997) or Schuppert (2005). Kooiman alone mentions 12 different uses of governance in his analysis and lists six definitions in addition to his own (Kooiman, 1999). For an historical overview, see Benz (2004); and for a theoretical synopsis, see Mehnen et al. (2009).

IUCN Protected Area Categories refer to management objectives for a given protected area. These are further overlaid with the various types of governance regimes, but they are distinct elements and should not be confused. In its draft programme for 2013–2016 the IUCN states:

“Natural resource governance is shaped by the norms, institutions and processes that determine how power and responsibilities over the resource are exercised, how decisions are taken, and how citizens—men and women—participate in the management of natural resources. The quality of these decision-making processes is one of the singular most important determinants as to the contribution ecosystems make to human well-being and the long-term prospects for successful biodiversity conservation. Sharing power, responsibility and benefits in natural resource management, as well as strengthening governance arrangements, including legal entitlements, to make decisions more transparent, inclusive and equitable, are good for both people and biodiversity” (IUCN, 2012a, pp. 13–14).

There are international legal standards about what constitutes ‘good governance’, including elements of transparency and rule of law, responsibility, accountability, responsiveness and public participation in decision-making for sustainable development (for example, from the World Bank, 2011; the OECD, 2012; or the White Paper on European Governance of the European Commission, Commission of the European Communities, 2001).

We analyse whether there is some sort of consensus about regional governance in protected areas, and we generate ideas and judgments about IUCN Category V areas from leading European experts in the field. The role of governance in protected landscapes has rarely been researched. Therefore, the purpose of this article is to better understand the current scientific governance debate. The content related research questions we want to answer in this article are:

- Do the experts trust/believe in the classification system? In particular, do they trust and value IUCN Category V?
- Which type of protected area will have the best chances in future?
- How will IUCN Category V protected areas develop in the future?
- Which role do IUCN Category V protected landscapes, especially nature parks, play in sustainable regional development?

The central aim of this paper is to determine whether the Delphi method is a useful tool to obtain the required information. To answer this question we will introduce the research method and explain the advantages and disadvantages of the method. In a later subsection we will introduce the main protected area concepts and categories.

Our study design will be explained in a following subsection. After that we will present our results. We finally offer some recommendations for other Delphi studies in this field and conclude with a summary of the most important issues.

4.2 The Delphi Method

Since its conception in the 1950s, the Delphi method has been widely used in various fields, such as education, nursing, business, industry, and in the social sciences and natural sciences disciplines (Häder, 2002). It is also employed in geography (see e.g. Anderson & Schneider, 1993; Lupp, 2008; Miller, 1993; Steffenhagen, 2010), in planning (Ali, 2005; Schnur & Markus, 2010) and in policy-making (Critcher & Gladstone, 1998). The Delphi method has also been applied successfully in governance (Pütz, 2004) and protected area studies (e.g. De Urioste-Stone et al., 2006; Sanftenberg, 2000). Several scientists have researched the value of the Delphi method in different contexts (Goodman, 1987; Hsu & Sandford, 2007; Ludwig, 1997; Ono & Wedemeyer, 1994; Scholles, 2008). For example, Hsu and Sandford (2007) concluded in their paper that “the Delphi technique has and will continue to be an important data collection methodology with a wide variety of applications and uses for people who want to gather information from those who are immersed and imbedded in the topic of interest and can provide real-time and real-world knowledge” (p. 5).

A special form of the Delphi survey is the Policy Delphi (De Loe, 1995; Needham, 1990). It aims to generate the strongest possible opposing views on the potential resolutions of a major policy issue (Turoff, 2002). In general, Delphi surveys are intended to collect opinions from experts who cannot easily be brought together around a table, to generate ideas or make decisions (Gupta & Clarke, 1996; Stewart, 2001). The key components of the Delphi method are anonymity, iteration, controlled feedback and the statistical aggregation of group respondents. A Delphi survey usually consists of three rounds (see Figure 4.1).

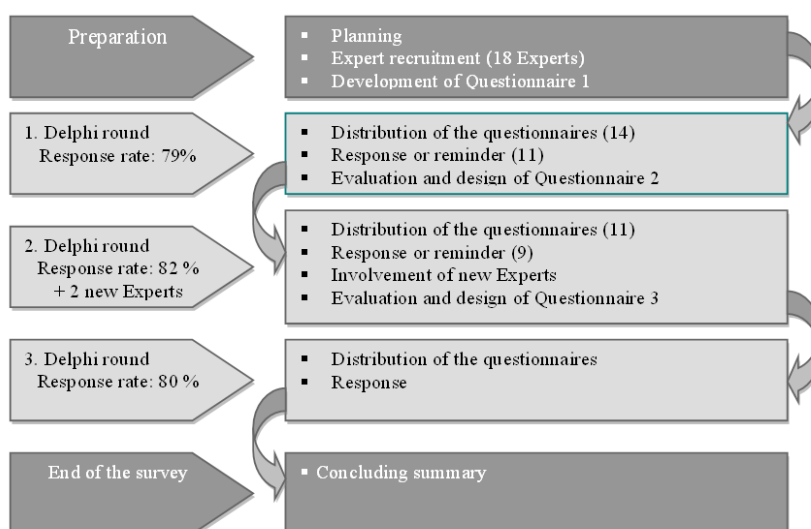


Figure 4.1: Delphi survey schedule (Steffenhagen, 2010, modified)

Advantages and Disadvantages of the Method

The main disadvantage is without doubt that it is a time-consuming process for the researcher. It takes a lot of time to analyse the completed questionnaires and to develop the questionnaires for the next round, especially when the Delphi survey is conducted in different languages. However, the various rounds are also one of the method's main advantages. The experts are enabled to refine their opinions and it is also possible to include new topics. For a summary of significant strengths and weaknesses see Table 1.

We selected the Delphi method because it permits us to capitalise on expert knowledge on governance and protected landscapes. The experts we wanted to include are distributed across Europe. Using the internet, we were able to contact different experts and conduct three Delphi rounds. Our position regarding the Delphi survey is that it is a very useful method to obtain expert judgments on a concrete fact, to generate ideas or make decisions, and to achieve some sort of consensus in an ideal situation.

Table 4.1: Advantages and disadvantages of the Delphi method (after Pütz, 2004*)

Advantages	Disadvantages
Conducive to independent thinking and gradual formulation	Judgments are those of a selected group of people and may not be representative
A well-selected respondent panel can provide a broad analytical perspective	Tendency to eliminate extreme positions and force a middle-of-the-road consensus
Free of social pressure, personality influence and individual dominance	Time-consuming and high workload (selection of experts, acquiring and retaining experts)*
Allows sharing of information and reasoning among participants	Should not be viewed as a complete solution to forecasting
Inexpensive	Reduced return in the subsequent questioning rounds*
Allows participant to remain anonymous	Requires skill in written communication
Can be used to reach consensus among groups hostile to each other	Possibly longer periods between question rounds required for providing, distributing, answering and evaluating the questionnaires*
Obtain reliable judgment or forecast results	

4.3 Protected Area Concepts

There is a multitude of protected areas worldwide, ranging from large internationally acknowledged national parks to small nature reserves and natural monuments (Lockwood et al., 2006; Mose, 2007). Our understanding of protected areas comprises all the kinds of landscapes and ecosystems protected by law, by contracts or by certificates, primarily to conserve natural features, biodiversity and landscapes.

To make protected areas more transparent and comparable, the International Union for Conservation of Nature (the IUCN) has proposed a system with six different categories of protected areas. These categories account for some of the areas protected internationally and nationally (see Figure 4.2).

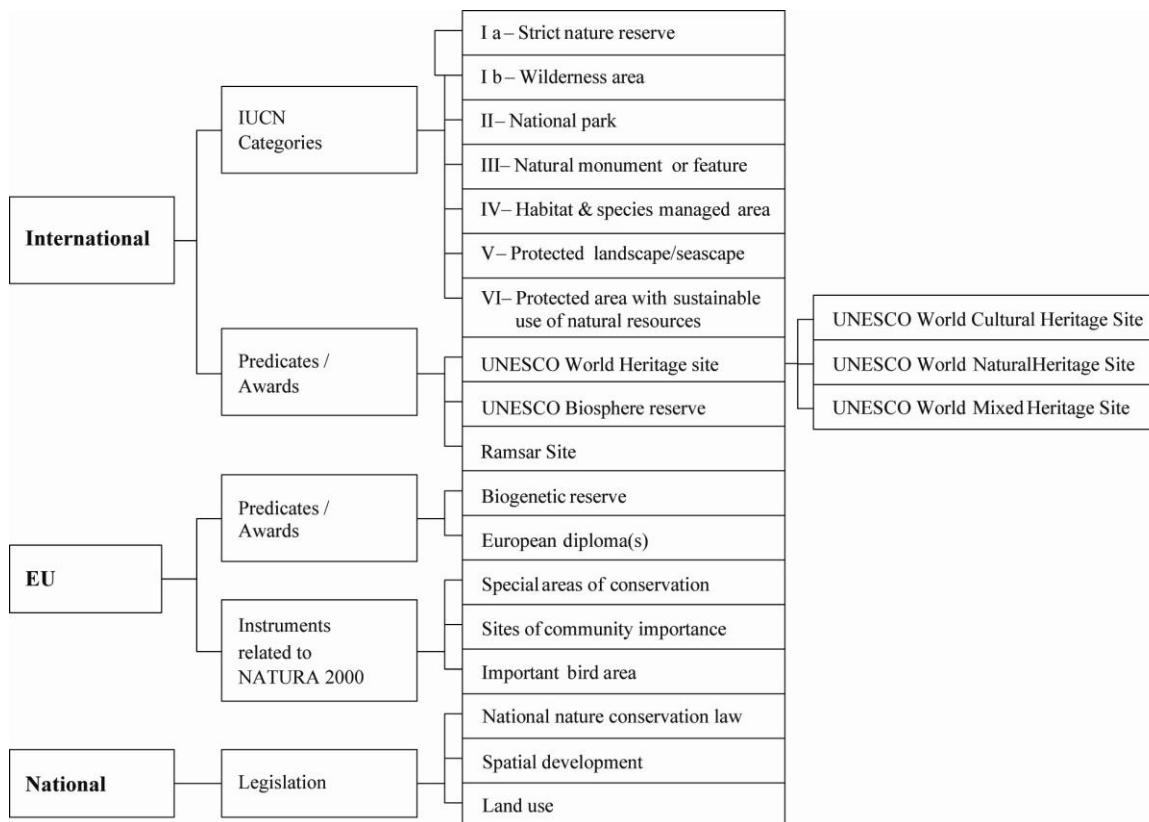


Figure 4.2: Areas protected internationally and nationally.

The IUCN categorises protected areas by management objective and the influence of human activities (see Table 4.2). The IUCN was founded in 1948 as the International Union for the Protection of Nature (or IUPN) after an international conference in Fontainebleau, France, in which several states, government agencies and nongovernmental organisations participated. The organisation changed its name to the International Union for Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources in 1956, with the acronym IUCN (or UICN in French and Spanish). In 1990 the IUCN changed its name to the ‘World Conservation Union’ and used that name for many years (while retaining the acronym IUCN) before reverting back to the International Union for Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources in 2008 (IUCN, 2012b). The IUCN is one of the oldest and largest global environmental organisations in the world, and aims to conserve biodiversity. Along with species conservation, the support of countries and communities in designating and managing systems of protected areas has been its key focus.

Table 4.2: The IUCN classification system (Dudley, 2008)

IUCN categories and the primary objectives		
Cat.	Name	Primary objective
Ia	Strict nature reserve	To conserve ecosystems, species and/or geodiversity features: these attributes will have been formed mostly or entirely by non-human forces and will be degraded or destroyed when subjected to all but very light human impact.
Ib	Wilderness area	To protect the long-term ecological integrity of natural areas that are undisturbed by significant human activity, free of modern infrastructure and where natural forces and processes predominate.
II	National Park	To protect natural biodiversity along with its underlying ecological structure and supporting environmental processes, and to promote education and recreation.
III	Natural Monument	To protect specific outstanding natural features and their associated biodiversity and habitats.
IV	Habitat/species management area	To maintain, conserve and restore species and habitats.
V	Protected landscape/seascape	To protect and sustain important landscape/seascapes and the associated nature conservation and other values created by interactions with humans through traditional management practices.
VI	Protected area with sustainable use of natural resources	To protect natural ecosystems and use natural resources sustainably, when conservation and sustainable use can be mutually beneficial.

A new definition of protected area was adopted from 2008, which defines a protected area as: “a clearly defined geographical space, recognized, dedicated and managed, through legal or other effective means, to achieve the long-term conservation of nature with associated ecosystem services and cultural values” (Dudley, 2008, p. 8).

The former definition (IUCN, 1994) was more focused on the protection and maintenance of biological diversity, and on the natural and associated cultural resources of an area of land and/or sea. The part about management through legal or other effective means remained the same.

According to the IUCN Guidelines for Applying Protected Area Management Categories, the definition of a Category V protected landscape/seascape is:

“a protected area where the interaction of people and nature over time has produced an area of distinct character with significant ecological, biological, cultural and scenic value and where safeguarding the integrity of this interaction is vital to protecting and sustaining the area and its associated nature conservation and other values” (Dudley, 2008, p. 20).

For many years within protected areas around the world, top-down approaches to nature policy and management were usual (Kothari, 2008; Mose, 2007). Recently, governance has become more influential in the protected area debate (Hanna et al., 2008; Pollermann, 2006; Stoll-Kleemann et

al., 2006). It is crucial to explain the distinction between protected area management categories and governance types. The IUCN Protected Area Categories refer to management objectives for a given protected area. These are further overlaid with the various types of governance regimes, but they are distinct elements and should not be confused. With respect to who holds decision-making and management authority and responsibility for protected areas, the IUCN distinguishes four broad protected area governance types: governance by government, shared governance, private governance and governance by indigenous peoples and local communities (Dudley, 2008; see also Borrini-Feyerabend, 2003). Kothari (2008) highlights the importance of self-management of protected areas by local communities, which relates to governance by law, by contracts or by certificates in private protected areas, collaborative management arrangements and independent governance by indigenous and local communities (in community conserved areas). We conducted our Delphi survey in the way described below to learn more about the current developments and to verify some of our assumptions.

4.4 Research Design

Based on the literature, we designed a first-round questionnaire with open questions to survey the experts' opinions on governance in protected landscapes. Before the first round, we sent an invitation letter containing background information on the study. The experts who submitted their answers received follow-up questionnaires. Eleven experts participated in the first round—the response rate of the first Delphi round was 79%. The data were summarised and analysed. The authors selected important statements for the next round's questionnaire based on the preceding round's results, and then distributed it to the experts to obtain agreement. The response rate for the second Delphi round was 82%. Eighty per cent of the experts participated in the final Delphi round. To achieve these high response rates we allowed extra time for each round and sent several reminders. The entire study was conducted online via email; only once was a questionnaire sent back by post. The study was conducted in German and in English. In each round specific questions were discussed. In the first round, more general questions about regional governance, protected areas and IUCN Category V (protected landscapes) were asked. In the second round, important or conflicting statements from the first round were discussed and new questions on actors in protected landscapes were introduced. In the last round questions were asked about views concerning the domination of nature interests versus economic interests, residential interests, etc. and on the initiation of governance processes. Also of significance at this point were the appraisals and judgments of the experts on types of governance for protected areas and elements based on Borrini-Feyerabend (2003). Finally, the experts were asked to provide a concluding statement on protected landscapes.

Expert Selection

As the aim of the Delphi survey was to obtain scientific information about governance, the selection of experts was relatively uncomplicated. The participants were drawn from either universities or scientific institutions. We identified about 20 scientific experts through literature review or through existing personal contacts. All the experts selected possessed extensive knowledge about governance and protected areas across Europe. We were able to make new contacts at a number of conferences and include new experts. The new experts participated in all three rounds. Hence, experts from the Netherlands, Germany, Austria, Switzerland, UK, Hungary and Poland participated in the Delphi survey.

4.5 Results

Protected Areas

An important question was which protected area the experts considered the most sustainable in the future (see Figure 4.3). By sustainable in this context we mean which category is socially, environmentally and economically acceptable, and thus supports the reconciliation of environmental, social equity and economic demands.

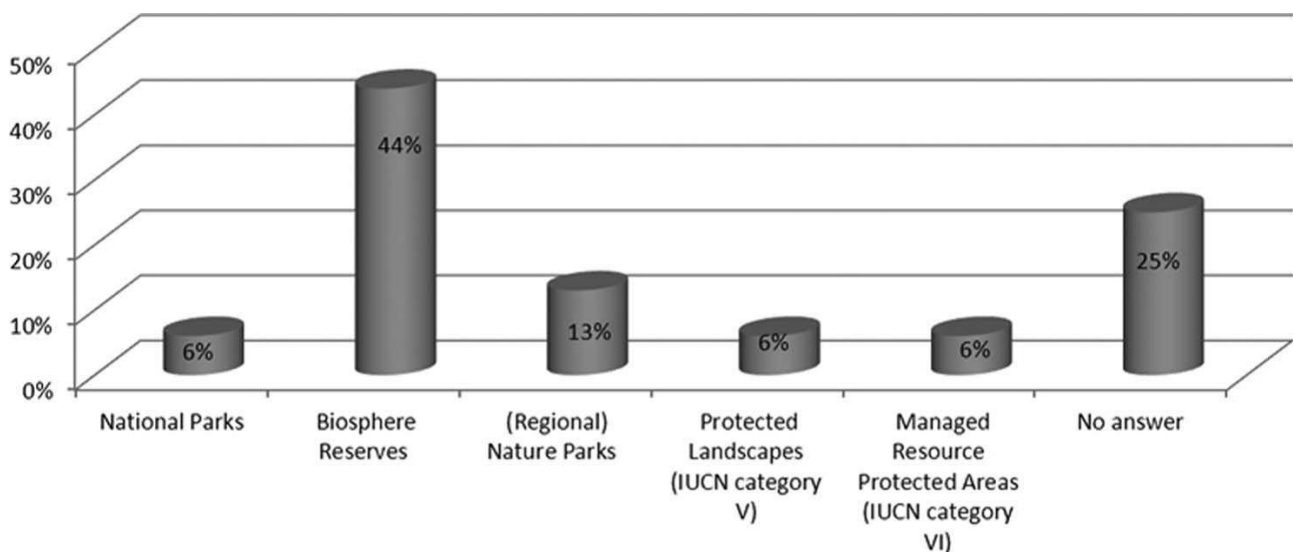


Figure 4.3: Which type of protected area do you consider most sustainable in the future? (As a percentage, multiple answers were possible).

The majority of the experts stated that they considered Biosphere Reserves to be the most sustainable. They offered various explanations. One expert remarked that:

“Biosphere reserves contain a graduated concept of land use. Broadly defined, they contain all facets of dynamic-innovative nature protection, from strict nature reserves to concrete experimentation areas for sustainable development.” However, he also stated that “their image needs to be worked on”. Another expert stated that “the biosphere reserves category probably

meets the needs for sustainability in a global sense”. An additional comment was that “Biosphere reserves and regional nature parks represent model regions for sustainability by definition. However, abandoning the high-quality nature management of a national park for public acceptance reasons and preferring nature parks should be avoided if possible in areas with high nature potential. In such cases national parks are more sustainable.” Two other important quotes are: “Nature parks were primarily for recreation, now in addition, sustainable development has become important” and “These [Biosphere reserves, IUCN Category V and VI] combine different functions and are not just about nature but also consider the needs of the people in and around the area.” Several experts explained that the category itself is less important because many protected areas have sustainable development as an objective. For example, one expert described this as follows: “I do not believe that one can refer to one type [category]. I think the specific, spatial and temporal context is much more crucial. One national park is not the same as another national park etc.” Another respondent stated that “it depends less on the category than on numerous other success factors and an efficient and effective management”. Therefore, the objectives of protected areas have different emphasis and are achieved with varying degrees of success, and depend less on the category than on institutional structure, political support and the acute threats. The relatively low score for IUCN Category V is notable, but viewed along with the regional nature parks they seem to be considered as sustainable in the future.

Another important question was how the IUCN Category V areas will perform in the future (see Figure 4.4).

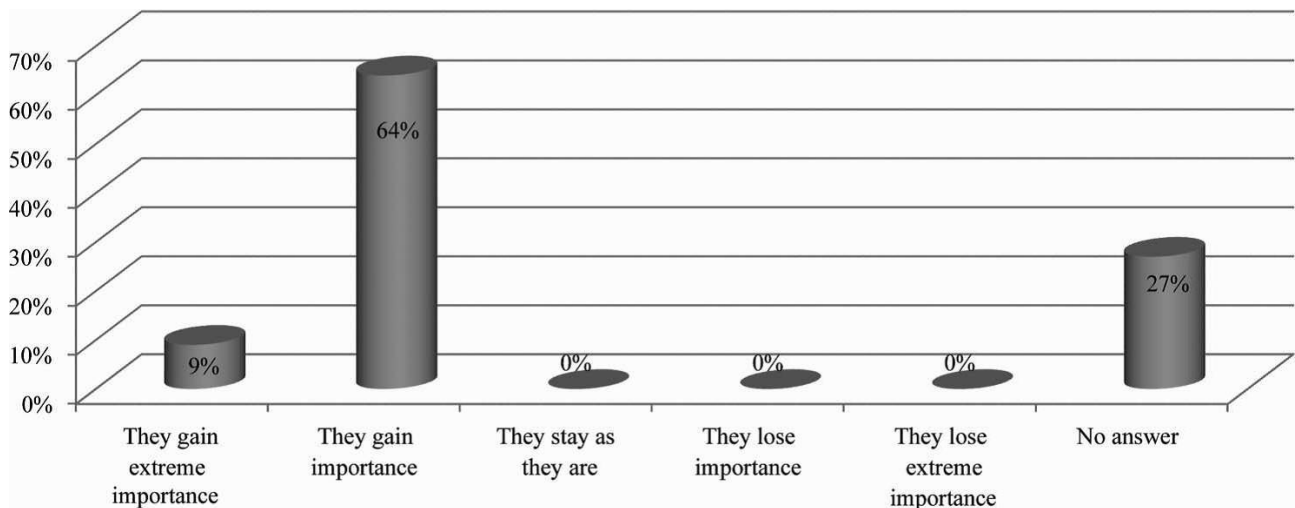


Figure 4.4: How will the IUCN Category V areas perform in the future?

The general conclusion was that IUCN Category V areas in Europe will gain in importance. The reasons mentioned are the increasing economic pressure in peripheral regions, increased awareness of the Categories’ strengths and values (keyword: regional identity) and increasing global pressure on natural resources (e.g. climate change, loss of biodiversity, lack of intact landscapes). In general, sustainable land use models are more urgently demanded. One key issue is the high acceptance of

IUCN Category V areas: they are not too ‘strict’—they do not usually hurt anyone’s interests. Accordingly, in terms of their value to society, Category V areas are viewed as important for providing a range of functions—recreation, inspiration and heritage, and climate change mitigation, water quality and flood prevention. One significant statement was:

With increased attention to governance, politicians are increasingly realising that nature cannot be conserved if other interests are not taken into account. Therefore, I think in the future increased attention will be paid to categories that pay attention to multiple land use options. This could be Category V but it could also be Category VI or it could be biosphere reserves.

In contrast, a critical remark was that “it really depends on the concrete situation, while in some regions Category V areas will gain importance, in other regions a certain saturation has been reached”.

In a follow-up question the experts were asked which role IUCN Category V protected landscapes, especially nature parks, play in sustainable regional development (see Figure 4.5).

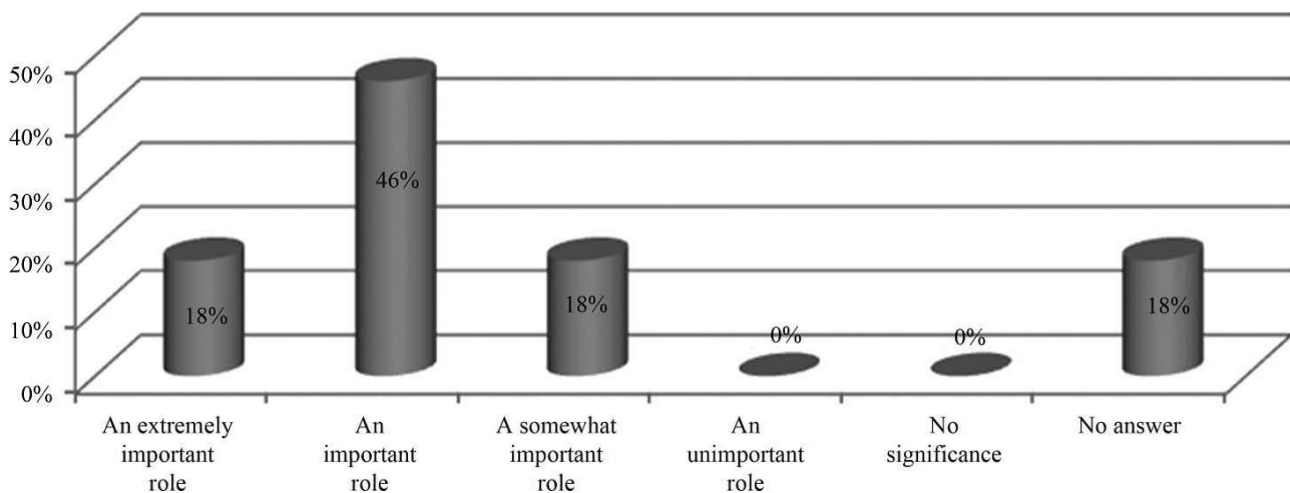


Figure 4.5: Which role do IUCN Category V protected landscapes, especially nature parks, play in sustainable regional development? (n = 11).

The majority of the experts stated that IUCN Category V areas play an important role in sustainable development because they ideally offer a clear setting for the promotion of cooperative processes at a regional level. Another statement was that “they may offer important sources of income for the inhabitants of the region in terms of tourism but also in terms of trade or agriculture and forestry”.

Several experts affirmed that sufficient management capacities are required:

They could play an important role if they were better managed. The managers of these areas need to be mindful of development needs of local populations and work with them to consider new business and residential opportunities. However, development still needs to be carefully regulated. It can be problematic when the same organisation is doing the development.

IUCN Category V areas should support sustainable regional development, by definition, in several European countries (e.g. the *Parque Natural* in Spain or the *Naturpark* in Austria). In general, the panellists agreed that IUCN Category V areas can improve rural or regional development if the development and management of the areas are well organised. The experts were also asked to judge various comments on IUCN Category V areas from the previous round (see Table 4.3).

Table 4.3: Reasons for the increasing importance of Category V areas.

Reasons for the increasing importance of Category V areas	Agreement			Reason/Comment
	Agree	Do not agree	No opinion	
In peripheral regions the economic pressure will increase	9	1	2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Therefore, interest towards value added • Depends where the peripheral region is
Awareness of the areas' strengths and values will increase (keyword: Regional identity)	8	1	3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Not necessarily • Globalisation–Glocalisation
Awareness of natural resources will increase (reference Climate change, loss of biodiversity, lack of intact landscapes)	9	1	2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Could be, but not necessarily • Applies better to more strongly protected area categories (urban population) • Climate change/landscape yes, biodiversity is less sensitively noticed
The resistance against reserves in general will rise	7	4	1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • If badly managed and communicated • Will remain the same
Sustainable land use models are urgently demanded	9	2	1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Depends not primarily on the protected area, but on sustainable development • Depends on the regional problem pressure (surface/area competitions)

Some experts regard the IUCN Category V areas as model regions for sustainable development and note that they provide platforms for negotiation among various interest groups and contribute to biodiversity and landscape conservation.

However, in areas with very high sensitivity, it was noted that the potential of this category is limited, such as in national parks, where top-down decisions are often necessary to safeguard the subject of protection. A valuable comment about classification was therefore:

“It means a wide variety of things depending on the national, and sometimes regional, context. Categorisation can be something of a distraction from the imperative to recognise that each protected area is distinctive and needs a tailored set of governance arrangements. The category to which a protected area belongs is less important than whether the legal, political and the social framework (the governance arrangements) enable a successful balance between environmental, social and economic goals appropriate to the particular area”.

This is a key point and gets to the heart of governance. Good institutional conditions are of greater importance for the success of a protected area than its category.

During the Delphi survey the experts were clear that IUCN Category V areas are very diverse. Almost the only thing they have in common is that they are classified under IUCN Category V. We feel that one expert's statement is crucial to our understanding of the classification system and the usefulness of Category V areas:

Whether Category V is useful is a different question. Therefore the system of categories should be viewed holistically. The fundamental question is: Does a category system divide reality into meaningful categories according to a given criterion or criteria and under a superordinate goal? Another question would be whether Category V sets appropriate standards for those protected areas based on these standards. However, very few areas incorporate the IUCN criteria as their guiding criteria.

A general remark was that the diversity of the statements probably arises from the diversity of the various practices and different ways the respondents understood them.

To summarise, Category V areas can be a very useful addition to other protected area designation options if they are properly implemented, otherwise these areas are just paper tigers without any obvious advantages. It is important that they fulfil their objectives and become more than merely a marketing instrument for tourism.

Characteristics of the Different Categories

It was also an aim to ask the various experts about the characteristics of the different categories. They were asked to list the advantages and disadvantages of national parks, biosphere reserves and nature parks (see Table 4.4).

Table 4.4: What are the advantages and disadvantages of national parks, biosphere reserves and nature parks regarding regional development?

	Advantages	Disadvantages
National parks	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Strong label effect • Potential to generate economic value through the use of the term in branding/tourism development/regional identity building • Core area for strict protection 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Because of strong association with conservation of natural and cultural heritage, the economic and social role of national parks is often under-recognised by policy makers • Can alienate local populations • Imposes a lot of restrictions in the region
Biosphere reserves	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Good model to link conservation and development • Generous zoning • Integrative approach • Can attract visitors and thus provide income 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Title is problematic • Term and concept are relatively unknown • Complex objectives • Complicated application procedure and tendency for bureaucratisation • Large surface area is required
Nature parks	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Good recreation infrastructure • Sustainable economic management • Only few restrictions • Low profile protection 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Smaller label effect • Less well known • Inflation of nature parks • Weak quality criteria • Governance can be a problem • No strong protection of nature

The experts presented a clear picture of each protected area concept and highlighted the problems and benefits of each category. However, the answers regarding nature parks were very diverse: from “they have no obvious disadvantages” to “they are not protected areas and have no advantages”.

Regional Governance

Regional governance can be defined as a network-like collaboration between the state, the private sector and civil society, with the aim of coordinating the actions of different actors and regulation processes in common problem solving at the regional level (Fürst, 2005, 2006; Fürst et al., 2006; Pollermann, 2006). Because of the contemporary trends (globalisation, regionalisation, integration, etc.), regional governance processes have become very significant also in protected areas. New actors are undertaking former state tasks in protected areas, especially against the background of increasingly scarce financial resources of public authorities. When the experts were asked about their views on and associations with regional governance, their answers could be divided into two perspectives: the analytical and the normative. With regard to the first, terms such as complex, linked cooperation, bottom-up dominance, formal and informal institutions, goal-oriented control of social development, interaction of all relevant participants and participation of the local population were mentioned. With respect to the second, the most important statements were about the term itself (fashionable term or no common agreement on the term). All the respondents (12) agreed that regional governance is about complex and linked cooperation. However, ‘complex’ should be defined and it is perhaps more about the proactive cooperation between all actors and agencies. Most of the respondents agreed that regional governance refers to formal and informal institutions (11). Ten experts agreed that regional governance is ideally linked with interaction between all the relevant participants and includes actors from the state, civil society and the economy. The participation and involvement of the local population is fundamental but often not achieved. Most of the specialists (10) did not agree that regional governance is about purely bottom-up dominance. They stated that in practice it is better understood as “down/up” (impact from above, influence also ‘down’, but rarely truly bottom-up). Some experts (2) stated that in their experience, regional governance was simply more top-down dominance. Although the concept of regional governance was introduced a while ago, the majority of experts (10) agreed that there is no common agreement on the term.

Answers to the question of whether regional governance is really regional governance if the government continues to pull the strings were diverse. Six experts stated that it is definitely the case, two did not agree and four had no opinion. In the last Delphi round we asked the experts to provide a final statement about whether governance is a bottom-up approach. The response was that

governance is often induced top-down, but remains bottom-up in principle. A reason for this could be that the financial resources for the instruments often come from the top.

However, both normatively derived and analytically detected governance were also reported to include a regionally appropriate mixture of bottom-up and top-down. The question is not about top-down or bottom-up, but about achieving the right mix to meet the overarching objectives.

One expert wrote the following: “Governance is not an end in itself but a management model. Governance of protected areas always contains a proportion of government and top-down (even the private protected areas), because they claim benefit from state regulations and/or must observe them.”

4.6 Conclusion and recommendations

It is becoming more generally accepted that the Delphi method can achieve important results that are impossible using another method (Okoli & Pawlowski, 2004). The results of this Delphi survey support this view (see also Mehnen et al., 2010). The Delphi method is predominantly known as a method for predicting the outcome of complex future developments, but is increasingly being used to obtain expert judgments on concrete facts (Häder, 2000), as was done here. It proves that this works well with respect to the debate on the application of the protected area categories, as well as understanding different models for regional governance.

The first recommendation is to clarify the objectives of the survey. The second is to check whether using Delphi is appropriate and whether there are sufficient resources for Delphi (time, knowledge, etc.). Delphi has its advantages and disadvantages, as described above. To summarise, Delphi is time-consuming for the researcher, especially when the questionnaire is conducted in different languages, but its main benefits are its adaptability and the possibility of including fresh questions in subsequent rounds, and also that experts can comment on each other’s answers and adapt their views.

We received interesting and unexpected answers during the different rounds of the Delphi survey—we doubt that we would have obtained them with any other method. The Delphi method helped us obtain a broad range of information and create a differentiated picture of the different categories. A consensus about the protected area categories is not necessarily required: there will always be differences in understanding and definition. However, within a Delphi survey, each expert is able to reconsider his or her opinion. It appears that by virtue of its subsequent rounds, the Delphi method is able to create clarity about vague concepts. This is clearly the main strength of the Delphi method. The experts see the responses and answers from the other participants and this can influence subsequent rounds.

The IUCN classification system is acknowledged by experts and is intended to enable a consistent comparison between protected areas across the world. This means that national parks, when classified under IUCN Category V, have different objectives from national parks classified as IUCN Category II. The ongoing debate about these categories and their redefinition helps make them reliable and tangible.

Biosphere reserves belong to the most important protected areas, but other protected area categories are also becoming model regions for sustainable development. All categories have advantages and disadvantages and are context and situation dependent. Protected landscapes, classified as IUCN Category V, have become important in Europe in recent years, especially in Western Europe (Gaston et al., 2008; Hamin, 2002). IUCN Category V areas were regarded by the respondents as important, although the same respondents have doubts about their contribution to sustainable nature management. Governance in protected areas is undeniably a crucial topic in almost every scientific debate on nature conservation and regional development: this is also a central result of this Delphi survey. The main reasons for this are the changing role of the state, pressure from different users and the increasing number of protected areas. Experts generally support the opinion that governance reflects a desire for increased participation by all actors, but that does not always mean equal relationships between them (Derkzen, 2008; Sherlock et al., 2004; Taylor, 2000). It is often argued, also by some of the Delphi experts, that the state continues to retain actual authority and decision-making power, and that goals and objectives are often predefined by state actors. However, regional governance remains regional governance even if the state defines the goals. Based on the Delphi survey, we argue that regional governance structures are more readily found in protected landscapes where bottom-up approaches are required and where multiple interests have to be taken into account. Protected areas emphasise their objectives differently and achieve them with varying degrees of success. Whether an area is more than a paper tiger or a marketing instrument for tourism therefore depends less on its category than on the prevailing institutional structure, political support and acute threats. These results impact the assignment of existing protected areas to different categories within the World Database on Protected Areas (UNEP-WCMCWDPA) and on protected area systems planning. It is important to have an internationally recognised and valued classification system, but in governance terms it is less important what category a protected area belongs to, so long as it fulfils its objectives.

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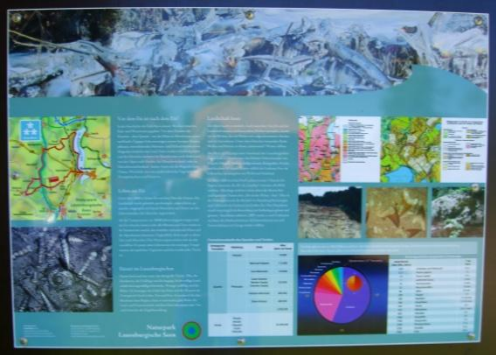
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Chapter 5 Governance and sense of place: half a century of a German nature park



*Impressions from Nature Park
Lauenburgische Seen (D)*

5. Governance and sense of place: half a century of a German nature park¹²

Abstract

The purpose of this article is to analyse the relationship between sense of place and the governance of nature parks. Sense of place has been well researched, including in protected areas, but its relationship to and influence on the governance structure of a protected area has received little attention thus far. Over the last few years, the concept of (regional) governance has been increasingly used with respect to protected areas. It is often stated that governance actually reflects a desire for increased participation of the local population. We argue that regional governance structures will come about more easily in IUCN Category V protected landscapes, where bottom-up approaches are required and multiple interests have to be taken into account. The findings from a case study on the German Lauenburg Lakes Nature Park, one of the oldest nature parks in Germany, are explored against this background. Today, this nature park faces new challenges (e.g. structural and demographical changes, financial insecurity, weaker legislation, and pressure on nature conservation) and it is important to consider in which direction it wants to develop. More attention to regional governance and sense of place is important to improving the standing and acceptance of the park and to strengthening both regional development and biodiversity protection.

5.1 Introduction

There are many different actors and interests involved in nature parks (Liesen and Köster, 2005). These areas are a special type of IUCN¹³ category V areas¹⁴. According to the IUCN definition, they are protected landscapes that have developed through the interaction of human beings with nature. They have little or no wilderness, but they are often rich in biological and cultural diversity (Schenk et al., 2007). In Europe, nature parks sometimes have slightly different names and objectives (Mose, 2007; Mehnen et al., 2010; <http://www.european-parks.org/index.php>).

According to the IUCN Guidelines, the definition of a Category V protected landscape/seascape is ‘a protected area where the interaction of people and nature over time has produced an area of distinct character with significant ecological, biological, cultural and scenic value and where safeguarding the integrity of this interaction is vital to protecting and sustaining the area and its associated nature conservation and other values’ (Dudley, 2008, p. 20).

¹² This chapter is reprinted from Mehnen, N., Mose, I. & Strijker, D. (2013): Governance and sense of place: half a century of a German nature park. *Environmental Policy and Governance*. 23, 46–62. DOI: 10.1002/eet.1592.

¹³ The International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) was founded in 1948 as the International Union for the Protection of Nature (or IUPN) following an international conference in Fontainebleau, France. They define how protected area systems develop and how they are managed.

¹⁴ In 1994 the IUCN defined the following six different categories of protected areas, still valid today: Category Ia (Strict nature reserve), Category Ib (Wilderness area), Category II (National park), Category III (Natural monument or feature), Category IV (Habitat/species management area), Category V (Protected landscape/ Seascape) and Category VI (Protected area with sustainable use of natural resources) (IUCN, 1994; Dudley, 2008; www.iucn.org).

IUCN Category V aims to combine protection and use, meaning that protected areas are eventually able to become instruments of regional development (Hammer, 2003). Nature parks have been long underestimated or interpreted unilaterally as recreational areas (Mose, 2007). Currently, they receive special attention for the simple reason that they permit both protection and development (Mose and Weixlbaumer, 2007; Elbersen, 2005). Category V protected areas carry with them a considerable risk of tension between conservation and the major land uses – mostly agriculture and forestry but also recreation and tourism as well as traffic needs and the economy. As we want to further analyse the tension between development and protection and especially the role of the actors involved, we concentrate on this IUCN Category V. Lauenburg Lakes Nature Park in northern Germany is a good example, with several conflicts arising: for instance, some NGOs would like to turn the Lauenburg Lakes Nature Park into a biosphere reserve, whereas inhabitants, fearing stricter regulation, would prefer the status quo to persist. There is also a problem in designating a landscape protection area (German: Landschaftsschutzgebiet). The fear is that a park will become merely a tourism marketing brand and will not sufficiently contribute to the protection of nature and biodiversity.

However, a CIPRA study in 2006 demonstrated that new services and new products strongly linked to biodiversity can benefit both regional development and biodiversity protection (Jungmeier et al., 2006). The relationship between the images of nature that different actors have in mind (nature is a social construct: Groote et al., 2006) and their position in the governance structure has largely been absent from scientific debate thus far.

It is often claimed that governance reflects a desire for increased local participation, but that does not necessarily imply an equal relationship between all stakeholders and actors (Taylor, 2000; Sherlock et al., 2004; Derkzen, 2008). On the contrary, it is argued that ‘the state’ retains the actual authority to define goals and objectives and make decisions. Important in this context is the unequal distribution of resources (Stokman, 2004; Dijkstra et al., 2008). Van Marissing et al. (2006) state that, in an urban context, networks and partnerships result partly from the way in which governance is organized. This can be transferred to protected areas because, in general, where many actors have the opportunity to participate in governance structures, the chance that networks, collaborations and cooperative activities will emerge is greater. In this context, sense of place, especially place attachment, is very relevant.

In areas where the place attachment of residents and firms is high, it is easier to organize the local community; correspondingly, where governance structures are able to organize people, place attachment becomes greater (Van Marissing et al., 2006). It is thus a two-way relationship: place attachment improves regional governance and regional governance influences place attachment and place identity.

Regional governance structures are stimulated more easily in IUCN Category V areas where bottom-up approaches are required and multifunctionality is the key element because, by definition, more actors will thereby be present (such as state actors, NGOs, entrepreneurs, residents, landowners and nature conservationists).

The purpose of this article is to analyse the relationship between sense of place and the governance of nature parks, using the Lauenburg Lakes Nature Park in Germany as an example. This paper intends to contribute to the practical debate on organizing participatory governance, but also to the on-going theoretical debates by focusing on sense of place and governance.

The main research questions are the following.

How is governance implemented in nature parks?

What are the options for public participation (for better sustainable outcomes)?

Is there a relationship between the governance structure and sense of place?

Rather than providing a holistic description of the governance situation of the park, we address and offer recommendations on how to strengthen the position of the park and its role in sustainable regional development (one of the aims of this type of park). The main reason for choosing Lauenburg Lakes Nature Park as a case study is that it is an old and well established park, currently under considerable pressure to change. The park is an interesting example because of its history, its organizational and management characteristics, the specific role of nature parks in Schleswig-Holstein in general and the role of NGOs. However, we believe that the results can also be transferred to other parks. An additional reason is that our own investigations can be related to other researchers' findings (Harteisen et al., 2010).

We shall first sketch the theoretical framework and also pay attention to the institutional setting, to the actors with their resources, orientations and interests, and especially to sense of place, to actor constellations and to modes of interactions. This is based on the work of Leibenath et al. (2010), who refer to transboundary cooperation. However, we transferred this concept to protected landscapes because we think that this approach is valuable for any actor analysis in any spatial context. We shall then describe our research methodology. Finally, we shall present the case study area and our empirical findings, conclusions and recommendations.

5.2 Theoretical Foundations and Dependencies

Research into the management of protected landscapes can draw on the large body of literature on governance in general, and on theories of actor networks, interorganizational coordination, regional governance and participation more specifically (for an overview see Pierre, 2000; Kooiman, 2003; Reed, 2008; Van Kersbergen and VanWaarden, 2004; Klijn, 2008; Abrams et al., 2003; Stoll-Kleemann and Bertzky, 2005). In science (see for example Macnaghten and Jacobs, 1997, or

Pimpert and Pretty, 1995) but also in policy (see for example the EU Public Participation Directive 2003/35/EC, European Commission, 2003, or the European Commission's White Paper on Governance, Commission of the European Communities, 2001), the assumption that governance – and hence the participation of non-state actors in environmental decision-making and management – leads to a better outcome and to greater acceptance has become widely accepted. However, as Newig and Fritsch (2009) state, this has not been systematically and empirically verified. Our theoretical framework is grouped on three levels: institution, actors and area, and consists of various elements (see Figure 5.1), focusing especially on the relationship between governance structures and sense of place.

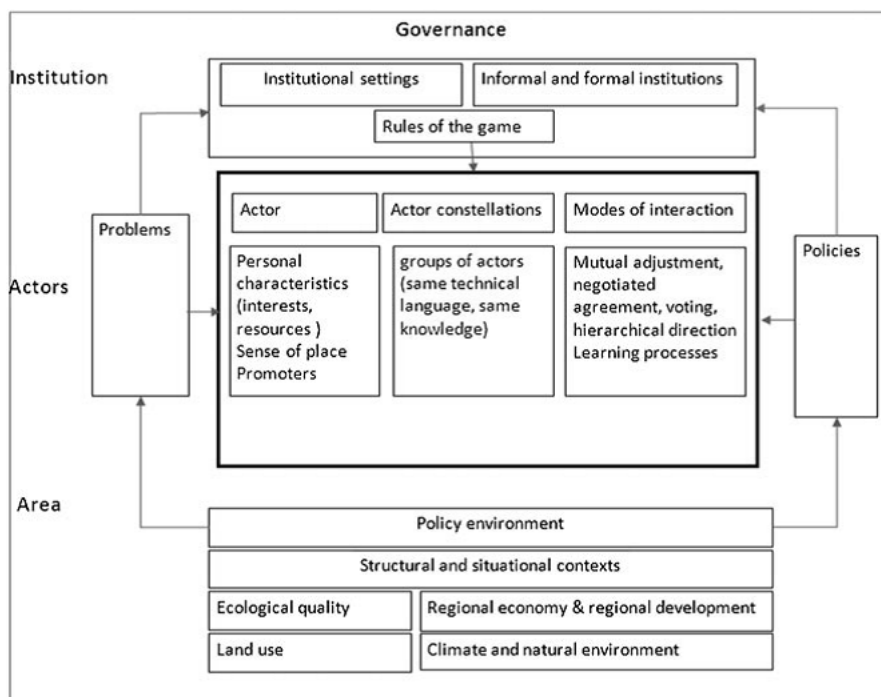


Figure 5.1: Theoretical framework (based on Gailing & Keim, 2006, modified; Scharpf, 1997, modified; Arts et al., 2006, modified; Leibenath et al., 2010, modified; Van Tatenhove et al., 2000, modified)

The classification that we use in this figure derives from broader, more general frameworks such as actor-centred institutionalism (Mayntz and Scharpf, 1995; Scharpf, 1997). The main issues are discussed below. In this paper we focus mainly on the actor level, but we are aware that the institutional and area levels also influence the governance structure of a park.

Governance concerns how social relationships and interactions are coordinated. In addition to this general sense – governance as ‘social coordination’ (Mayntz, 1998) – governance is explicitly understood as network-like structures involving different actors from the public and private sectors. Fürst et al. (2006) differentiate between actors from three sectors: the ‘state’, the ‘economy’ and ‘civil society’. We use this classification because it is applicable to actors in any spatial context, hence also to protected landscapes. Regional governance emphasizes the increasing importance of

coordinating the actions of different actors and regulation processes for problem-solving at the regional level (Fürst, 2006). Today, regional governance is used both in a normative and an analytical sense, and they are sometimes confused (Böcher, 2008). We are aware of both senses and use them separately. In this article we concentrate more on the analytical perspective. Political responsibility for regions is no longer solely defined in terms of administrative levels and borders (e.g. governmental districts), but also through the concept of regional governance, which considers a region to be a dynamic area in which actors cooperate, which is formed due to the density of the social relationships between them (Böcher, 2008).

Theorists disagree in their views on the consequences for the role of the state: whereas some claim that the state remains in possession of the majority of decision-making powers, others perceive the state's role as decreasing (Van der Zouwen, 2006; Van Bommel, 2008). We believe that the position of the state remains important, but that other actors have gained considerable influence. This has major consequences for decision-making:

negotiation and bargaining have become more important than ever; top-down planning becomes less effective and multi-actor governance – the mode of steering in which non-state actors such as NGOs, private parties and citizens (Kooiman, 1993; Pierre, 2000) are also involved – will be increasingly common.

Institutional Level

Institutions are 'relatively stable collections of communicative practices and rules defining appropriate behaviour for specific groups of actors in specific situations' (Risse, 2002, p. 604). They encompass 'not only formal legal rules that are sanctioned by the court system and machinery of the state, but also social norms that actors will generally respect and whose violation will be sanctioned by loss of reputation, social disapproval, withdrawal of cooperation and rewards' (Scharpf, 1997, p. 38). Informal and formal institutions and the rules of the game are therefore the key concepts at this level.

Actor Level

Actors are by definition of central importance in this approach. They may or may not be sincerely interested in a project, and they may or may not possess personal characteristics beneficial for cooperation, such as language skills and social competences or resources in terms of time, money, knowledge or authority (Leibenath et al., 2010; Skelcher and Sullivan, 2008; Derkzen, 2008).

Promoters are actors who actively and intensively foster a process: they are key persons (Fürst et al., 2006; see also Diller, 2002). Promoters can be differentiated into power promoters, professional or expert promoters and process promoters (Witte, 1973; Hauschildt and Keim 1997).

The concepts of sense of place, place attachment, belonging and identity are also important with regard to protected areas. Carrus et al. (2005) demonstrate the positive role of general and specific pro-environmental attitudes, and the positive role of regional identity, in predicting support for the protected areas considered.

‘Sense of place’ is defined by Jorgensen and Stedman (2001) as the meaning that is attached to a spatial environment – a place – by (groups of) people (see also Trell and Van Hoven, 2010; Trell et al., 2012). Jorgensen and Stedman (2001) distinguish three dimensions of sense of place: (a) place attachment, (b) place identity and (c) place dependency (see also Vanclay et al., 2008). Place theorists speculate that individuals who are emotionally, cognitively or functionally attached to a place will act (or become more active) to protect that place (Tuan, 1977; Relph, 1976). Empirical research has shown that this is true in several different contexts.

These settings include neighbourhoods and communities (Mesch and Manor, 1998; Shumaker and Taylor, 1983), heritage sites (Hawke, 2010; Dicks, 2000; Ashworth et al., 2007; Groote and Haartsen, 2008), parks and protected areas (Williams and Roggenbuck, 1989; Kaltenborn and Williams, 2002; Walker and Chapman, 2003) and recreational landscapes (Bricker and Kerstetter, 2002; Kaltenborn, 1998; Kyle et al., 2005; Stedman, 2002; Vaske and Kobrin, 2001; Vorkinn and Riese, 2001). Despite the actors’ different resources, orientations and interests, place attachment and the image and identity of a protected landscape play an important – although unequal – role for each of the actors involved (regional governance) (Fürst, 2006).

Actor constellation represents the groups of actors using the same technical language and sharing the same knowledge (the same discourse), but actually working in different and competing contexts, such as government agencies, interest groups, consultancies and NGOs (see also Van Bommel, 2008; Derkzen, 2008). Stokman and Vieth (2004) provide a heuristic model for the elaboration of microfoundations for social network analysis. Social capital (resources) and social exchanges are crucial concepts when choosing which social relationships to study

and for selecting which structural aspects to expect to be of importance. They underline the importance of the content of the relationships and state that individuals typically have common or opposed interests. Therefore, following Stokman and Vieth (2004), we shall evaluate the resources, interests and relationships of the main actor groups.

Modes of interaction can be distinguished after Scharpf (1997) as ‘mutual adjustment’, ‘negotiated agreement’, ‘voting’ and ‘hierarchical direction’. Moreover, learning processes are directly related to interaction and they are essential to governance processes (Hall, 1993; Bennett and Howlett, 1992).

Area Level

Different structural and situational characteristics play a role. Usually they are non-institutional factors. Aspects of the structural context include the geographic size of the protected landscape, communication infrastructures and the quality of transport systems, and the level of economic development (Leibenath et al., 2010, p. 86).

5.3 Research Methodology

Our empirical analysis of the Lauenburg Lakes Nature Park focuses in particular on the relationship between governance and sense of place. The theoretical foundations and dependencies compiled were used to generate the research criteria as summarized in Table 5.1. Each category thus consists of different key elements divided into several indicators or criteria.

Table 5.1: Research criteria

Categories	Key elements	Criteria/indicators
Actors	Actor	Involvement of actors from all three sectors (the state, civil society, the economy) Missing or excluded actors
	Sense of place	Place attachment Place identity Place dependency Image (internal and external perceptions of the region) Reasons/motivation, interests, resources
	Other reasons/motivation for engagement	
Actor constellations	Roles and goals of actors	Promoters Power relations
Modes of interaction	Cooperation and networking of actors	Actors' willingness to cooperate and participate Cooperation intensity and climate
	Learning processes	Learning processes

Our empirical research rests on three pillars:

- a document analysis of existing literature, plans and concepts
- a series of semi-structured, open-ended, in-depth interviews
- various on-site visits to the nature park.

Our semi-structured in-depth interviews were based on an interview guideline with thematic topics and specific questions. The issues and questions were derived from the theoretical framework and covered the three research categories explained above. We conducted 14 in-depth interviews with actors from each sector (state, civil society and the economy). The interviewees included representatives from the nature park authorities, the local conservation agencies (NGOs), the farmers' union, the tourism marketing and service organization, and local entrepreneurs (see Figure 5.2).

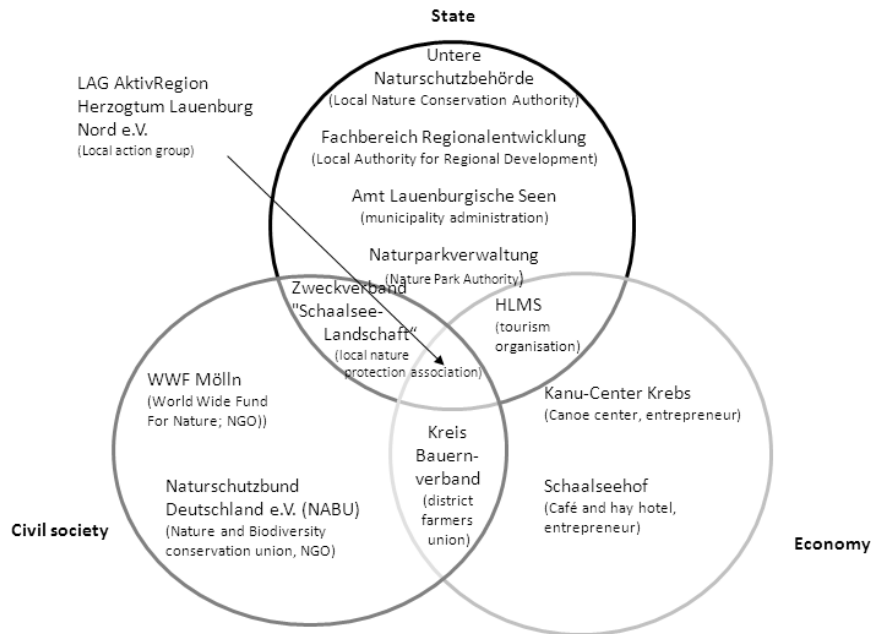


Figure 5.2: Interviewed actors differentiated into the three sectors: ‘state’, ‘civil society’ and ‘economy’ (Source: Fürst et al., 2006; modified)

The interviews lasted between 45 and 60 minutes and were held during the summer of 2010 – all were conducted face to face. Initial contact was made with actors involved in the park, providing them with details of the research and requesting their support. The aim was to complete at least two interviews within each sector in order to obtain the depth of information required and to permit cross-referencing of responses.

Subsequent contact was made with all potential respondents, who were provided with more information and booked for an interview. The interviews were summarized and analysed and the responses were initially categorized and interpreted according to topics within the interview guideline according to the concept of qualitative content analysis (Mayring, 2000).

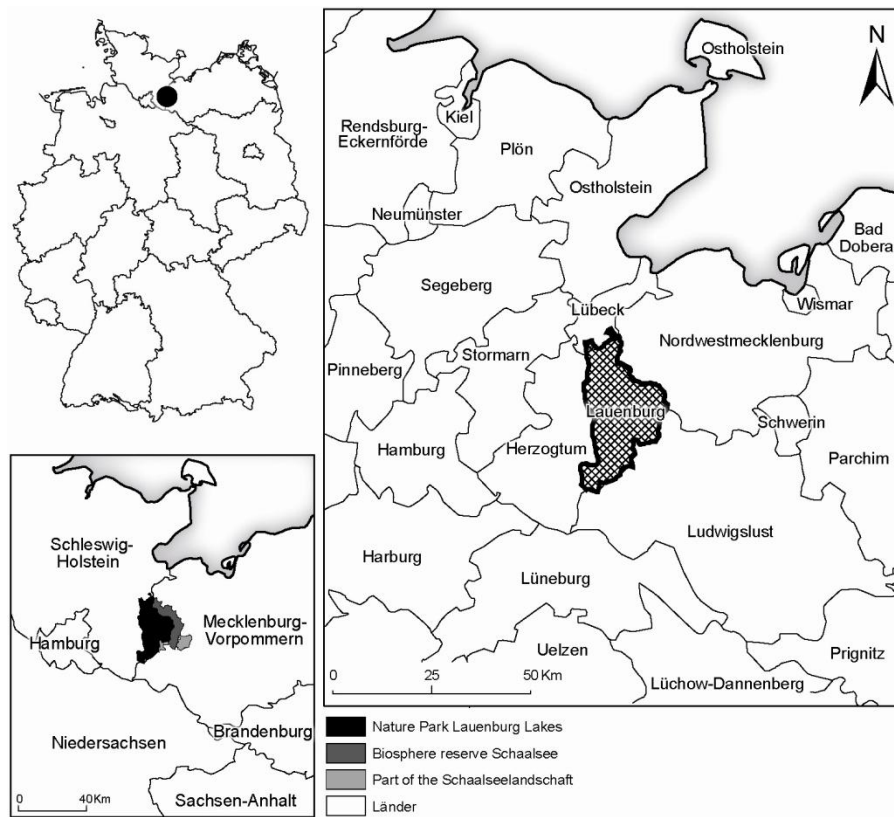
A document analysis of important nature park documents such as the Nature Park Plan (German: Einrichtungs- und Entwicklungsplan) was conducted. We paid site visits to the nature park region, where we visited nature park attractions such as the Nature Park Barn (German: Naturparkscheune) in Hollenbeck to learn about the work of the nature park authority. The site visits, observations, the interviews and the document analysis were the basis for our analysis.

5.4 Lauenburg Lakes Nature Park

Lauenburg Lakes Nature Park (German: Naturpark Lauenburgische Seen) is one of 103 nature parks in Germany (see www.naturparke.de). The park was founded in 1960 and is located in the

county of Herzogtum Lauenburg in the southeast of the German state of Schleswig-Holstein, covering over 470 square kilometres (Ehrich, 1995).

It is right on the border with the state of Mecklenburg-Vorpommern (former GDR) in the Schleswig-Holstein Uplands, a young drift moraine landscape that was formed during the Weichselian glaciation of the last ice age. The district towns of Ratzeburg and Mölln form parts of the park. The Herzogtum Lauenburg county is located in the extended catchment area of the metropolis of Hamburg (60 km) and the city of Lübeck (30 km) (see Map 5.1).



Map 5.1: Lauenburg Lakes Nature Park

The region, with its various natural and cultural structures and strong interconnections between central and peripheral ranges, possesses its own character. Agriculture and forestry continue to be important industries.

A nature park trail (German: Naturparkweg) runs through the park and links it to the other four nature parks in Schleswig-Holstein. Lauenburg Lakes Nature Park and the east-bordering Schaalsee Biosphere Reserve offer great potential for nature protection and landscape development (cf. Neumann, 1973). At the same time, they are and always have been attractive for various kinds of leisure and recreational use (cf. Niehoff, 2008; Kuhmann, 2005).

Of the nature park, 7.4 per cent is designated as nature conservation areas, 12.7 per cent as Special Areas of Conservation (SACs) under the EU Habitats Directive, 21.7 per cent as EU Special Protection Areas (under the European Union Directive on the Conservation of Wild Birds) (Natura

2000 areas) and 1.5 per cent as Nature Forest Reserves based on information from the Nature Park Authority (from 2007).

Today, several developments in the park's villages and changes in the population are having an impact on it – such as the working population commuting to the nearby cities, in-migration of retirees and out-migration of young people (Kreis Herzogtum Lauenburg, 2010; Kuhmann, 2005).

History of the Park and its Future Prospects

As early as 1958, there were incipient efforts to create a nature park. Two years later, on 10 May 1960, the County Council decided unanimously to create the Nature Park 'Lauenburgische Seen'. It was the first nature park in Schleswig-Holstein and also one of the first in Germany. The park was intended to 'align the necessary protection of the landscape with the legitimate recreation claims of people' (Ehrich, 1995, p. 80). Twenty-five years later, there was a celebration of the park's anniversary, including important people from the nature park lobby such as the former president of the association of German Nature Parks and the Nature Park's founder, Dr Alfred Toepfer.

On 13 June 1995, a new formal declaration certificate for the Nature Park was signed by the Minister for Environment in Schleswig-Holstein, as the previous regulations had been declared void in a court case in 1994. On 10 May 2010 the Lauenburg Lakes Nature Park had its 50th anniversary, which was celebrated on 19 June with a nature experience day.

Today, in peak times the nature park employs nine staff and four from other institutions. In the past, the park has always been strongly financially supported by the German state, by Schleswig-Holstein and by the county district. In the future, the park will face financial cutbacks, have to cope with more visitors (which brings opportunities, but could also cause problems and threats) and demographic change (ageing) and have less space for strict nature conservation due to urbanization and changes in land use, as will many other protected areas (Dudley et al., 1999; Mose, 2007).

5.5 Analysis

Specific Characteristics – Governance Structure

There are some specific elements which have to be discussed before we can focus on the actor level. Since early 2010, landscape protection law in Schleswig-Holstein has profoundly changed, including the section on nature parks. For example, Section 27 of the Federal Nature Conservation Act (Bundesnaturschutzgesetz, BNatSchG) does not apply in Schleswig-Holstein; in other words, the important regional development role of nature parks is missing. Nature conservation concerns have also been weakened. In contrast, other German federal state districts have made their nature protection laws stricter. Lower Saxony, for example, has improved its nature parks by prescribing that they must

largely consist of landscape protection areas or nature conservation areas and must have a responsible body to develop and maintain the park appropriately. Hence, nature conservation associations such as the NABU voiced the criticism that the nature parks in Schleswig-Holstein did not help strengthen the regional identity of the local population or protect nature and landscape adequately (NABU Schleswig-Holstein, not dated).

The responsible body for the Lauenburg Lakes Nature Park is the district administration Herzogtum Lauenburg. This is unusual in the German context, as often special purpose organizations, registered associations or other, public bodies perform this role.

The declaration of the park from 1995 specifies its protection purpose, its demarcated area and its goals. Of great importance is also the Nature Park Plan (TGP, 2003), which defines concrete measures for nature protection and the improvement of recreational infrastructure, and which was developed at the request of the Nature Park Authority.

One aim of this plan is to enhance the attractiveness, awareness and image of the park.

The institutional setting can be described as a mixture of hierarchical governance and multi-level governance (Van Bommel, 2008). In a sense, a single actor unilaterally defines problems and aims, makes decisions and has them implemented (cf. Jordan et al., 2005): here, the chief district administrator is the state. However, the Nature Park Authority is aware that multi-actor governance is important to fulfilling its tasks. In particular, multiple actors are included and engaged in projects. Based on our data, especially through the interviews, it became clear that the Lauenburg Lakes Nature Park is well established and its organizational structure is adequate. The Nature Park Authority has learned to treat personal relationships with the different actors as a priority. The park is characterized by an empathic management style, which is sensitive to people and place, and is pursuing a coherent strategy for environmental education and recreation.

Actors and their Resources, Interests and Relationships

The types of actors involved in the nature park are many (see Figure 5.3), but only a few are really engaged in the park's management process. Actors from all three sectors – civil society, state and the economy – are included for the realization of specific projects. These actors differ in interests and resources. There are some strong forms of cooperation and ties with tourism entrepreneurs, who benefit from the nature park in various ways. One important issue is the establishment of an environmental education infrastructure, which includes observation towers and information boards:

“So, I have the nature park as a partner here on the camp site, first because of the [new] hiking trail and then because I said that since there is now a hiking trail, it would be appropriate to install some other elements. They [the Nature Park Authority] have therefore built a wood organ [German:

Klangorgel], a texture board [German: Fühlbrett] and two information boards [German: Infotafeln] here.” (interview with entrepreneur, 28 May 2010).

The state actors (e.g. municipalities) use the nature park for promotional purposes. Other actors also use the ‘nature park’ label for the promotion of their own businesses, for example, real estate agents and tourism entrepreneurs. Nature park promoters often belong to civil society or the public sector (Fürst, 2006). Various individuals (several entrepreneurs and nature conservationists), the Nature Park Authority and the Tourism Marketing and Service Organization (HLMS) can be identified as promoters. For example, an entrepreneur started a cultural event along the Schaalsee Canal (Kultursommer am Kanal). Indeed, there is a balance between power promoters, professional promoters and the process promoters from all three sectors (civil society, state and economy). Individual farmers and other landowners are also powerful and influential: they can be identified as professional promoters. They become even stronger when collectively organized, through farmers’ unions for example.

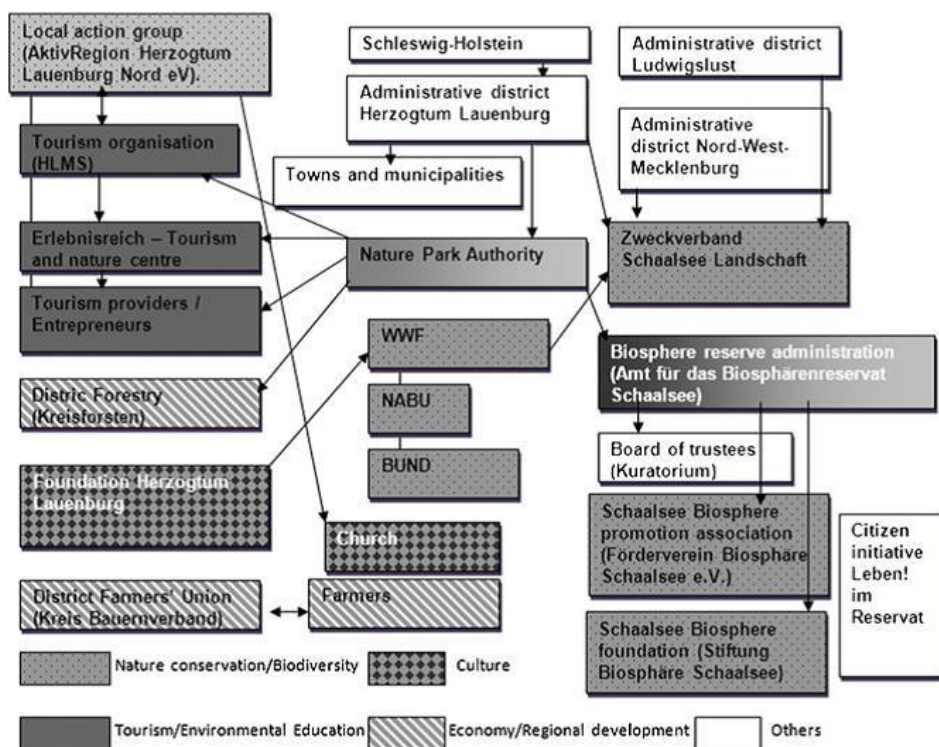


Figure 5.3: Spectrum of the actors in the nature park, sorted by interests and functions (Source: following Gailing and Keim, 2006, modified)

The development of the park is defined in a more or less top-down manner. The responsible body, represented by the chief district administrator, naturally plays a significant role and has to agree to almost every decision.

Sense of Place

As stated above, the place attachment, image and identity of the park play an important role for each of the actors involved in the park (Fürst, 2006). In this case there is no strong special regional identity, no 'Lauenburger' to contrast with the inhabitants of other German regions (for example, Eichsfeld; interview Regional Development Authority, 31 May 2010), but the park's place attachment – especially the attachment to nature and landscape – is very high (interview with LAG AktivRegion Herzogtum Lauenburg Nord e.V., 19 May 2010). Most of the actors interviewed felt strongly attached to the nature park region and also in general judged the place attachment of local people to the region to be high. Place attachment can be emotional, functional or cognitive. In the current case, the type of attachment found is mostly emotional and closely related to nature and landscape. This is significant because high levels of place attachment encourage place-specific pro-environmental behaviour (Stewart and Kirby, 1998; Mitchell et al., 1993; Vaske and Kobrin, 2001). During the in-depth interviews the respondents were asked if their attachment to the nature park region had changed over time. All of the interviewees stated that their attachment had always been high. In general, the region has a long history of having a strong sense of place. As early as 1952, 8 years before the founding of the Lauenburg Lakes Nature Park, the association of municipalities in the district (Landgemeindevorband) came up with the idea of doing something to preserve the beauty of its villages. The 'Beauty of the village' contest was thus launched (Ehrich, 1995).

This and other contests soon developed into the nationwide competition 'Our village should become more beautiful', today, 'Our village has future'. This shows that the population of the district has always valued beautiful villages and their surroundings.

As in most nature parks, internal and external perceptions of the nature park region are diverse (Mehnen and Mose, 2009). The internal image, held by the inhabitants of the region, was characterized by the interviewees with the keywords 'forest', 'water' and 'landscapes'. The external image – the image held by visitors – is strongly connected to nature and the landscape. One actor reported that many tourists say that the area looks 'like Sweden'.

To summarize, the inhabitants identify the nature park as 'home', but its declaration as a park itself is less important (Mehnen and Mose, 2009). Rather, visitors identify the nature park as a 'place for recreation' – again, the designation as a park seeming less important. However, people do live in and visit the area especially because of the quality of the nature and the landscape protected by the authority. Accordingly, the nature park is used as a marketing tool by firms and organizations for example, rather than being viewed as an institution.

To summarize, all the interviewees have a relatively high sense of place. The sense of place of natives is perceived as even higher. This is comparable to findings of other studies (e.g. Hernandez

et al., 2007). Residents and non-residents have a different concept of identity and image for the region, and their level of attachment varied.

Actor Constellations

In the field of nature and landscape the Nature Park Authority collaborates with the local nature conservation authority (German: Untere Naturschutzbehörde), but this collaboration is usually project related and it has no involvement in the planning process (interview with local nature conservation authority, 18 May 2010).

Cooperation with the forestry authorities is a special case, resulting from the organizational structure. The authority entity for the nature park is the county district and most of the land is owned by the nature park itself. There are collaborations with the nature and environmental organizations NABU and WWF (e.g. a shared event calendar).

There are also cooperative initiatives with the water management agencies and private forest owners.

In the field of tourism the nature park works with HLMS, tourist service providers – for example, the Krebs canoe centres and the Schaalseehof – and the tourism organizations in Mölln and Ratzeburg. This has led to the use of nature park funds to finance parts of the infrastructure for canoe tourists (e.g. signs). The Nature Park Authority works with schools located within the park, and with local/regional media in the field of communication and education. Cooperation regarding sustainable regional development only involves the local authorities. The forms of collaboration are diverse, but could be further expanded. Experts from government agencies, from the Nature Park Authority and from the wider economy, such as private businesses, form powerful networks. They share the same technical language and knowledge (cf. Van Bommel, 2008; Derkzen, 2008). Some of the actors interviewed expressed the desire to be more involved in the management of the park. Following Stokman (2004), we evaluated the resources, interests and relationships of the main actor groups (see Table 5.2).

Under resources we summarized staff equipment (1–4, low; 5–9, medium; ≥ 10 , high; VDN, 2005), financial resources (budget: EUR 1000–250 000, low; EUR 250 000–700 000, medium; >EUR 700 000, high; VDN, 2005; Schlögl, 2008) and knowledge (low, medium and high; interviews). The potential/integral interests differ for each actor group, from environmental education to purely economic interests. Relationships were differentiated into strong, good, medium and weak. We used a three-point scale to score the actors' resources, interests and relationships (poor/low/weak; medium/average and good/ high/strong).

Table 5.2: Actor resources, interests and relationships

Actor	Resources	Interest	Relationships
Nature Park Authority	medium staff equipment, low financial resources, high regional knowledge	environmental education, nature conservation, high place attachment	strong relationships with tourism organization, with tourism entrepreneurs, with biosphere reserve authority and WWF
Administrative facilities (regional development and local nature conservation authority, mayors, municipalities, etc.)	staff equipment very diverse, low to medium financial resources, high regional knowledge	from nature conservation to regional development, medium place attachment	very diverse relationships with multiple actors (HMLS, Nature Park Authority)
District Forestry Service	medium staff equipment, low financial resources, high regional knowledge	economic interests, medium place attachment	strong relationships with the Nature Park Authority
Tourism organizations (HMLS)	medium staff equipment, medium financial resources	tourism, medium place attachment	good relationships with the Nature Park Authority, entrepreneurs
Nature conservation associations (WWF, NABU, BUND, Zweckverband Schaalseelandschaft)	low staff equipment, low financial resources, high regional knowledge	nature conservation, biodiversity, high place attachment	medium connections with local nature conservation authority and Nature Park Authority
Cultural facilities (Stiftung Herzogtum Lauenburg, churches etc.)	medium staff equipment, medium financial resources, high regional knowledge	social interest, nature conservation, high place attachment	medium relationships with nature organizations, local action group
Local action group (AktivRegion Herzogtum Lauenburg Nord e.V.)	low staff resources, medium financial resources, high regional knowledge	regional development, high place attachment	strong relationships with entrepreneurs, churches
Farmers	medium staff equipment, medium resources, high regional knowledge	economic interests, high place attachment	strong relationships with mayors and with farmers union, weak relationship with Nature Park Authority
Landowners (estate owners)	medium staff equipment, diverse financial resources, high regional knowledge	economic interests, private interests, high place attachment	some medium relationships with Nature Park Authority and administrative facilities

poor/low/weak
 medium/average
 good/high/strong.

The administrative facilities – thus the state actors – had the strongest influence. Accordingly, we expected that decisions would be made in their interest. Participatory and coordination procedures were initiated and to varying degrees also controlled by state actors. This central role for state actors also points to a high susceptibility of the governance processes to changes in governmental regimes and the state actors’ preferences. The state remains a strong ‘meta-governor’.

Modes of Interaction

The willingness of actors to cooperate was generally high. The Nature Park Authority reflects this in the following statement:

“I will also deliberately say completely that we rely on third parties, on partners, and that we can do this in this area with security in each field: nature protection, environmental education/environmental information and so on. . . also in regional development. There are partners everywhere and the really important thing is, in my view, that everyone understands each other and cooperates and that all the participants have the same aim, we try to achieve this somehow or other” (interview at Nature Park Authority, 18 May 2010).

Engagement is mostly connected to concrete projects. This implies that learning processes are relatively weak, because the cooperative initiatives are mostly limited to specific projects and are temporary in nature. Actors and stakeholders usually engage in these projects to pursue their own interests.

A steering group consisting of the Nature Park Authority, the tourism marketing and service organization (HLMS) and the local authorities for regional development meets regularly. Their concerns, which include the future development of the Lauenburg Lakes Nature Park region, are discussed and decided on. However, there is no regular meeting of a broader actor group. Regarding this question – whether there is a nature park round-table or working group, one interviewee answered:

“[There is no round table;] neither to discuss Lauenburg Lakes Nature Park nor regularly and systematically. If [there were round tables], then not all [actors sit at the same table], but on different tables, so to speak, and based on concrete projects. Therefore, there is no regular round table for Lauenburg Lakes Nature Park, so to speak, where all the stakeholders come together, no, there is none” (interview at local nature conservation authority, 18 May 2010).

This shows that formal communication and cooperation can and should be strengthened and concrete participation is desired by many actors.

5.6 Discussion and conclusion

The success of protected areas in general, and of nature parks in particular, depends on the appropriateness of their governance and management systems (e.g. organizational structure, adaptive planning tools) with regard to the local context and on broader economic and governance issues. Governments exert an important influence on many public matters, but they are only one among many powerful actors in the area of biodiversity management. There are often also multiple reasons for the failure of many protected landscapes, for example, a lack of institutional capacity and resources, the absence of political will or poor planning (Dudley et al., 1999), insufficient regard for local peoples' rights and governmental imposition upon inhabitants (Chapin, 2004) or a failure to obtain acceptance and the absence of a strong sense of place (Beckmann, 2003; Müller and Schaltegger, 2004). The analysis of governance and its relationship to sense of place can, therefore, help strengthen the future development of nature parks. In this article we have shown that it is very valuable to have knowledge of the actors, their interests and their resources – thus, the governance structures – to strengthen the park and to forecast a park's future.

Governance can enhance the development and effective functioning of Lauenburg Lakes Nature Park by exploiting its strengths and opportunities and especially by strengthening place attachment and place identity. Regarding the governance structure, the following key points can be concluded as a result of the interviews, observations and document analysis: Lauenburg Lakes Nature Park is well established and the organizational structure is sufficient and secure. The park staff have learned to treat personal relationships as a priority. This reinforces local respect and generates a constructive sense of stewardship. In essence, the success of this park lies in its empathic management style, its sensitivity to people and to place and its pursuit of a coherent strategy for environmental education and recreation. People who care about parks and protected areas do so for a reason: they have a direct personal stake. The various local actors show a strong sense of place. The spectrum of actors and their interests represented in Lauenburg Lakes Nature Park is manifold, though the state still plays the most important role. There have been efforts to encourage a broader perspective with regard to stakeholder participation, at least in projects concerning the development and implementation of new environmental infrastructure or the offer of new nature park activities. However, there remains a gap between policymakers and decision-makers, on the one hand, and those who are affected by them, on the other (García-Frapolli et al., 2009). This is partly due to the unequal distribution of resources (Stokman, 2004). The shift from government to governance is thus not yet complete.

Nature organizations such as the WWF, NABU, the Zweckverband Schaalsee-Landschaft and also the Nature Park Authority have attempted to have the Lauenburg Lakes Nature Park designated as a UNESCO biosphere reserve, ultimately to become a part of the existing Schaalsee Biosphere Reserve (Möllner/Ratzeburger MARKT, 2009). However, the municipalities and the inhabitants prefer it to remain ‘merely’ a nature park, clearly fearing stricter regulation.

Recommendations

Participation strategies such as round tables, the creation of a Lauenburg Lakes Nature Park association or a board of trustees are important strategies for the future, as is to connect actors through concrete projects at their own levels of interest. Though increasing public participation is not necessarily good or necessary in every case, in Lauenburg Lakes Nature Park, public participation could strengthen the park, place attachment, place identity and its role in sustainable regional development and nature conservation. Many actors are already in favour of the nature park and are aware of its value. The systematic involvement of these actors in decision-making processes, as well as enhancing new projects through the involvement of all actors, is therefore of crucial importance. Is there a relationship between the governance structure and sense of place? On

the basis of our results, we have been able to draw some conclusions on this relationship but further comparative research is still required. It is already apparent that the involvement of actors would increase place attachment and place identity, which again increases the willingness of people to protect nature and support the park, which in turn would further increase the involvement of actors (see Figure 5.4).

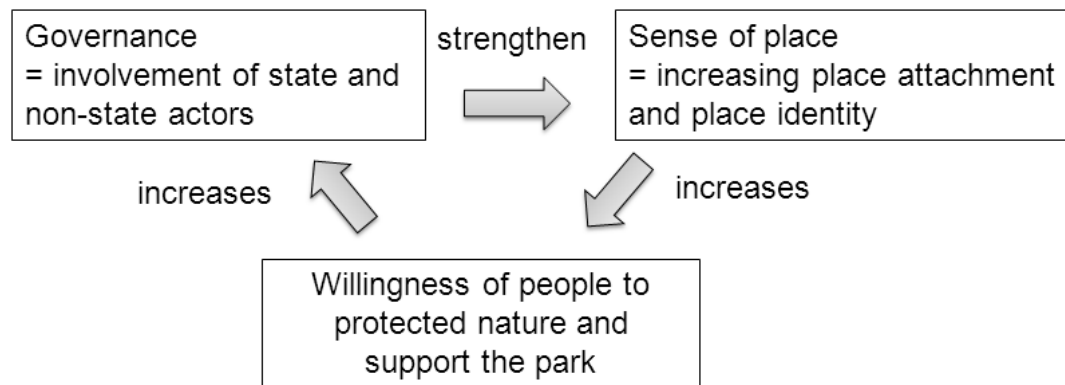


Figure 5.4: Relation of governance and sense of place

However, The Nature Park Authority has a crucial role due to its ability to balance and negotiate the interests of actors in a personal and empathetic way. Therefore, financial and personal resources are also required. The Nature Park Authority needs to emphasize the value of the park to inhabitants and tourists alike and the possibilities it offers to mutually strengthen nature conservation, regional development and tourism.

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Chapter 6 Actor involvement in protected landscapes - Evidence from the Peak District National Park, UK



*Impressions from Peak District
National Park (UK)*

6. Actor involvement in protected landscapes - Evidence from the Peak District National Park, UK¹⁵

Abstract

The English National Parks are designated to conserve, enhance and promote the natural beauty, wildlife and cultural heritage of areas of outstanding landscape value. The first national park to be designated was the Peak District National Park (PDNP) in 1951. The complexity of uses, involved interests and actors, and the external and internal pressures have increased significantly since then. The Peak District has been influenced and shaped by human habitation for thousands of years. The diversity of the present actors requires policies as (social) learning processes, and in order to be able to influence behaviour, governments and governance need to adapt to the motives and goals of the different actors. The role of coalitions and cooperation, as forms of interactive decision-making among actors, is crucial. Especially because the different actors have different interests and time horizons, and profess different discourses, such coalitions and cooperation must be attractive for all actors from every sector (state, economy and civil society). In this paper our research in the PDNP takes its inspiration from research by Thompson (2005) who adopted Foucault's 'governmentality' approach and Clark & Clarke (2010) who used the concept of adaptive governance. We conclude that coalitions, cooperation and projects must be seen as a process, an immediate result is sometimes less important.

6.1 Introduction

Beliefs, feelings and values towards protected areas worldwide are undergoing a fundamental series of changes with respect to their objectives and their performances (Stolton & Dudley 2000, p. 1). Two issues are of particular relevance. First, the increased emphasis on protected landscapes and seascapes¹⁶ and the acceptance that not all protected areas are strictly one-dimensional single-objective nature reserves, but that they include other human land uses as integral elements (Amend et al. 2008; Brown et al. 2004; Lucas 1992; Phillips 2002). Common activities in IUCN category V¹⁷ protected areas include farming, fishing, subsistence hunting, forestry, residential use and also small industries. Quite a number of protected areas of Western Europe are based on this model, e.g.

¹⁵ This chapter is reprinted from: Mehnen, N. (forthcoming): Actor involvement in protected landscapes - Evidence from the Peak District National Park, UK. *Europa Regional* (a peer reviewed quarterly journal).

¹⁶ According to the IUCN (International Union for Conservation of Nature) Guidelines, the definition of a protected landscape/seascape (IUCN category V) is 'a protected area where the interaction of people and nature over time has produced an area of distinct character with significant ecological, biological, cultural and scenic value and where safeguarding the integrity of this interaction is vital to protecting and sustaining the area and its associated nature conservation and other values' (DUDLEY 2008).

¹⁷ The IUCN has defined six categories of protected areas based on increasing human influence: from strict nature reserves (Ia) to protected areas with sustainable use of natural resources (VI) (IUCN 1994; DUDLEY 2008; www.iucn.org). National parks classified under IUCN category V are quite different from national parks classified under IUCN category II (National park) in Europe or the US.

the nature parks in Austria and in Germany or the regional nature parks in France. The English national parks are a prominent example within this category. Second, there is a growing awareness of the importance of good management within protected areas and recognition that this is often not being achieved (Stoll-Kleemann 2010; Hockings et al. 2006; Nolte et al. 2010). Coupled with this is a move to develop ways of measuring the effectiveness of management as a first stage in both identifying the problems and the ways in which these could be addressed (Stolton & Dudley 2000, p. 1). Recently a third issue has emerged in the discourse of protected areas, namely its governance (Abrams et al. 2003; Borrini-Feyerabend 2003; Borrini-Feyerabend et al. 2006; Balloffet & Martin 2007; Dearden et al. 2005; Graham et al. 2003; Brenner & Job 2012).

Because of geographical and historical characteristics, social structures, political organizations and planning cultures, European protected landscapes are highly heterogeneous. They show many differences, e.g. in the number of designated areas they have established, their legal structures, their tasks, as well as in their size in proportion to the country's surface area. However, they have certain characteristics in common. They almost always involve (rural) landscapes that are important for their traditional, often recreational and less intensive, land use.

Until now there has been little knowledge about the English approach to landscapes on the European continent and vice versa. For example, cooperation between national partner organizations and associations such as the Association of National Park Authorities (ANPA), the Fédération des Parcs Naturels Régionaux de France or the Association of Austrian Nature Parks (VNÖ) is not well developed. So on both sides improvements are required. The EUROPARC Federation, the umbrella federation of Europe's protected areas tries to stimulate this cooperation. The aim of this paper is to provide some insight into the English way of protecting inhabited landscapes.

The English national parks are designated for the conservation of the natural beauty and cultural heritage of areas of outstanding landscape value and the promotion of opportunities for public appreciation and enjoyment of the parks' special qualities (National Parks and Access to the Countryside Act 1949). Since 1995 they have had the additional purpose of promoting the economic and social well-being of park communities, and this is one of the reasons why they are classified under IUCN category V. Although they come under the local government, each national park has its own authority with responsibility for planning, conservation and recreation management. Thus, national parks focus on conservation and environmental education, while the National Park Authorities also have the duty of fostering social and economic well-being in the discharge of their two main responsibilities (Environment Act 1995).

There are currently 15 national parks in England and Wales. Ten were designated in the 1950s following the National Parks and Access to the Countryside Act 1949, the Broads was created in

1989, and the New Forest in 2005. The new South Downs National Park was designated on 31 March 2010, but the Authority had a year to prepare itself before it became fully operational in April 2011, including becoming the statutory Planning and Access Authority. The first national park to be designated was the Peak District National Park (PDNP) in 1951.

The parks cover about 10 % of the total land area of England and Wales: 9 % of England and 20 % of Wales. They attract around 100 million visitors a year. The two Scottish national parks cover 7 % of the land area of Scotland. At present Northern Ireland has no national park (see http://www.statistics.gov.uk/geography/nat_parks.asp).

The National Park Authorities must account for their performance to the Department for Environment, Food and Rural Affairs (Defra). They are not accountable to local authorities and local residents. They are free-standing local authorities, possessing some of the functions of conventional local authorities, but they also have many of the characteristics of non-departmental government bodies (Thompson 2008).

Since last year the English national parks have faced spending cuts of up to 30 %. This means that the National Park Authorities have to make the difficult decision on which area of work they eliminate. Communities, as well as policymakers and visitors, need to realize that a positive economic outlook for the people who live and work within the national parks is intrinsically linked to how well the parks are managed and funded. All National Parks are funded by the central government (PDNP about £ 8 million), plus income from sales, charges and fees and external funding. Related to this is a debate about the influence of the duty to promote economic and social well-being on the other objectives (such as protecting the landscape and promoting public enjoyment). The current situation has a major impact on the development of parks and their governance. Hence, the specific aim of this paper is to examine how to involve actors in protected landscapes, based on empirical evidence from the Peak District National Park, UK.

We¹⁸ compare our results with existing research by Thompson (2005) who used Foucault's governmentality approach and Clark & Clarke (2010) who applied the concept of adaptive governance. We want to answer the question of how actors can be involved in the governance of protected landscapes, and how they can create the capacity to act at the local level, something which was addressed by Clark & Clarke (2010) or Thompson (2005). The reasons and criteria for choosing the Peak District National Park (PDNP) are manifold. It was selected because it is classified as an IUCN category V area¹⁹ it carries an immense diversity of land use activities (conservation, farming, tourism, water supply, quarrying, game/fishing, housing), and it faces a

¹⁸ This paper is part of a PhD research conducted at the University of Groningen and supervised by Prof. Dr. Dirk Strijker (University of Groningen, The Netherlands) and Prof. Dr. Ingo Mose (Carl von Ossietzky University Oldenburg, Germany).

¹⁹ The English and Welsh national parks are effectively "managed landscapes", and are classified as IUCN Category V Protected Landscapes because of this. This study was part of a broader project regarding protected landscapes in Europe.

wide range of social, economic, political and environmental pressures. The Peak District is a typical UK upland and mountainous region in Europe, which tends to be economically marginal, environmentally sensitive and subject to many often conflicting types of land use. The competing demands of conservation, water supply, recreation and tourism, agriculture, quarrying and game management have led to conflicts of interests between many actors.

In the next sub-section we introduce the theoretical concepts of governmentality and adaptive governance. We also present our theoretical framework. Then we describe the Peak District National Park. In the section which follows, we explain the methodological framework and reveal the results of our analysis. We conclude with recommendations for how to involve actors in governance processes in protected landscapes.

6.2 Theoretical considerations

Governmentality was introduced by Foucault to study the autonomous individual's capacity for self-control and how this is linked to forms of political rule and economic exploitation (Foucault 1991). Governmentality can be understood as the art of government in a broader sense, i.e. with an idea of government that is not limited to state politics alone, that includes a wide range of techniques of control, and that applies to a wide variety of objects, from one's control of the self to the control of populations. Another understanding is the organized practices (mentalities, rationalities, and techniques) through which subjects are governed (Mayhew 2004). Foucault's concept has been redefined by others, for example by Hunt & Wickham (1994), Kerr (1999) or Dean (1999).

Thompson (2005) adopts the governmentality approach to understand change within government. She argues that a focus on behaviours, practices and conduct is highly applicable to the analysis of inter-institutional relations (Thompson 2005, p. 324). In Thompson's understanding, Foucault's concept of governmentality is concerned with the study of the operation of government, both in terms of the institutions of the state and the power relations that permeate society. Thompson differentiates between two approaches to the use of governmentality in rural governance. The first, the 'classical approach', involves the adoption of Foucault's ideas of how government collects information in order to be able to act upon the population and justify its interventions. As a typical example she introduced the study by Murdoch & Ward (1997) of the 'National Farm' in post-war Britain. The second type of study is what Thompson calls 'neo-Foucauldian' studies which have emerged since the late 1990s and involve highlighting how government increasingly acts through populations, consciously blurring the boundary between 'the government' and 'the population' (Murdoch 1997). These studies of the role of government in rural localities highlight how the state uses various techniques of partnership, consultation and devolved responsibility in order to directly implicate non-state actors in the act of governing. As an example of 'neo-Foucauldian' studies of

governmentality, Thompson(2005) presented Murdoch's (1997) analyses of the English Rural White Paper of 1995 and the rationalities employed by government in shifting responsibility for service delivery from 'the government' to 'the population'. Our position is that the use of the governmentality approach is interesting and unique in the context of protected landscapes; although Foucault did not write specifically about environmental issues, his work on power and governmentality provides useful insights in the examination and clarification of these themes.

When defining adaptive governance many researchers (e.g. Folke et al. 2005; Olsson et al. 2006) cite the work of Lee (2003) who refers to adaptive systems of governance as the new governance and defines it as a form of social coordination in which actions are coordinated voluntarily by individuals and organizations with self-organizing and self-enforcing capabilities. Adaptive governance relies on networks that connect individuals, organizations, agencies, and institutions at multiple organizational levels (Folke et al. 2005). This form of governance also provides for collaborative, flexible, learning-based approaches to managing ecosystems, also referred to as 'adaptive co-management' (Folke et al. 2003, Olsson et al. 2004).

Clark & Clarke (2010) considered the utility of adaptive governance in shedding light on local sustainability projects in European protected landscapes. They focused on the example of England, and studied its national parks (NP) and areas of outstanding natural beauty (AONB). Adaptive governance speaks directly to the debates about the involvement of actors. Clark & Clarke (2010) have used the definition from Folke et al. (2005, p. 441) who defined adaptive governance as one that 'connect[s] individuals, organisations, agencies, and institutions at multiple organisational levels', comprising 'social networks with teams and actor groups that draw on various knowledge systems and experiences for the development of a common understanding of policies'. Clark & Clarke state that 'it is less clear whether adaptive governance prescriptions can be used to furnish more complete understandings of the cross-scale/cross-level interactions underpinning the spatialities of "successful" sustainability projects. The exploration of these sustainability processes requires going beyond consideration of actor involvement, scientific and public learning and problem responsiveness and to consider underlying power relations animating these projects. Whether this is possible using the adaptive governance "tool kit" will require further detailed consideration in other empirical contexts' (Clark & Clarke 2010, p. 323).

Our research aims to contribute to the field by analysing the governance structures, power relations and interests of the different actors and by making concrete recommendations for the involvement of actors. Our theoretical framework derives from broader, more general concepts or frameworks, such as actor-centred institutionalism (Scharpf 1997), the concept of policy arrangements (Van Tatenhove et al. 2000) and the concept of political modernization (Arts et al. 2006; see also

Leibenath et al. 2010), and it is grouped according to three levels: institution, actors and area. Each of these levels consists of various elements (see Figure 6.1).

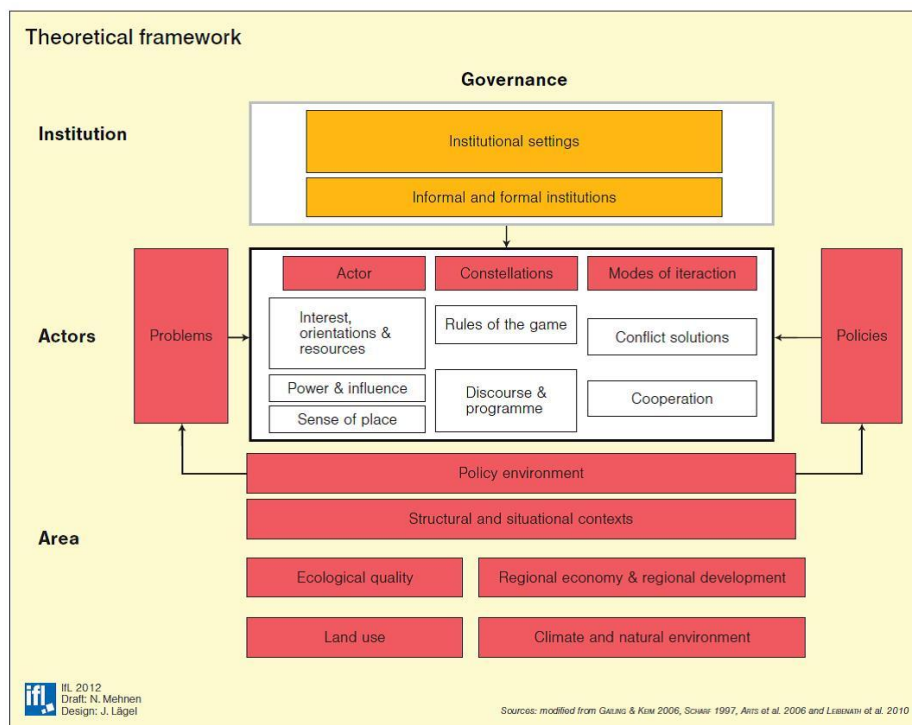


Figure 6.1: Theoretical framework (Sources: modified from Gailing & Keim 2006, Scharpf 1997, Arts et al. 2006 and Leibenath et al. 2010)

The overarching principle is governance. Governance concerns how social relations and interactions are coordinated. Moreover, governance as ‘social coordination’ (Mayntz 1998) is also understood as the combination of different mechanisms of coordination and network-like structures involving different actors from the public and private sector. Fürst et al. (2006) differentiate between actors of the three sectors, ‘state’, ‘economy’ and ‘civil society’. We adopt this classification because of its applicability to actors in protected landscapes. Regional governance emphasizes the increasing importance of coordinating actions of different actors and regulation processes for common problem-solving at the regional level (Pollermann 2006; Fürst 2006).

Institutional level

Institutions are recognized as ‘relatively stable collections of communicative practices and rules defining appropriate behaviour for specific groups of actors in specific situations’ (Risse 2002, p. 604). They encompass ‘not only formal legal rules that are sanctioned by the court system and machinery of the state, but also social norms that actors will generally respect and whose violation will be sanctioned by loss of reputation, social disapproval, withdrawal of cooperation and rewards’ (Scharpf 1997, p. 45). Helmke & Levitsky (2004) define informal institutions as ‘socially shared rules, usually unwritten, that are created, communicated, and enforced outside of officially

sanctioned channels' (Helmke & Levitsky 2004, p. 727). They define formal institutions as follows: 'formal institutions are rules and procedures that are created, communicated, and enforced through channels widely accepted as official' (Helmke & Levitsky 2004, p. 727). While a stable formal institutional framework is a pre-condition for sustainable management, informal institutions play a crucial role in most areas.

Actor level

Actors are by definition of central importance. They may or may not be genuinely interested in a project, and they may or may not possess personal characteristics conducive to cooperation, such as language skills and intercultural competence or resources in terms of time, knowledge, money or authority (Skelcher & Sullivan 2008; Derkzen 2008, Leibenath et al. 2010). In this context the stakeholder theory is highly pertinent. It provides a solid basis for identifying, classifying and categorizing stakeholders and understanding their behaviour. The basic idea of the stakeholder theory is that the organization has relationships with many constituent groups, and that it can engender and maintain the support of these groups by considering and balancing their relevant interests (Freeman 1984; Jones & Wicks 1999). While having its origins in strategic management, stakeholder theory has been applied to a number of fields. Furthermore, it has been presented and used in a number of ways that are quite distinct and that involve very different methodologies, concepts, types of evidence and criteria of appraisal (Donaldson & Preston 1995). In literature there are numerous definitions of stakeholders. In this context we wish to introduce the definition from the project management standard (PMI 2008), which defines stakeholders as 'individuals and organizations that are actively involved in the project or whose interest may be affected as a result of project execution or project completion', and the common definition formulated by Freeman (1984) that is, 'any group or individual who is affected by or can affect the achievement of an organization's objectives'.

The concepts of power are also crucial. In a different context (television production networks) Mossig (2004) differentiates between, firstly, power through superiority and strength (to which resources are related); secondly, power and influence through relationships (which are related to good connections and information); and thirdly collective ordinal forces and mechanisms (which are related to the power of actor groups).

Sense of place, place attachment, belonging and identity are also important with regard to protected areas. Carrus et al. (2005) show the positive role of general and specific pro-environmental attitudes, as well as that of regional identity, in predicting support for the protected areas considered. A sense of place is defined by Jorgensen & Stedman (2001) as the meaning that is attached to a spatial environment – a place – by (groups of) people. They distinguish three

dimensions of sense of place: place attachment, place identity and place dependency (see also Vanclay et al. 2008). According to place theorists, individuals who are emotionally, cognitively or functionally attached to a place will act to protect that place (Tuan 1977; Relph 1976). Empirical research has shown that this is true in several different contexts. These settings include neighbourhoods and communities (Mesch & Manor 1998; Shumaker & Taylor 1983), heritage sites (Hawke 2010; Dicks 2000; Ashworth et al. 2007), parks and protected areas (Kaltenborn & Williams 2002; Walker & Chapman 2003), forests (Müller 2011), and recreational landscapes (Bricker & Kerstetter 2002; Kaltenborn 1998; Kyle et al. 2005; Stedman 2002; Vaske & Kobrin 2001; Vorkinn & Riese 2001).

Actor constellation represents groups of actors using the same technical language and sharing the same knowledge (the same discourse), but eventually working in different and competing contexts, such as government agencies, interest groups, consultancies and NGOs (see also Van Bommel 2008; Derkzen 2008).

Modes of interaction can be distinguished after Scharpf (1997) as ‘mutual adjustment’, ‘negotiated agreement’, ‘voting’ and ‘hierarchical direction’. In addition, the concepts of negotiation theory (see Fisher et al. 1991) or conflict theory (see Bartos & Wehr 2002; Schlee 2004) have to be considered. Learning processes are directly related to interaction and they are essential to governance processes (Hall 1993; Sabatier 1993, Bennett & Howlett 1992). The concepts of participation (see Reed 2008; O’Rourke & Macey 2003) and leadership (Horlings 2010a; Horlings 2010b; Horlings & Marsden 2010; Mitchell et al. 2002) are also crucial.

In the governance economists and sociologists in particular focus on rules (Rosenau & Czempiel 1992; Williamson 1996), whereas political scientists concentrate more on networks (Rhodes 1997). In the governance economists and sociologists in particular focus on rules (Rosenau & Czempiel 1992; Williamson 1996), whereas political scientists concentrate more on networks (Rhodes 1997).

Area level

Different structural and situational characteristics play a role in the performance of the park. They are mostly non-institutional factors. Aspects of the structural context are, for example, the geographical size of the protected landscape, the quality of transport systems and communication infrastructures, and the level of economic development (Leibenath et al. 2010). The existing policy environment also belongs to this level.

6.3 The Peak District National Park

The Peak District is an upland area in central and northern England, lying mainly in northern Derbyshire, but also covering parts of Cheshire, Greater Manchester, Staffordshire, and South and

West Yorkshire. Most of the area falls within the Peak District National Park, whose designation in 1951 made it the first national park in the British Isles. The PDNP is located at the southern end of the Pennine Chain between Sheffield and Manchester and covers 1438 square km (see Figure 6.2).



Figure 6.2: The Peak District National Park

The area is conventionally split into the northern Dark Peak, where most of the moorland is found and whose geological composition is gritstone, and the southern White Peak, where most of the population live and where the soil is mainly limestone-based. In previous years a visitor number of 22 to 26 million visitors per year was estimated and it was commonly stated that the Peak District is thought to be the second or third most-visited national park in the world (see for example McCabe & Stokoe 2004). Today the Association of National Park Authorities calculated a more moderate number of 8,4 million visitors per year (ANPA, 2011). To have a comparison, both large German Wadden Sea National Parks attract over 20 million visitors each year (see for example Job 2008). The PDNP had always faced challenges and had to deal with difficulties such as visitor pressure (and related to that the loss of habitats and species), overgrazing and acid rain – the last two mentions are now on the decline, but climate change is an increasing concern (Mose 1990; Crouch et al. 2009). About 38,000 people live in the area. Some of them work in the park, and some work in the surrounding cities (often employed in jobs for the higher educated). Housing is relatively expensive, so most people who work in the Peak District live outside the park. Sixteen million people (32.6 % of the UK population) live within an hour's travelling time of the National Park

boundary. The PDNP is highly valued for recreation, and one reason for that is the short distance from the cities of Manchester, Sheffield and Leeds. The PDND is important for water supply and carbon storage. Housing and economic development within the National Park are subject to restrictive zoning requirements. Tourism is the major local employment for park inhabitants (24 %), with manufacturing industries (19 %) and quarrying (12 %) also being important; only 12% are employed in agriculture. The cement works at Hope is the largest single employer within the Park. It is estimated that tourism provides more than 2,000 jobs in hotels and catering, and thousands more in shops and other tourism-related service industries (PDNP Authority 2010a). The main farm enterprises are those engaged in livestock farming of sheep and cattle.

6.4 Methods

Our empirical analysis of the PDNP focuses in particular on forms of governance as well as informal and decentralized institutions.

It rests on three pillars:

- A document analysis of existing literature, plans and concepts;
- A series of semi-structured, open-ended, in-depth interviews;
- Various on-site visits in the national park region.

The in-depth interviews were based on a guideline with thematic topics and specific questions. The issues and questions were derived from the theoretical framework. We conducted in-depth interviews with actors from the state, civil society and economy.

We also used the SWOT analysis and the stakeholder analysis. SWOT analysis is a strategic method used to evaluate the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats involved in a project or in business venture (Humphrey 2005; Koo & Koo 2007; Morrison 2006). The Stakeholder analysis is a form of analysis that aims to identify the stakeholders that are likely to be affected by the activities and outcomes of a project. For a detailed overview, see Reed et al. (2009). It is a snapshot of a current situation (one in which actors come and go, power relationships are changing and so on).

The study by Clark & Clarke (2010) is based on a national survey of sustainability projects in English NPs, undertaken in 2006-2007. Clark & Clarke selected five best practice examples based on detailed data collection. Field visits were undertaken to the good practice projects in order to formulate objective appraisals of sustainability outcomes and to meet with local community groups and entrepreneurs who had formulated, developed or otherwise participated in these sustainable projects. Thompson (2005) used different methods for her research (interviews, document analysis) and conducted field work in Northumberland NPA.

6.5 Analysis

Institutional level (institutional settings)

Organizational structure

The responsible body of the Peak District National Park is the National Park Authority. The PDNP has possibly the most complex local and regional government structure of any UK national park. It covers parts of four government regions (which have been abolished), three county councils, nine district, borough, city and metropolitan borough councils and 125 parishes. The National Park Authority has a number of appointed members, selected by the Secretary of State, local councils and parish councils (30 persons in the PDNP). The role of members is to provide leadership, scrutiny and direction for the National Park Authority.

Furthermore, there is a number of paid staff who carries out the work necessary to run the national park. For the Peak District National Park about 160 persons are working in full-time jobs, several in job-share, part-time or seasonal. The positions in the National Park range from rangers and ecologists to planners and education teams.

Ownership

Land within an English national park is largely in private ownership and has been worked by humans for thousands of years. Over 90 % of the land in the Peak District National Park is privately owned. The biggest private landowners are the National Trust, which owns 12 % (17,507 hectares), and three water companies which own 11 % (16,943 hectares). The Peak District National Park Authority owns just 5 % (6,957 hectares) (PDNP Authority, 2010b). The largest individual landowners in the British National Parks generally, however, are public organisations: the Forestry Commission, National Trust, Water Companies, Ministry of Defence, Duchy of Cornwall and Welsh Office, in that order. These ownership structures compared to IUCN II national parks are really specific. In Germany the national parks are mainly owned by the federal states (Länder) and the federal government (Bund). For example, around 91 % of the area of the Harz National park (IUCN category II) is owned by the states of Lower Saxony and Saxony-Anhalt, 7 % are still federal property, and almost 2 % private or corporate ownership (ownership (Nationalparkverwaltung Harz 2011)). A high level of private landownership does not mean low levels of access; for example the National Trust owns land in order to provide access for everyone and access to permanently protected places of natural beauty or historic interest for the benefit of the nation.

Plans and Strategies

The Management Plan (2006-2011) was prepared with the support of the following people/stakeholder groups:

- Public – ten open public meetings in 2004 and 2005.
- Public – surveys in 2004.
- Parish Councils – Peak Park Parishes Forums in 2003 and 2004.
- National Park Authority members – workshops in 2004, 2005 and 2006.
- Stakeholders – Help Shape the Future partner event May 2005.
- Six-week consultation on Help Shape the Future Issues and Options Document in May and June 2005 and ten-week consultation on Help Shape the Future: National Park Management Plan Consultation Draft June 2006.

The new National Park Management Plan for the next period of time is now under review and several actors are included in the process (e.g. the National Farmers Union). Other important strategies and plans are the Local Development Framework, the Recreation Strategy and Action Plan for the Peak District National Park 2010-2020, the Cultural Heritage Strategy and the Minerals Strategic Action Plan. These plans and strategies are important as formal institutions and rules.

Actor level

The actors, that is, individuals, groups and organizations bearing distinct interests and concerns about the PDNP, are very diverse (see Figure 6.3). They have different resources, orientations and interests.

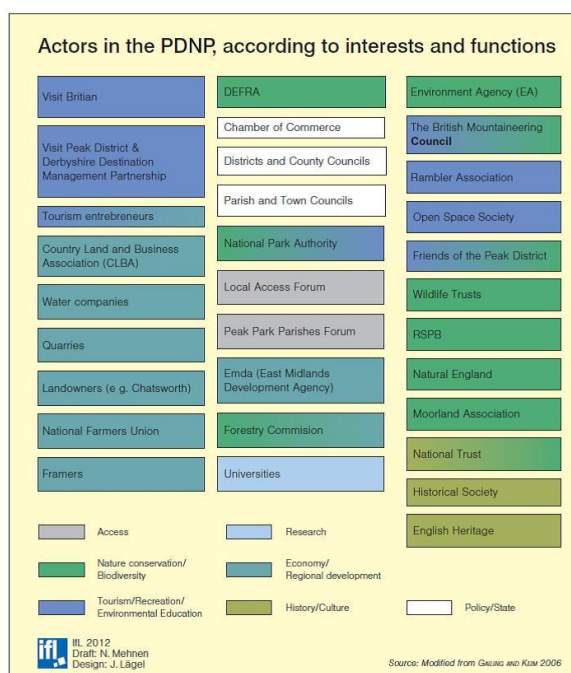


Figure 6.3: Actors in the PDNP, according to interests and functions (Source: Modified from Gailing and Keim 2006)

There are actors who command power through superiority and strength (e.g. some actors from the economic sector with sufficient resources), other actors have fewer resources but carry strong influence because of their relationships (because they have good connections and information, e.g. actors from civil society or some state actors) and collective ordinal forces and mechanisms (which are related to the power of actor groups).

The committee structures and organizational structure of the Peak District National Park is very complex (see Figure 6.4).

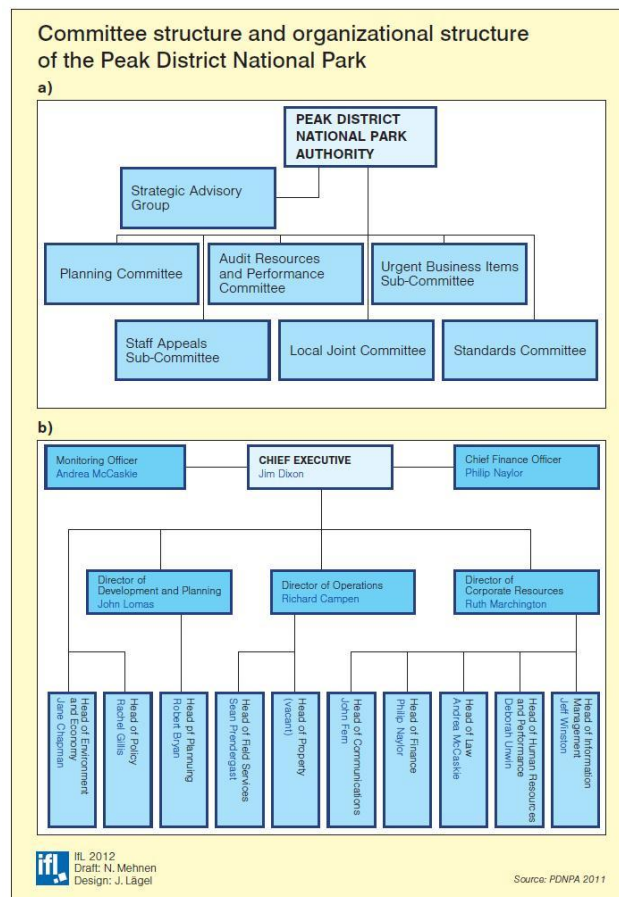


Figure 6.4: Committee structure and organizational structure of the Peak District National Park (Source: PDNPA 2011)

The members of PDNP Authority can be appointed by local authorities or by the Secretary of State for the Environment, and/or they can be parish representatives appointed by the Secretary of State for the Environment. Almost every actor interviewed feels strongly attached to the National Park region (between 9 and 10; judgment of place attachment on a scale from 1-10). There are people who are strongly attached to the region (often farmers) and whose family has lived there for years. But there are also people who can afford to move to the park and do so because of the ‘nice’ landscape.

Cooperation

Partnership is vital to achieving the outcomes of the National Park Management Plan through the wide range of administrative bodies (the National Park incorporates 4 Regions, 11 Metropolitan, District and County Councils, 125 Parishes, 7 Highway Authorities) and several community groups. There is a long history of working in partnership with others, for example the utility companies and the Forestry Commission, which pre-dates that legislation. With other organizations, there have been partnerships based on a shared set of objectives, for instance with English Heritage and the National Trust.

Where nature and landscape are concerned, the Peak District National Park collaborates with Natural England, the Wildlife Trust, and the forestry commission. There are also forms of cooperation with private forest owners. An important role is played by cooperation with the Environment Agency. Farmers play an important role in the PDNP. But they were not always involved in the management. In the field of tourism the national park works together with Visit Peak District & Derbyshire, and touristic service providers. The Peak District National Park Environmental Quality Mark designates environmentally friendly businesses. In the field of communication and education the National Park Authority supports local schools and teachers. An important feature was its own education centre 'Losehill Hall' that now belongs to the YHA (Youth Hostels Association). The Peak District National Park works together with the local, regional and national media. Cooperative organizations engaged in sustainable regional development involve national park partners and the entrepreneurs, who produce and deliver local products (Peak District Food and Peak District Cuisine.)

Hence, the main important forms of cooperation of the National Park Authority are with local authorities, local residents and NGOs. Volunteers, who are engaged in the protection of the park's values, are very important. Examples are: the volunteer ranger/warden service (including youth rangers), education services, individual site management, participation in the production of the management plan, help in interpreting, picking up litter and so on.

There is a LEADER group in the Peak District. The Peak District Rural Action Zone has secured £ 1.9 million in RDPE funding from the EU and Defra through the East Midlands Development Agency (Emda) and Advantage West Midlands. But it is not very well known and some projects face some problems (such as long application processes or high personal contributions).

Formal and informal co-operations and networks

The most important formal networks are the Network of English National Parks, in which the Association of National Park Authorities (ANPA) brings together the 15 National Park Authorities in the UK to raise the profile of the national parks and to promote cooperation as well as the

EUROPARC Federation. EUROPARC represents approximately 440 members. These include bodies responsible for protected areas, governmental departments, NGOs and businesses in 36 countries, which themselves manage some parts of the land, sea, mountains, forests, rivers and cultural heritage of Europe. But up till now there has been hardly any cooperation with the partner associations on continental Europe.

Live & Work Rural is the flagship project of the Peak District National Park, helping people to take care of the environment by living and working in sustainable ways. Peak District Community Planning has funded a wide variety of projects. As one of the partners, the Peak District National Park Authority has worked closely with a number of villages to help them achieve many of the aims set out in their village plans. The following are a selection from some of the achievements so far: Birchover Roadside Improvements, Castleton War Memorial, Monyash Mere, Parwich Well Restoration and Brook Course, Peak Forest Reading Rooms and Play Area, and Waterfall Pinfold Restoration.

Area level

Different structural and situational characteristics play a role in the Peak District National Park. The geographic size of the PDNP, the quality of transport systems and communication infrastructure, and the level of economic development are distinctive; e.g. the Park stretches across several counties, has planning authority for the whole area etc. In this context the implementation of the park’s plans and principals is crucial.

We will turn to the analysis of specific features of the PDNP with reference to regional governance, which was carried out by using SWOT analysis and a stakeholder analysis.

The SWOT analysis summarizes the key elements of the case study with regard to regional governance. The advantage of our approach is its holistic approach, which means that all actors (state, civil society and economy) and their interests are taken into account.

Table 6.1: SWOT-Analysis

SWOT-Analysis	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Possibility of concentrating on management rather than on providing tourism and education services · Exploring sources of alternative sustainable funding 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Increasing financial problems (funding cuts) · Public costs under pressure (e.g. running Tourist Information Centres, locating matching funding for projects) · Pressure from surrounding areas trough e.g. increasing urbanization, infrastructure and demand for recreation
<p><i>Source: own draft</i></p>	

The PDNP has attained global importance and recognition because of its historical and touristic significance. It plays a key role in ensuring the protection of nature and the landscape of the region. Therefore, governance can enhance the PDNP's development and effective functioning by exploiting its strengths and opportunities.

The following stakeholder analysis was not conducted with a specific project or a current event in mind, but it rather provides an overview of actors in the Peak District.

Table 6.2: Stakeholder Analysis Matrix

Stakeholder Analysis Matrix							
Stakeholder/ Actor/Interest group	Sector	Goal	Influence	Concern	Legal status	Spatial ties/levels	Resources
National Park Authority	State/civil society/economy	Nature and cultural heritage protection (Sustainability and partnerships)	high	high	public body	national/ regional/ local	medium - low
Nature conservation authorities and agencies (DEFRA, EA)	State (policy/administration)	Nature protection	high	medium	government department/ public body	national	medium - high
Environment and nature conservation organizations (Natural England, Wildlife Trust etc.)	Civil society	Nature protection	high	high	public body/ charity	local/ regional	medium
Local industry (quarries, water companies etc.)	Economy (businesses/companies)	Economic benefit	medium	high	individual businesses	local	medium
Local trade/economic associations (Country Land and Business Association etc.)	Civil society	Regional economic development	medium	medium	membership organization	local	medium
Economic authorities and agencies (e.g. Emda, Chamber of Commerce)	State (policy/administration)	Economic development	high	high	development agency	local/ regional	medium
Municipal councils (Districts and County Councils, Parish and Town Councils)	State (policy/administration)	Administration/ public service	high	high	elected administrative body	local/ regional	medium
Landowners (e.g. Chatsworth)	Civil society	Economic benefit (Heritage and landscape protection)	high	high	individuals	local/ regional	medium - high
Tourism organizations (Visit Peak District & Derbyshire Destination, etc.)	Economy/civil society	Tourism, marketing of the region	high	medium	tourist board	regional/ local	medium
Tourism entrepreneurs	Economy	Utilization of tourism facilities, economic benefit	medium	medium	individual businesses	local	medium
National Farmers Union	Economy/civil society	Representation and services to farmer and grower members	medium	high	trade association	local/ regional	medium
Farmers	Economy	Economic profit from agriculture landscape management	high	high	individual businesses	local	low
Forestry Commission	Economy	Sustainable forestry	medium	medium	government department	local/ regional	medium
Forestry entrepreneurs	Economy	Economic profit through forestry	medium	medium	individual businesses	local	low
Social/cultural associations (e.g. Local historical Societies, English Heritage etc.)	Civil society	Cultural heritage protection	medium	medium	registered charities	local	low - medium
Local population	Civil society	Well-being	medium	high	individuals	local	medium
Universities	Civil Society	Scientific research	medium	medium	public - government	regional	medium

Source: own draft

The Peak District National Park Authority has the most influence and is definitely the key actor in the park area. Central actors are also the nature conservation authorities and agencies and environment and nature conservation organizations. Because of the diverse ownership structure land owners like Chatsworth have also high influence on park developments. The interests, resources and skills of actors are significant for successful (regional) governance. For example, SCHERER (2006) differentiates between supporting and constraining factors in (regional) governance, but he also states that there are some necessary basic conditions and requirements, for instance, the central

actor group should have a high societal acceptance and there should be a good and easy accessibility to the network. An important point is the existence of an internal control and rule system and high regional steering competences of the authority. Supporting factors are, for example, the availability of resources and capacities and positive personal relationships between all actors. Shared values and shared knowledge as motivation also support the exercise/administration of regional governance. Crucial constraining factors are a lack of leadership, a lack of capacities and a lack of willingness on the part of cooperating bodies (see Table 6.3).

Table 6.3: Factors for Regional Governance

Factors for Regional Governance	
	PDNP
Supporting factors	
Availability of resources and capacities	--
Positive personal relationships between all actors	- +
Shared values and shared knowledge as motivation	- +
Support from policy	-
Support from inhabitants	-
Good communication structures	++
Constraining factors	
Lack of leadership	--
Lack of capacities	++
Lack of willingness of cooperating bodies	--
Some necessary basic conditions and requirements	
Central actor group with high societal acceptance	+
Accessibility of the network/management	+
Existence of an intern control and rule system	+
Regional steering competences	++
++ very strong/positive -/+ more or less -- very weak/negative	
Source: Adapted from SCHERER 2006	

The main problem connected with regional governance is the lower availability of resources and capacities due to the funding cuts. However, the business and performance plan for 2011 and 2012 shows that the National Park Authority is aware of that problem and sees the increasing importance of partnerships (PDNPA 2011, pp. 7ff.).

For the involvement of different actor groups different forms of participation should be used. For example, for the directly affected inhabitants personal consultation is very important, whereas the broader public can be informed through channels such as the Internet or public meetings. Other important ways of involving actors are interviews or surveys. Recently focus groups have become significant. For a detailed overview of histories and typologies of participation, see REED (2008). Table 6.4 shows the actors and the most important forms of participation.

Table 6.4: Actors and forms of participation

Actors and forms of participation	
Actors	Forms of participation
Materialistic concerned and organized interest groups	Personal consultation and information
Local population	Information, workshops, surveys, public meetings
Administrative authorities and agencies	Personal contacts, consultation and support group
All actors	Information via homepage or public meetings

Source: Adapted from Hostmann et al. 2005

Based on our analysis, we compare the current situation with an ideal situation: The current situation can be characterized as follows. There is a lack of resources and capacities, and since the financial cuts some of the former national park duties have been reduced, but the National Park Authority is still strong and has a relatively high social acceptance. There are good communication structures, a culture of volunteering and partnerships. But because of a high degree of private ownership it is sometimes difficult to reach specific goals; negotiation and compromise have become crucial.

An ideal situation would be characterized by the involvement of all actors and interest groups in decision-making processes, enough financial and personnel resources and capacities to conduct creative and innovative projects and to implement new measures. The National Park Authority would provide for conservation, enhancement and promotion of the park's natural beauty, wildlife and cultural heritage and support the promotion of the economic and social well-being of park communities.

6.6 Conclusion

Respect for private property in the Peak District is of high importance. As such, the whole negotiation system is based on reaching agreements with landowners and investors. But by being responsible for town and country planning within their boundaries, the Peak District National Park can more easily control the development processes as compared with other European protected landscapes. In terms of resilience, hence the robustness of the protected landscape, diversity is much more important than efficiency. Besides collaboration and cooperation, a culture of partnerships and volunteer groups is very much alive.

It is nothing new that planners, policymakers, managers and other professionals need to acknowledge the diverse needs and interests of actors when attempting to implement the objectives of a national park. It is crucial to encourage collective learning processes, in which the diverse actors can contribute and participate. However, it is important to be aware of unequal power

relations between particular interests in the region that can legitimize groups' efforts to construct and promote their own agendas. Networks may be structured in a hierarchical manner, with unequal access to information and unfair dissemination of knowledge (Saxena 2005).

We conclude that coalitions and collaborative projects must be seen as a process, as the outcome is sometimes less important. Governance systems do not replace 'classical' administrative structures but complement them (Scherer 2006). The question is no longer whether (regional) governance occurs but rather one of how to deal with it. Especially with the involvement of the (often strong) economic actors, negotiation and bargaining become crucial, so that other interests do not lose their entitlement.

Thompson's research found a willingness to engage at this level as evidence by membership by the regional institutions in various regional networks and committees and by input in documents produced during and after the crisis surrounding the outbreak of the foot and mouth disease in 2001. Clark & Clarke (2010) introduced five examples of best practice in sustainable development and their role for adaptive governance. They state that there is a positive correlation between local sustainability and adaptive governance processes in the five good practice examples.

Both adaptive governance and Foucault's governmentality approaches are helpful theoretical concepts and using them with regard to protected landscapes is of immense importance. Both can help us to understand the influence of different actors and their interests. Our theoretical framework is much broader, and it provides a detailed picture of the governance structures.

So how can one involve different actors? There is a vast body of literature concerning involvement and participation of actors (e.g. PARKS 2002; Lynam et al. 2007; Dougill et al. 2006; Tinch et al. 2009; Crouch et al. 2009). In general, different categories of factors regarding actor involvement need to be taken into account. Individual factors relate to knowledge, resources, personal interests and personal commitment (sense of place) and relations. There are institutional factors, such as open arenas and institutional arrangements. But there are also socio-cultural factors which support the involvement of actors, such as a high level of willingness to work together or a positive climate of cooperation. In general, effective management requires the integration of the full diversity of actors and takes into account the differing ways in which they are impacted by and impact upon protected areas. The long-term success of governance of these areas depends on the suitability of the institutional arrangements. Given the limited human and financial resources available for protected area management, transparent processes of negotiation are required to determine how much participation is possible as well as the level of priority of the objectives. The governance of protected areas in general, and of the Peak District National Park in particular, must yield appreciable benefits for all actors.

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Chapter 7 Actor-oriented governance of protected landscapes – a European comparative multi-theoretical case study approach



Impressions of the park authority of each park

7. Actor-oriented governance of protected landscapes – a European comparative multi-theoretical case study approach²⁰

Abstract

Nature protection is increasingly under pressure, and protected areas are widely seen as a key approach. With various competing issues high on the political agenda, the state may not be willing to support protected areas to the extent it has in the past. Therefore, other actors must get involved to undertake former state tasks. Appropriate governance structures can help to facilitate this. This paper provides an analysis of governance processes in four different protected landscapes in the European Union. All of them are classified as IUCN - Category V areas. The European protected landscapes are heterogeneous in size, legal structure, landscape, ecology, and objectives. For example, in the selected countries, the share of protected landscapes differs from 13% in France to 27% in Germany. This paper examines the main challenges facing the governance of protected areas, arising from multiple actors, multiple interests, and changing constraints and requirements. It thereby seeks to identify which governance structure produces the best results.

The different case studies reveal the importance of the regional context that determines behavior and relationships between actors. While a more hierarchical and top-down designation approach in the national parks of the UK has a strong influence on the acceptance and success of the park, the French approach of regional nature parks suggests that bottom-up (collaborative) forms of implementing protected landscapes have a higher acceptance and stronger local support. Unlike the Peak District National Park, where conservation always comes first ('Sandford Principle'), when conflicts emerge in the Lauenburgische Seen Nature Park in Germany, they have to be solved through discussion and negotiation. Hence, economic interests often overrule nature conservation interests there. The research results indicate that certain actors gain greater freedom and room for manoeuvre than others. For example, some actors have power through superiority and strength (e.g. actors from the economic sector with ample resources), while other actors have fewer resources but exert a strong influence through relationships (because they have good relationships and local information, e.g. actors from civil society or some state actors). Actors with no resources but strong, non-negotiable interests can be involved, but they often have less or little influence in the decision making process. Actors should be involved at the right table, that is, at the right level and in the right form. They need to be involved in issues they are most interested in and which directly affect them. This research shows that the park authorities play a central role. Often they are key actors and

²⁰ This chapter has been submitted to an international Journal.

their skills are important for the whole development of the park, even though they have few resources.

7.1 Introduction

Nature protection is increasingly under pressure. In these days of financial cutbacks and competing issues on the political agenda, the state will not be able - even willing - to support protected areas to the extent it has done in past years. One option for the future could be for various actors to get involved in order to undertake what were formerly state tasks. Appropriate governance structures might help to facilitate this option. The increasing multi-functionality of protected areas requires a genuinely participatory process in which all actors, for example the population and the stakeholders, are involved. This principle of active participation should be applied both in the planning and management of protected areas (Brenner and Job, 2012; Stoll-Kleemann et al., 2006).

While protected areas used to be a central state issue, nowadays the role of other actors tends to increase (Chape et al., 2008). Hence, governments must now reckon with the goals and motives of the different actors who are getting involved in nature protection.

European protected landscapes are rich in biological as well as in cultural diversity (Schenk et al., 2007). Based on the classification system of the IUCN (International Union for Conservation of Nature), protected landscapes/seascapes are the fifth category of six in terms of increasing human character with significant ecological, biological, cultural and scenic values (Dudley, 2008). Such land- and seascapes foster nature conservation but also provide room for socio-economic development. The European protected landscapes are heterogeneous in size, legal structure, objectives, and so on (see also Nolte et al., 2010). One common feature is that they are rural recreational landscapes with traditional and less intensive forms of land use (Hamin, 2002). In total, the officially designated landscapes, although with slightly different names in different countries,²¹ today cover about 46% of the protected area in Europe (Mose, 2010).

The objective of this article is to analyse governance structures and actor constellations in IUCN Category V areas and determine what we can learn from the different cases. Our contribution to the body of scientific literature consists in an explicit combination of knowledge on decision-making processes with conceptual considerations regarding governance processes. Based on the interests, resources and relations of the different actors, the position of the actors will be analysed (in terms of conditions for good governance: institutionalization of interactions of stakeholders, negotiation of interests, mitigation of conflicts, and enhancement of local participation) (Brenner and Job, 2012).

²¹ Parco Naturale Regionale (Italy), Parc Naturel Regionaux (France), Naturpark (Austria and Germany) or National Park (UK), or Area of Outstanding Natural Beauty (UK). New protected landscape categories have emerged for example, in Norway (Regional parks and Landscape parks) and in Switzerland (Regionale Naturpärke).

Our empirical inquiry is conducted in four different parks across Europe. This comparative case study approach allows for deep analysis and comparison of the various parks, which is often not possible because of a lack of resources (time and money). An advantage of comparing four parks in four different countries is that it allows us to learn about particular country-specific approaches and the different ways of implementing the concept of the protected landscape.

Accordingly, the main research questions are:

- Which actors are represented in the four parks? What are their interests, resources and relationships? What actor constellations can be found? How do the constellations influence the outcomes?
- How are or can actors, who are often unequal in many regards, be involved at the appropriate and relevant level and in the right way and form?
- What does a multi-theoretical approach contribute to existing knowledge?

A notion of governance is that an all-encompassing group of actors and stakeholders from the state, civil society and economic sectors should be involved in decision-making (see Hanna et al., 2008; Nolte et al., 2010; Dudley et al., 2010). However, there are contrasting viewpoints as to how and at which level each should be involved. For instance, Derkzen (2008) shows that in some situations local actors cannot function as a professional key stakeholder, due to a lack of acceptance, not using the same language (discourse), and lack of resources or relationships. In the field of social impact assessment (SIA), Vanclay (2012) proposes the involvement of all stakeholders and he states that the needs of the worst-off members of society must always be considered. Even if it is difficult to engage them in participatory processes, their interest and concerns have to be considered. Others have argued that any increase in the role of local actors in biodiversity matters can entail both opportunities and perils (Stoll-Kleemann and O'Riordan, 2002); for example, economic concerns may override other interests. And more actors in general could hinder the process due to longer negotiation or mediation procedures.

This paper is structured as follows. The next section presents the main important theoretical issues, while the third section explains the methods and material applied, followed by a brief description of the selected parks. The paper then continues with a comparative analysis of the actors present in the parks, and their interests, resources and relationships. The concluding section discusses the main findings and offers recommendations for the promotion and support of the development of protected landscapes in regard to governance structures and decision-making processes.

7.2 A multi-theoretical approach

The Institute on Governance (2002) defines governance as 'the interaction among institutions, processes, and traditions that determines how power is exercised, how decisions are taken on issues

of public and often private concern, and how citizens or other stakeholders have their say. Basically, governance is about power, relationships, and accountability' (Schliep and Stoll-Kleemann, 2010, 918). The term 'governance' can be used in different contexts: on different levels of scale (global, national, regional, local), as well as in different social and institutional contexts (Institute on Governance, 2002). Not only are the term governance and its definitions very diverse, but also the theoretical, conceptual and methodological approaches to governance, and with that the empirical approaches to research on governance (in regard to protected areas, see e.g. Schliep and Stoll-Kleemann, 2010: SWOT-Analysis; Van Bommel, 2008: interpretative approach; Van der Zouwen, 2006: policy arrangement approach, Thompson, 2003: governmentality approach; Brenner and Job 2012: political ecology and actor-oriented approach). The approaches also depend on the scientific disciplines, for example, geography, social sciences or political sciences, in which governance is researched. The recent scientific debate on protected areas deals intensively with the modern, often controversial, positions on governance in protected areas in Europe (see e.g. Thompson, 2005 or Clark and Clarke, 2010). Thompson (2005, p. 323), for example, argues that 'there are two competing imperatives at work in the governance of England's national parks: a political imperative to devolve competencies to the regional level to allow for policy differentiation and an administrative imperative to manage and control the public policy process to ensure the achievement of national policy objectives in rural areas'. She states that 'both imperatives shape the conduct of individual National Park Authorities but to date the managerial tendencies of central government have been more influential in the changing governance of England's national parks' (Thompson, 2005, p. 323).

The concept of stakeholder dialogues is also important with regard to governance (Stoll-Kleemann and Welp, 2006) because such dialogues share a number of aspects. A stakeholder dialogue is defined 'as a process in which structured exchange of views and reflection on values of stakeholders can take place. The participants may have very divergent assessments regarding the problem at hand or the course of action to be taken' (Stoll-Kleemann and Welp, 2006, p. 23). Stakeholder dialogues do not have the aim of reaching a consensus, a feature which is similar to the governance processes. Furthermore, the theoretical debate surrounding processes of place-making and regional identity building is crucial. As case studies have shown, there appears to be close connections between the governance of protected area, sense of place or identity towards an area, and its overall acceptance among stakeholders and population (Mehnen & Mose, 2009).

Governance is also connected with decision-making theory. In both theories, the involvement of different actors on the 'appropriate table' is a key element. Decision-making theory in economics, psychology, philosophy, mathematics, and statistics concerns the study of strategies for optimal decision-making between options involving different risks or expectations of gain or loss depending

on the outcome (Oxford Dictionary, 2011). Hence, its aim is to identify the values, uncertainties and other issues relevant in a given decision, its rationality, and the resulting optimal decision. Stokman's approach in predicting outcomes of decision-making processes is used (see also Stokman et al., 2000; Stokman and Vieth, 2004; Snijders et al., 1996; Bueno De Mesquita and Stokman, 1994; Scholz et al., 2011), and applied to the analysis of governance structures in protected landscapes. This is a promising way of researching the subject by reflectively judging the categories of minor, medium or major power resources as defined by Brenner and Job (2012). Stokman often uses the terms position and salience in his work, which relate to interest and are referred to in terms of importance, priority or attention. He also uses the term capability, which has also been referred in terms of resources or power. In our analysis we explicitly use the terms interest, resources and relationships. According to Dahl (1989: 180), 'A person's interest [...] is whatever that person would choose with fullest attainable understanding of the experience resulting from that choice and its most relevant alternatives'. The concept of resources has been applied in diverse fields and is linked to the concepts of competition, sustainability, conservation, and stewardship.

While our focus is on financial and human resources, knowledge, social skills, and 'same language' are also relevant in our context. Finally, we make use of Merriam-Webster's (2012) definition of relationship: 'the state of being related or interrelated or the relation connecting or binding participants in a relationship'. In this regard it is crucial that all actors have a say and are at the right table where they can influence decision-making, and that to some degree their goals can be fulfilled or reached. Accordingly power and responsibilities should be equally distributed between actors (Brenner and Job, 2012).

Following Stokman et al. (2000), we will evaluate the interests, resources and relationships of the main actor groups (and hence the relative strengths of an individual actor) and draw conclusions for successful decision-making.²²

Research approach

Based on existing literature (Mehnen et al, 2009; Mehnen, forthcoming; Brenner and Job, 2012), we propose for our analysis a holistic multi-theoretical research approach, which focuses on actors in the park. Methodological tools such as social network analysis and stakeholder analysis are closely related to this. Whereas social network analysis focuses on the relationships of actors (Wasserman and Faust, 1994), stakeholder analysis focuses directly on the actor (for an overview, see Reed et al., 2009).

²² Successful in that sense that consensus is reached or that decisions are supported by at least the majority of stakeholders. A good decision is one that best improves the well-being of all affected actors (O'Neill et al. 2008). For linking governance and management perspectives with conservation success in protected areas see Stoll-Kleemann et al., 2006

The position of each individual actor, composed of its interests, resources and relationships, is identified. The identification of their interests (in region, protected landscape, etc.), concerns (motives for involvement, etc.), goals (nature protection, economic benefit, regional development, etc.), values (personal preferences, sense of place) and spatial ties (local, regional, national, international) is crucial. Their resources/capabilities (financial, personal, knowledge, social skills, discourse) and their relationships (actor constellations, communication culture between them, accessibility of network, etc.) and form of interaction (acting one-sided, negotiation, majority decision, hierarchical steering) is examined. Forms of participation for each actor have been differentiated and the appropriate/relevant level on which each actor should be involved is proposed (see appendix of this chapter).

It should be noted that certain actors gain greater freedom and room for manoeuvre than others. For example, some actors wield power through superiority and strength (e.g. actors from the economic sector with good resources), while other actors have fewer resources but stronger influence through relationships (because they have good connections and local information, e.g. actors from civil society or some state actors) (Mossig, 2004). Actors with no resources but strong, non-negotiable interests can be involved but often have less influence in the decision-making process (O'Neill et al., 2008). O'Neill et al. (2008, p. 49) state that 'decisions are often shaped in the context of an uneven distribution of wealth, power and voice'. Actors with fewer resources are often unable to satisfy their needs and tend to be powerless and socially invisible, and their activities tend not to be given proper recognition.

Actors with good relationships often have a high level of acceptance (Horlings and Marsden, 2010). Moreover, a strong sense of the park's place in regard to regional identity (cf. Jorgensen and Stedman, 2001; Carrus et al., 2005) could compensate in some cases for weak resources (Kaltenborn and Williams, 2002; Walker and Chapman, 2003). For example, when actors have a strong attachment to the park, express a strong regional identity and have an interest in the park's objectives, they tend to participate in and support specific projects or developments.

We propose to evaluate actors according to three criteria: interest, resources and relationships. For instance, if an actor has strong interests, high resources and strong relationships it is identified as a strong actor with major influence and power. If only two of the three criteria are fulfilled, the actor is judged as a medium actor, and actors with only one or no criteria categorized as weak. This differs from Brenner and Job (2012), who used different criteria for actor groups, such as 'budget condition' for state actors and NGOs, 'relevance within state administration' for state actors and 'enterprise size' for private enterprises.

We think it is more appropriate to use the same criteria for all actors. Based on their qualitative research, Brenner and Job (2012) used an ordinal scale for the rating of minor, medium and major

power resources. We make use of the same rating technique. For the involvement of different actor groups it makes sense to differentiate the forms and levels of participation. For example, for the directly affected inhabitants, personal consultation and/or workshops are important, whereas the broader public can be informed through channels such as the Internet or public meetings. If affected inhabitants are not informed and do not have the opportunity to participate in decision-making, the risk of opposition and resistance is high (cf. Vanclay, 2012).

Personal involvement and shared benefits play a major role in successful outputs. For a detailed overview of histories and typologies of participation, see Reed (2008).

7.3 Methods and materials

Regarding the arena in which an actor should be involved, we focus on levels of action. We distinguish between the level of the park (locally within the park, outside the park, and regionally) and a more general level (national and international). The methods applied in this research were chosen to assess the current state of governance at the case study sites in order to develop suggestions for the successful involvement of actors. The benefit of case studies lies in their ability to serve as a source for new ideas and hypotheses, or for evaluating existing ones (see also Swanborn, 2010; Scholz and Tietje, 2002; Flyvbjerg, 2006). More specifically, we applied a comparative case study approach (Yin, 2003) in order to analyse governance structures in protected landscapes, and to highlight the relevance of social and institutional interaction in the successful application of the protected landscape concept. However, it is important to note that these are four cases with different national contexts, and not four countries as cases. This allows us to analyse different approaches to implementing the protected landscape concept.

We studied protected landscapes in four European countries using semi-structured interviews with stakeholders and relevant state, civil society and economic actors. Data from interviews were supported with data from a review of existing literature, websites and legal documents (plans and concepts). These in-depth interviews were based on a guideline of thematic topics and specific questions. The issues and questions were derived from the theoretical framework. About 10–15 face-to-face interviews were conducted per case study. The interviews were tape-recorded, summarized and interpreted. All data were collected in 2010 and 2011. All four cases were initially analysed separately, after which comparative analysis followed.

Case study selection

To select the protected landscapes for our case studies we consulted the World Database on Protected Areas (IUCN and UNEP, 2009) and the existing IUCN Category V areas in Europe. We

also asked experts during a Delphi survey to recommend protected areas for fieldwork (see Mehnen et al., 2012).

In the end an important criterion was also that the selected parks should reflect the diversity of protected landscapes in Europe (see Figure 7.1).

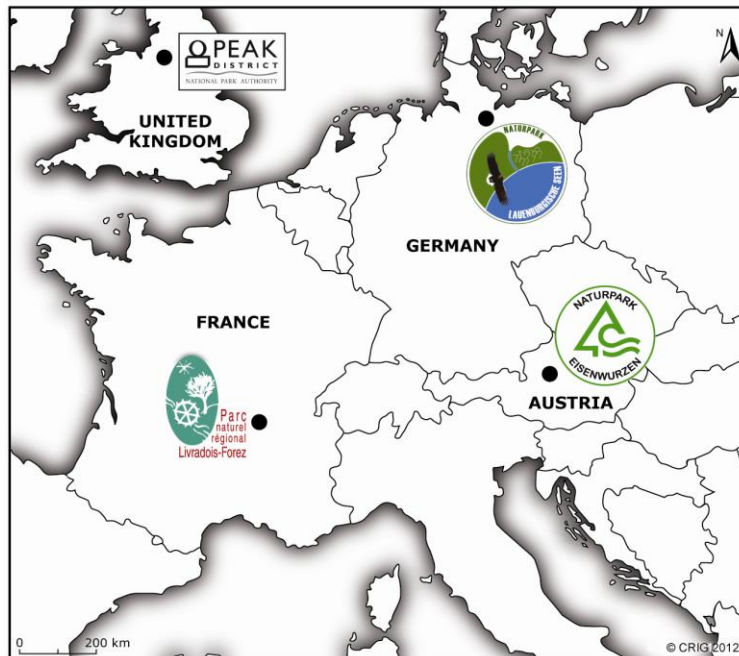


Figure 7.1: Map of case studies: Nature Park Lauenburgische Seen (Germany); Nature Park Steirische Eisenwurzen (Austria); Peak District National Park (England); Regional Nature Park Livradois-Forez (France)

7.4 The case studies - Description of the selected parks

The main features of the selected parks are summarized in Table 7.1. The table shows that the parks differ in age, size and population, but nevertheless have some elements in common (IUCN Category V; rural recreational area, management plans).

Table 7.1: General information of the case studies

	Naturpark Lauenburgische Seen (Germany)	Naturpark Steirische Eisenwurzen (Austria)	Peak District National Park (England)	Parc Naturel Régional Livradois-Forez (France)
Year of designation	1960	1996	1951	1986
Size	474 km ²	582 km ²	1.437 km ²	3.200 km ²
Population	53.000 inhabitants	6.400 inhabitants	38.100 inhabitants	110.000 inhabitants
Other designations	National: Forest reserves, Qualitätsnaturpark, LAG AktivRegion Herzogtum Lauenburg Nord e. V. EU: NATURA 2000	National: Naturschutzgebiet Salztal EU: LEADER International: GEOPARK	National: SSSIs, SPAs, SACs, NNRs EU: NATURA 2000, LEADER International:	National: Natural Areas of Ecological Interest EU: NATURA 2000, European Charter for Sustainable Tourism Park, LEADER
Coordinating body	District / Herzogtum Lauenburg, Kreis	Nature Park association (7 municipalities +	National Park authority (30 members + ca. 250	Syndicate mixte and park authority (Director,

responsible body	9 staff members	private persons= 75 members), 5 staff members	staff/officers)	Committees etc.), ca. directly 30 employees,
Yearly budget	ca. 600.000 €	ca. 350.000 €	ca. 8 Mill. €	ca. 3 Mill. €
Management plan	Yes, <i>Einrichtungs- und Entwicklungsplan</i> with Leitbild, 2003	Yes, <i>Landschaftspflegeplan</i> 1996, LEADER Entwicklungsplan	Yes, <i>Management plan</i> , Performance and Business Plan, several Strategies and Action Plans	Yes, <i>La Charte du Parc naturel régional Livradois-Forez</i> 2010-2022 and several action plans
Tourism	In the entire district: 8.5 million day trips 1.475 million over-night stays (dwif 2010)	Tourism Region Nationalpark Gesäuse, 260,000 overnight stays, water park 50,000 visitors per year	8.4 million visitors a year (22 Mill. visitors was a miscalculation and the calculated 2.5 million overnight stays seems also very high)	2.246.000 over-night stays
Main Park objectives	First only on accessibility (trails, plates, etc.), now also environmental education and regional development	On education and regional development, also nature protection, recreation	On nature protection, planning	On regional economic development (and nature conservation)

Sources: UK ANPA - Association of National Park Authorities, 2011; Verband deutscher Naturparke, Verband der Naturpark Österreichs, Fédération des Parcs naturels régionaux de France

For more information about the parks, see the respective park homepage.

7.5 Governance situation of and in the parks: actors, interests, resources and relationships

When comparing the governance in the different parks and their actor constellations, it must first be noted that the structural and institutional settings and characteristics of the countries differ substantially.²³

But the parks also share some similarities; for example, all parks have an operative authority and detailed management plans. The financial and human resources are limited in all parks with regard to their ambitious objectives and numerous tasks. Finally, the political territories (LEADER, ActivRegion, etc.) are manifold.

Hence, the different case studies reveal the importance of the regional context in determining behaviour and relationships between actors. While a more hierarchical and top-down approach in the national parks of the UK is characteristic, the French approach of regional nature parks suggests that bottom-up (collaborative) forms of implementing protected landscapes, those based on a community charter, have a higher acceptance and stronger local support. The governance structures of nature parks in the various federal states of Germany range from parks governed by state actors to those governed by multi-actor associations. Nature parks in Austria also vary widely in form of governance with regard to their local objectives and to the regional context.

²³ France is a unitary state, as most of the 27 EU countries. Germany, UK and Austria are federal states. In France (one of the largest countries in the EU) for example the state has still a major role and power in the protection of the environment, the purpose of which is to conserve the diversity of species, natural habitats and landscapes, as shown through international biodiversity programmes (Loreau 2000; Myers et al. 2000). In other words, environmental protection policy in France is principally devolved but rarely decentralized; only in some specific cases the role of regions is increasing.

The chapter appendix provides a summary of the interests, resources and relationships of all actors in the four parks. Interests range from pure nature conservation to economic benefit. Resources include both human and financial resources, as well as social skills. For each actor the relation to the park authority is noted.

An important point to mention is that actors within a group can be heterogeneous. Moreover, the analysis is dependent on structural settings and shows the actor constellations only at the time of the data collection. Actors may have changed since that time. Based on the information in the appendix, we have drawn up schematic representations of actor configurations in each park, which accords with the approach taken by Brenner and Job (2012). We used their way of illustration because it allows comparison of the actor configurations. There are other ways to present actors (see, for example, Brenner, 2012), but they are meant for depicting conflicts. In our research, however, we want to show the actors, their interests, their overall influence and the level at which they act.

Following Brenner and Job (2012), the actors in the four parks can be grouped into clusters of actors: conservation-centred, utilization-centred, less powerful place-based actors, and development-centred actors.

Our research, however, adds the specific role of IUCN Category V protected landscapes and a new approach on how to evaluate governance processes and judge actor constellations (see Figure 7.2 and appendix of this chapter). Brenner and Job (2012) drew up five different general categories of involved actors: 1) governmental and supra-national institutions; 2) national (local) and international environmental non-governmental institutions (ENGOS); 3) businesses (private sector and community- or stateowned = small & medium enterprises); 4) local population /resource users; and 5) tourists (Tourism sector). In addition to Brenner and Job's categories (2012), we use the y-axes of conservation against resource utilization/economic development, as well as an x-axis representing resistance against law enforcement. For each actor the power resources are identifiable. In the appendix of this chapter all abbreviations are explained.

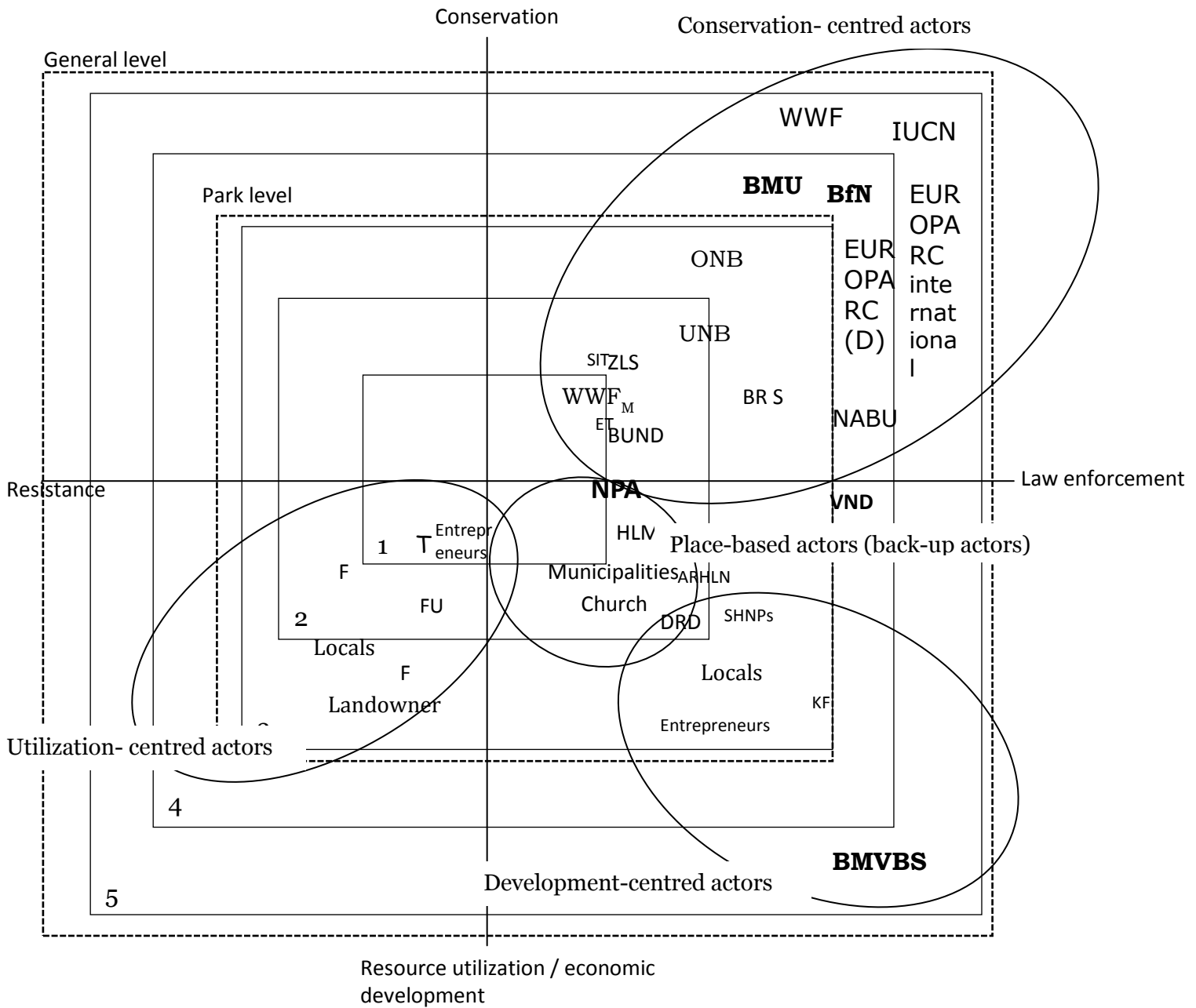
Figure 7.2 shows the diverse actor constellations in Lauenburgische Seen Nature Park. The actors are classified and grouped according to their interests and position. There is a large group of conservation-centred actors not only at the local level, but also at the national and international level (governmental actors such as the Federal Ministry for the Environment, Nature Conservation and Nuclear Safety (BMU), the Federal Agency for Nature Conservation (BfN) as well as national and international NGOs such as WWF, BUND, NABU and their local groups). There is also an active group of development-centred actors, mainly at the local and national level (the Federal Ministry of Transport, Building and Urban Development (BMVBS) and several entrepreneurs). The local conservation-centred actors have a great interest in conserving the area and its biodiversity; they possess vast knowledge and experience, but they lack financial and human resources and are

therefore only counted as medium actors. There are also conflicts of interests between the different groups. Unlike the Peak District, where conservation always comes first ('Sandford Principle'²⁴), when conflicts emerge in the Lauenburgische Seen Nature Park, they have to be solved through discussion and negotiation. Hence, economic interests often overrule nature conservation interests, which may result, for example, in the designation and building of new residential areas or biogas plants with negative effects on the existing biodiversity and residential quality.

The group of utilization-centred actors is relatively small, but their influence should not be underestimated. They are concentrated mainly at the local and regional level. There is also a group of place-based actors and development-centred actors, both including mainly less powerful actors. For more information, particularly about the Nature Park Lauenburgische Seen, see Mehnen et al. 2013.

²⁴ In 1974 the National Parks Policy Review Committee made a recommendation to help National Park Authorities make decisions concerning conservation and recreation. This recommendation is now known as the 'Sandford Principle', named after Lord Sandford, who was Chair of the committee. It states that 'where irreconcilable conflicts exist between conservation and public enjoyment, then conservation interest should take priority'.

Nature Park Lauenburgische Seen



- 1 Governmental and supra national institutions
- 2 National (local) and international Non-Governmental Institutions (ENGOS)
- 3 Businesses (private sector and community- or state-owned = Small & Medium Enterprises)
- 4 Local population /resource users
- 5 Tourists (Tourism sector)

- Power resources
- Minor/low
 - Medium
 - Major/High**

- 1 Local (within the park)
- 2 Local (park and surrounding areas)
- 3 Regional
- 4 National
- 5 International/global

Figure 7.2: Actor configuration based on annex: Nature Park Lauenburgische Seen (based on Brenner & Job 2012)

The park authorities

In three of the four parks, the park authority (PA) is the strongest actor within the group of conservation-centred actors. The PA has few resources, but they compensate for this with formal power, strong networks and high leadership skills.

In the case of the Lauenburgische Seen Nature Park, our analysis shows that the PA is well accepted.

The PA knows the value of actor involvement as well as the value of open cooperation and a communication culture. The analysed data also show that local actor participation and involvement is mostly related to concrete projects and therefore it is often temporary.

The current governance structure in the Nature Park Steirische Eisenwurzten differs from that of Lauenburgische Seen Nature Park in the organization of the authority. The former is organized as an association, consisting of the mayors of the municipalities in which the nature park is located and about 70 individual, interested local members plus an executive management team. This form of organization usually allows a wide range of participation. The authority tries to involve different actors, especially local entrepreneurs, but has made mistakes in the past (too little acknowledgement of the individual interests and needs of actors). This has resulted in major problems with regard to the acceptance of the park authority. The strong ties between the park authority and the LEADER group (*Regionalentwicklung Gesäuse*) brings with it advantages (e.g. use of the same facilities), but also disadvantages (e.g. confusing organisational structure resulting in unclear responsibilities).

The Peak District National Park Authority (PDNPA) has both management and planning functions and is therefore much more complex than, for example, its German counterpart (Mehnen, forthcoming). By the 1980s, the park authority already supported partnerships and cooperation with an Integrated Rural Development Project (1981-1988), with the aid of European funding (Mose, 1993).

The Regional Nature Park Livradois-Forez also has a complex organizational form: a mixed union (*syndicat mixte de gestion*) in which the president of the park functions as a joint consulting facility with the local communities (prefectures, cities, towns and villages) or the regional public institutions (national forestry office, chamber of agriculture or commerce) as well as a board of directors. Moreover, the park has a management team and different networks and associations which provide the opportunity to hold discussions or to establish relationships with different actors within the region. From the beginning, the park was initiated and supported by a broad spectrum of local actors. Because of the general construction of regional nature parks in France (a bottom-up initiative where local actors develop a charter and appeal to the national government for the establishment of a regional nature park for an initial duration of 10 years) the park has clear objectives, measures and evaluations of its development and how it is achieving its goals. However,

the designation and status can be withdrawn after the initial 10 years if the goals and objectives have not been reached. Through the bottom-up designation of the park, the region has received a concrete name (Livradois-Forez), which shows that protected landscapes can influence and foster place identity and place attachment. The park authorities are aware of this and often explicitly state it in their strategies and management plans. Thus, in areas where place attachment of the local population and/or actors is high, it is easier to organize them; correspondingly, where governance structures are able to organize people, place attachment becomes greater (Van Marissing et al., 2006) (see also Mehnen et al., 2013).

7.6 Synthesis and conclusion

Based on the data analysis the following conclusions can be drawn. The main interests of the park authorities vary from nature conservation and environmental education to regional development and creating recreation infrastructure. The key interests of local administrative facilities (such as the local governmental nature conservation authorities, mayors, and municipalities) are diverse – and may range from biodiversity or nature protection to regional economic development. This implies that they will function best when these aspects are on the agenda. The interests of forestry services differ from those of park authorities, but both of them also have many interests in common, or at least some amount of overlapping between various interests. These actors should be involved when questions arise about nature development on a global scale. The interests of tourism organizations also coincide to some extent with those of the park authorities. However, tourism providers/entrepreneurs are not so much interested in the park as a whole but show primarily partial interest related to their business. They should be involved in aspects that concern their businesses. Nonetheless, their power should not be underestimated, especially with regard to the crucial role tourism does play for many parks. The nature conservation associations in the parks also have partial interests in nature-related issues; their position is strong in this regard because of their knowledge and expertise and their connections at higher levels. Cultural institutions often have low interest in nature-related issues; their interests coincide very much with those of tourism organizations. These institutions are not very powerful in most parks. Consequently, they can best be involved through projects. Tourism and nature centres, and museums have mostly partial interests, but they are powerful because of their relation with the park authority. They can also best be connected through projects. Local action groups, for example LEADER groups, have an interest that is limited to economic development. Some have a strong influence through their relationships with the park authority and their access to resources (although this differs from park to park). The Farmers' Unions have partial interests, and are generally quite weak, but in some cases they have specific relationships that give them a certain influence; they have hardly any interest in nature-

related issues. Individual farmers and other landowners have partial and very specific interests and are mainly connected through landownership. Their interest in biodiversity and related issues is low.

For both these farm-centred actor groups it seems possible that they could be integrated through projects requiring their specific expertise. Some of the industrial companies (e.g. quarries, and producing industries) may take an eminent position as they are often major employers in the park area and thereby demand appropriate recognition. Although their interests are basically orientated towards the economy, they should be involved in projects if possible (see also appendix of this chapter).

Our main conclusions from these case studies are that it is crucial for governance structures in protected landscapes to carefully identify the interests of all actors, estimate their resources and examine their relations. The willingness to cooperate with many different (and often unusual) partners seems to be a key factor that the park authorities have to acknowledge and accept. The leadership ability and competences of park authorities are also of enormous importance. This becomes very clear if one compares the National Park Authority of the Peak District with the Nature Park Authority of the Nature Park Steirische Eisenwurzen. The Peak District National Park Authority is characterized by a long history of partnerships, a distinctive cooperation culture and high local steering competences, while their Austrian equivalent is relatively young and struggles with the lack of acceptance by different actors. From this contrast it is apparent that authorities should be sensitive to local circumstances and norms (Carroll, 1988).

As nature policy has become a more project-driven activity, the building of partnerships between the various actors is more frequently required and demanded (e.g. LEADER, private public-partnerships) (Deakin, 2002; Ray, 2000).

The case studies as well as the literature presented here suggest some conditions that appear necessary to achieve success in designating and managing parks, and in creating positive cooperation between the park authorities and all actors concerned, conditions such as a high acceptance of park authority, open and transparent decision-making, and sufficient human and financial resources.

This points to the importance of all actors being involved at the right level and in the right form. At the local level (and in our case, at the level of parks) involvement of a broad group of actors is required. In contrast, it is not necessary to involve each actor at the higher level; at that level a selection of stakeholders could often be sufficient. For example, a tourism entrepreneur (e.g. a bicycle shop-owner) is most interested in issues which directly affect his/her business, so he/she is interested in what goes on at the concrete local - and maybe regional - level, where he/she can expect to influence decision-making, or where decision-making will influence him/her. The park

authority should be involved at both levels and it should function as an intermediate actor. For some actors (such as individual farmers or landowners), it seems sufficient to involve them only in specific projects, while others should be included in regular meetings to discuss issues of general relevance. Some organizational structures tend to simplify a broad actor involvement (e.g. when the management body is an association).

What can we derive from these conclusions for the successful governance of protected landscape in the future? With regard to the increasing relevance of regional governance processes emerging in protected areas, we suggest that the more equal all actors (state, civil society and economy) are involved and the more their interests are given the same significance, the more successful the management of a protected landscape will be. Each actor should have the same opportunities to participate in decision-making, and have the same rights as well as the same duties. However, cooperation of actors and regions cannot simply be mandated, and the assumption often implicit in programmes, that cooperation is generally desired, is not quite true. Often there is no equal participation of all actors in defining goals at all; rather such projects still frequently follow the traditional DAD approach (decide-announce-defend), instead of the EDD (engage-deliberate-decide) or IAI (involve-agree-implement) approaches (Healy and McDonagh, 2009; Elcome and Baines, 1999).

Under optimal conditions, governance can create powerful networks and connections between social, cultural, economic and environmental actors and thereby effectively contribute to the benefits of protected areas. It is important, therefore, to find the appropriate balance between the level and type of participation needed to achieve consensus and build broad commitment on the one hand, with the urgent need for less talk and more action on the other hand.

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Appendix

Interests, resources and relations of local/regional actors in case study areas based on interviews and supplemented with data from other sources (reports, websites, own observations etc.)

		<i>Nature Park Lauenburgische Seen</i>	<i>Nature Park Steirische Eisenwurzen</i>	<i>Peak District National Park</i>	<i>Regional Nature Park Livradois-Forez</i>
Park Authority	Interest	First only on allocation of infrastructure (trails, etc.), now also environmental education, regional development and partially nature conservation	Nature conservation, (Environmental) Education, Recreation, Regional development	Nature and cultural heritage protection (Sustainability and partnerships)	Primary regional development. But also nature conservation
	Resources	Medium staff and low financial resources, high leadership skills	Low staff and financial resources low leadership skills	Medium staff and financial resources high leadership skills	Medium staff and financial resources, medium leadership skills
	Relationships (RS)	Strong RS with tourism organization, tourism entrepreneurs, biosphere reserve authority and WWF	Strong RS with Regional development, tourism entrepreneurs (Naturparkpartner), education providers	Strong RS with Nature conservation Organisations, Farmers	Strong RS with related networks
Administrative facilities (local authorities, mayors, municipalities, etc.)	Interest	Administration/public service; from nature conservation to regional development	Administration/public service	Administration/public service	Administration/public service
	Resources	Staff equipment diverse, low/medium financial resources,	Medium staff	Medium staff	Staff equipment diverse, low to medium financial resources
	Relationships	Diverse RS with multiple actors (HMLS, Nature Park Authority)	RS with nature park authority	Diverse RS with multiple actors	Diverse RS with multiple actors
(District) Forestry Service	Interest	Economic interests	Generate revenues from forestry, real estate, services	Generate revenues from forestry	Generate revenues from forestry
	Resources	Medium staff equipment, low financial resources,	Low-medium human and financial resources	Medium staff equipment, medium financial resources	Medium staff equipment, medium financial resources
	Relationships	Strong RS with Nature Park Authority	RS with nature park	RS with park authority	RS with nature park
Tourism organizations²⁵	Interest	Tourism, marketing of the region	Tourism, marketing of region	Tourism, marketing of region	Tourism, marketing of region
	Resources	Medium staff equipment	Medium staff equipment	Medium human resources	Medium human resources
	Relationships	Good RS with Nature Park Authority, entrepreneurs	Good RS with regional development and National Park Gesäuse	Good RS with Park Authority, entrepreneurs	Good RS with entrepreneurs and park authority

²⁵ In Nature Park Lauenburgische Seen: HLMS; in Nature Park Steirische Eisenwurzen: Tourismusverband Alpenregion Nationalpark Gesäuse; in Peak District National Park: Visit Peak District & Derbyshire Destination; and in France: Auvergne Livradois-Forez Tourisme (ALFT)

Tourism provider / Entrepreneurs ²⁶	Interest	Economic benefit, Utilization of tourism facilities	Tourism, Economic benefit	Utilization of tourism facilities, economic benefit	(Sustainable) tourism, economic benefit
	Resources	Medium staff, medium financial resources	Low human and financial resources	Low-medium financial resources	Low-medium financial resources
	Relationships	Good RS with nature park, HLMS, and Nature Park Authority	Strong RS with other entrepreneurs, problems with nature park	Strong RS with park authority	Medium RS with park authority, strong RS to other entrepreneurs
Nature conservation associations ²⁷	Interest	Nature conservation, biodiversity	Nature conservation, leisure activities	Nature conservation	Nature conservation, environmental education
	Resources	Low staff, low financial resources,	Low staff	Medium (high group of volunteers)	Low resources
	Relationships	Medium RS with local nature conservation authority and Nature Park Authority	Medium RS with park authority	Strong RS with other groups and with the park	Strong RS with park authority
Cultural institutions ²⁸	Interest	Social interest, nature conservation,	Cultural activities. Revitalize the region.	Cultural activities	Cultural activities for inhabitants and tourists, vital villages
	Resources	Medium staff and financial resources	Medium	Medium	Medium
	Relationships	Medium RS with nature organizations, Local action group	RS with park authority, and regional development	Diverse RS	Diverse RS with other networks
Tourism and nature centres, museums ²⁹	Interest	Environmental education; tourism	Environmental education; tourism	Environmental education; tourism	Environmental education; tourism
	Resources	Low-medium staff	Low staff	Medium staff	Medium-low staff
	Relationships	Strong RS with HLMS, and Nature Park Authority	RS with nature park authority, municipalities	Strong relations with park authority, tourism organizations	Strong relations with park authority, tourism organizations
Local action groups/LEADER R ³⁰	Interest	Regional development	Regional development	Regional development	Regional development
	Resources	Low staff resources, medium financial resources	Low human and financial resources	Low human and financial resources	Low human resources
	Relationships	Strong RS with entrepreneurs, churches	Close connection of nature park and regional development	Co-operation with farmers	Closely connected with park authority
Farmers' Union	Interest	Representation and services to farmer and grower members	No local farmers union	Representation and services to farmer and grower members	No local farmer union
	Resources	Medium staff	-	Medium staff	-
	Relationships	Strong RS with farmers, no relation with Nature Park Authority	-	New relations with park authority	-
Farmer	Interest	Economic interests	Economic profit from agriculture landscape management, Home	Economic profit from agriculture landscape management, Home	Economic profit from agriculture landscape management

²⁶ Nature Park Steirische Eisenwurzen: Naturparkpartner & Naturparkspezialitätenpartner; in Peak District National Park: Environmental Quality Mark; and in France: Produit du Parc regional naturel Licradios-Forez

²⁷ In Nature Park Lauenburgische Seen: WWF, NABU, BUND, Zweckverband Schaalseelandschaft; in Nature Park Steirische Eisenwurzen: Friends of Nature (Naturfreunde Österreich), Österreichischer Alpenverein; in Peak District National Park: Natural England, Wildlife Trust; and in France: Randonnee en Livradois Forez (RELFF), Reseau Foncier agricole

²⁸ In Nature Park Lauenburgische Seen: Foundation (Stiftung Herzogtum Lauenburg), churches; in Nature Park Steirische Eisenwurzen: Kulturkreis Gallenstein; and in Livraois-Forez: Cineparc, Association des Bibliothécaires du livradois-Forez (A.B.L.F.) etc.

²⁹ In Nature Park Lauenburgische Seen: erlebnisreich; in Nature Park Steirische Eisenwurzen: GeoZentrum, Forstmuseum Großreifling; in Peak District National Park: National Park Information centres; and in France: Maison du Parc, jasserie du coq noir, etc.

³⁰ In Nature Park Lauenburgische Seen: AktivRegion Herzogtum Lauenburg Nord e.V; in Nature Park Steirische Eisenwurzen: Regional Development Gesäuse (Regionalentwicklung Gesäuse); in Peak District National Park: LEADER group (Peak District Rural Action Zone (RAZ)); in France: Cap Actif, LEADER 2007-2013 Livradois-Forez

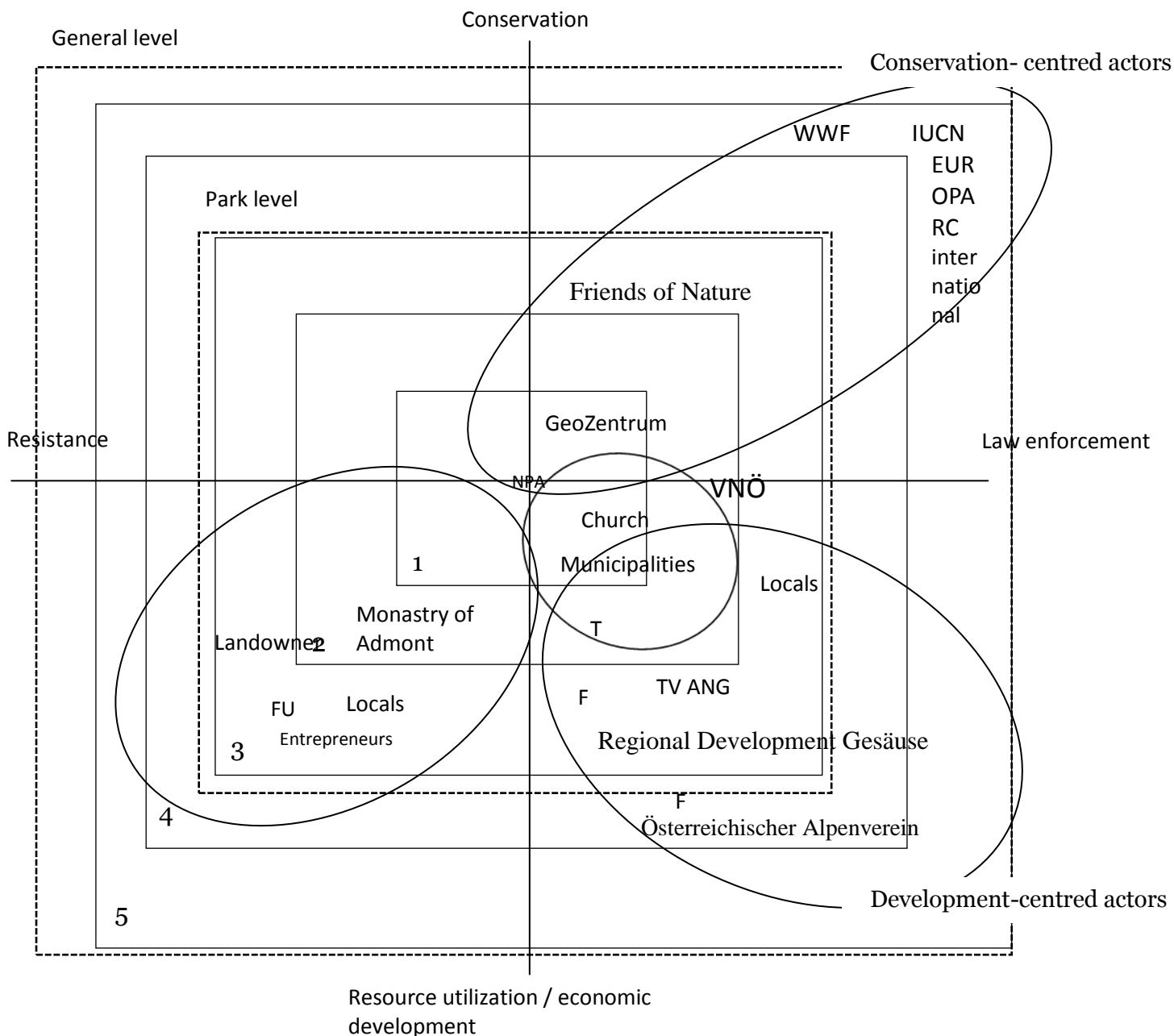
	Resources	Medium staff equipment, medium resources	Some farmers have a great amount of land	Low resources,	Low resources
	Relationships	Strong RS with mayors, and to farmers union, weak RS to park authority	Some farmers have good RS with the Nature Park Authority	RS with park authority, LEADER	RS with park authority and to other farmers
Landowner (estate owners) ³¹	Interest	Economic profit from forestry and agriculture, private interests	Economic profit from forestry and agriculture	Economic profit (Heritage & landscape protection)	Economic profit, private interests,
	Resources	Medium staff equipment, diverse financial resources,	High financial resources, strong influence	High financial resources,	Medium resources
	Relationships	Some medium RS with Nature Park Authority & administrative facilities	Diverse RS	Diverse RS	Diverse RS
Local industry (quarries, water companies, automotive industries etc.)	Interest	Economic profit	Economic profit	Economic profit	Economic profit
	Resources	Medium staff equipment, medium resources	Medium staff equipment, medium resources,	Medium staff equipment, higher resources	Low resources
	Relationships	Relatively weak RS with the park	Several RS with park authority and regional development Gesäuse	Diverse RS	Diverse RS

³¹ In Nature Park Steirische Eisenwurzen: Monastery of Admont (Stift Admont); in Peak District National Park: Chatsworth House; in the other parks no immediate large estate owners

Country specific abbreviations

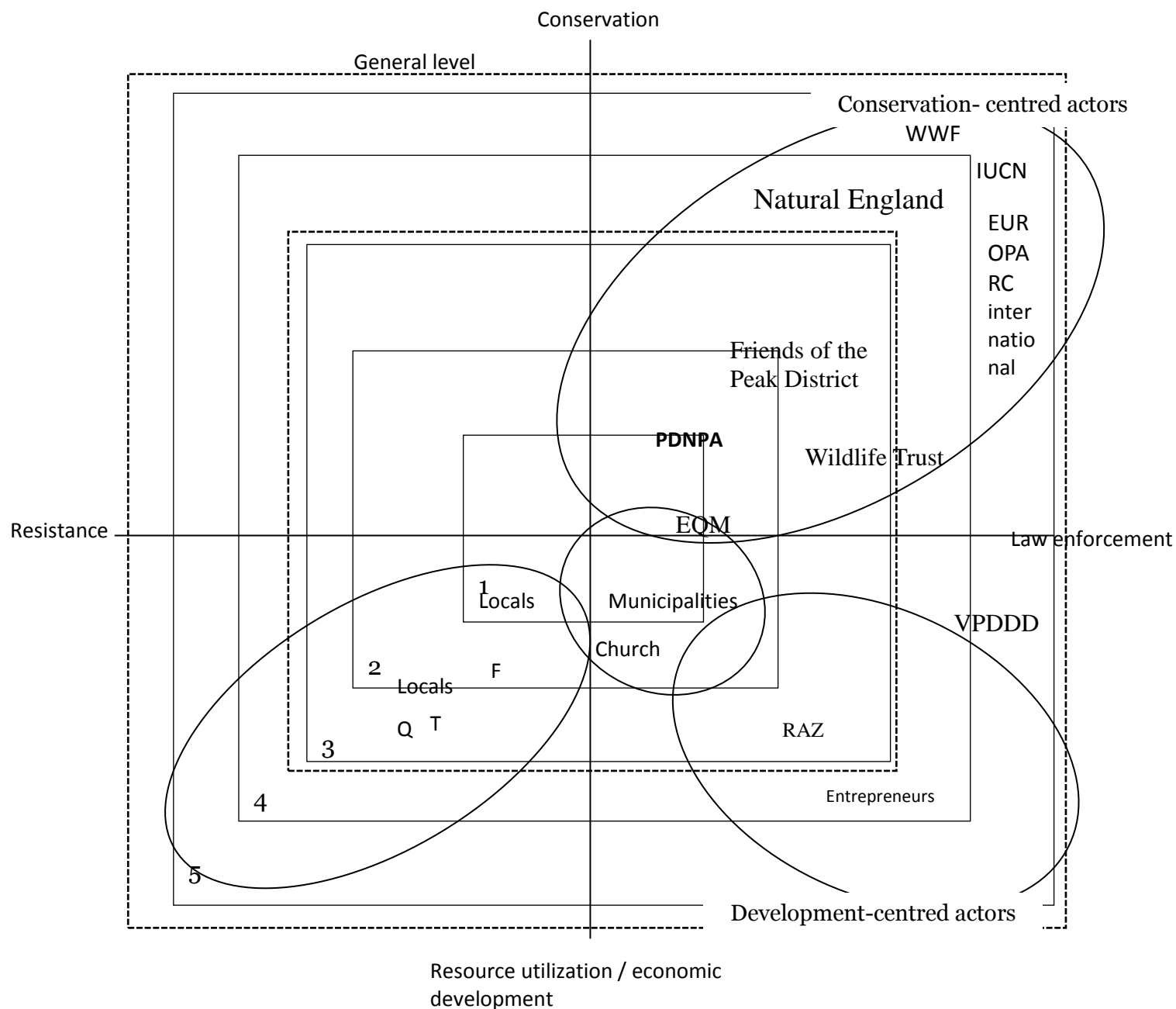
<i>Actor</i>	<i>Naturpark Lauenburgische Seen (Germany)</i>	<i>Naturpark Eisenwurzen (Austria)</i>	<i>Steirische (Austria)</i>	<i>Peak District National Park (England)</i>	<i>Parc Naturel Régional Livradois-Forez (France)</i>
Governmental and supra national institutions	BfN = Bundesamt für Naturschutz BMU = Bundesministerium für Umwelt, Naturschutz und Reaktorsicherheit UBA = Umweltbundesamt LLUR= Landesamt für Landwirtschaft, Umwelt und ländliche Räume MLUR= Ministerium für Landwirtschaft, Umwelt und ländliche Räume DRD=Department of Regional development EUROPARC international= international umbrella organization for protected areas KF= Kreisforsten ONB= Obere Naturschutzbehörden UNB=Untere Naturschutzbehörden	BMLFUW = Bundesministerium für Land- und Forstwirtschaft, Umwelt und Wasserwirtschaft LSA =Land Steiermark Fachabteilung 13C Naturschutz EUROPARC international= international umbrella organization for protected areas M=Municipalities Geopark		Defra = Department for Environment, Food and Rural Affairs DCLG = Department for Communities and Local Government FC = Forestry Commission EH = English Heritage NE = Natural England EUROPARC international= international umbrella organization for protected areas	MEDAD = Ministry of Environment and Sustainable Development and Land Planning ONCFS = National Office for Hunting and Wildlife (l'Office national de la chasse et de la faune sauvage,) ONF = Office national des forêts, (National Forestry Office) NFS) National Forest Service (NFS) EUROPARC international= international umbrella organization for protected areas
Tourism Sector	HLMS= Herzogtum Lauenburg Marketing und Service GmbH (Tourism organisation) ET=Ecotourist T= Tourist	TV ANG = Tourismusverband Alpenregion Nationalpark Gesäuse T= Tourist		VPDDD = Visit Peak District & Derbyshire Destination T= Tourist	ALFT = Auvergne Livradois-Forez Tourisme T= Tourist
International and local Non-Governmental Institutions (NGO)	Greenpeace EUROPARC Deutschland= Umbrella organization for protected areas in Germany VDN=Verband deutscher Naturparke SHNPs= Group of all nature parks in Schleswig-Holstein WWF= World Wide Fund for Nature BUND=Bund für Umwelt und Naturschutz Deutschland (Friends of the Earth Germany) NABU=Deutscher Naturschutzbund WWF _M = World Wide Fund for Nature Mölln ARHLN = AktivRegion Herzogtum Lauenburg Nord e.V ZSL=Zweckverband Schaalseelandschaft	Association of Austrian Nature Parks (VNÖ) NÖ = Naturfreunde Österreich Wildalpen (Friends of Nature) KG=Kulturkreis Gallenstein Österreichischer Alpenverein Regional Development Gesäuse (Regionalentwicklung Gesäuse) Monastery of Admont (Stift Admont) GeoZentrum Forstmuseum Großreifling Wasserleitungsmuseum		UK ANPA - Association of National Park Authorities Wildlife Trust RAZ = Peak District Rural Action Zone (LEADER group) Friends of the Peak District	Fédération des Parcs naturels régionaux de France ENF= Federation des conservatoires d'espaces naturels (Regional Conservatories of Natural Areas (regional) France Nature Environment A.B.L.F.=Association des Bibliothécaires du Livradois-Forez RELF= Ranndonee en Livradois Forez LEADER 2007-2013 Livradois-Forez Reseau Foncier agricole Cineparc Jasserie du coq noir Cap Actif
Enterprises	Tourism SME	Naturparkpartner & Naturparkspezialitätenpartner Tourism SME		Tourism SME EQM = Environmental Quality Mark Businesses Q =Quarries CH = Chatsworth House NPIC = National Park Information centres PDNPA=Peak District National Park Authority	Tourism SME Produit du Parc regional naturel Livrados-Forez
Park Authorities	NPA=Nature Park Authority	NPA=Nature Park Authority			NPA=Nature Park Authority MdP=Maison du Parc

Nature Park Steirische Eisenwurzten



Actual governance structure: Nature Park Steirische Eisenwurzten (based on Brenner & Job, 2012)

Peak District National Park

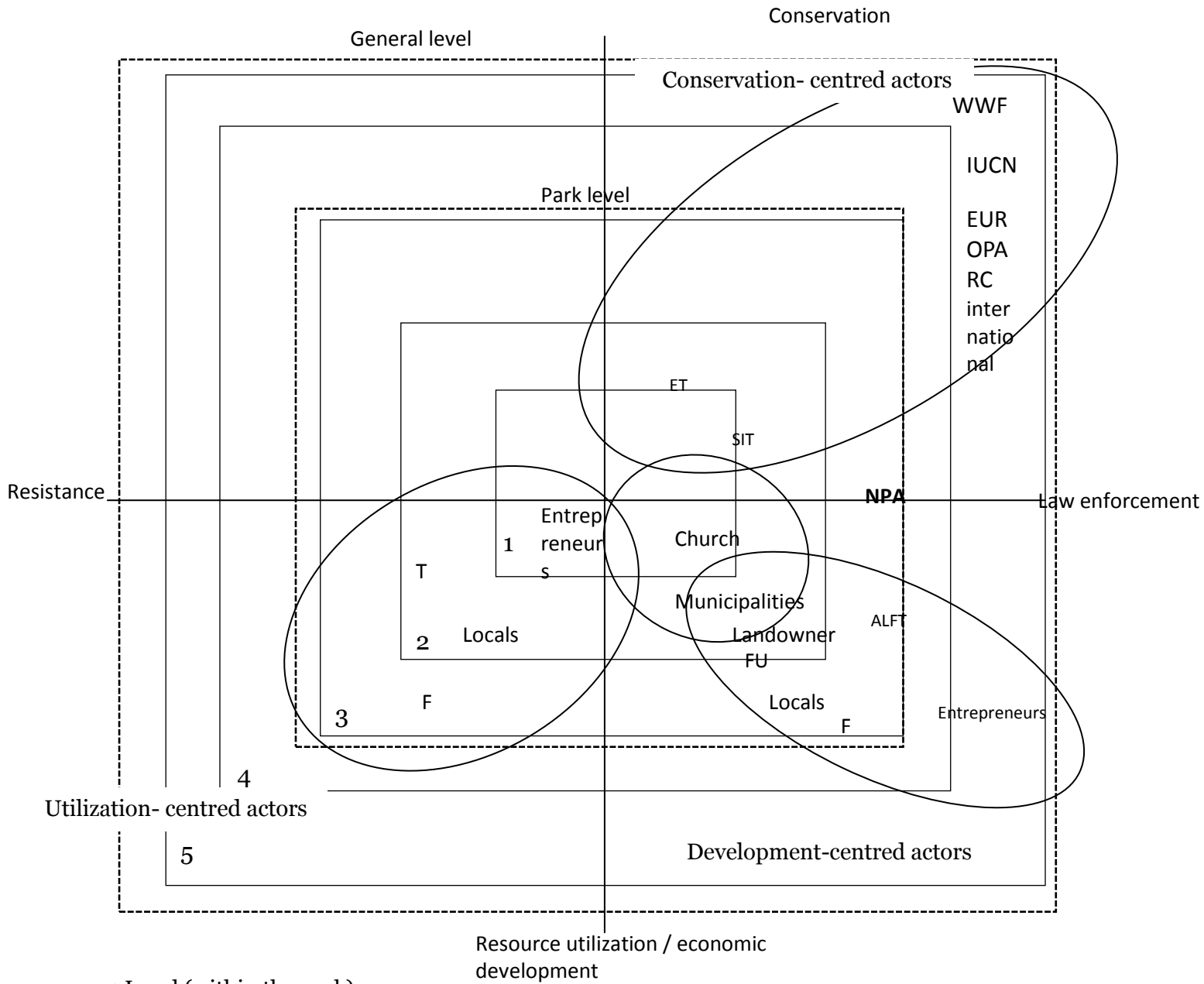


- 1 Local (within the park)
- 2 Local (park and surrounding areas)
- 3 Regional
- 4 National
- 5 International/global

Resources
 Minor/low
 Medium
 Major/High

Actual governance structure: Peak District National Park (based on Brenner & Job, 2012)

Regional Nature Park Livradois-Forez



- 1 Local (within the park)
- 2 Local (park and surrounding areas)
- 3 Regional
- 4 National
- 5 International/global

- Power resources
- Minor/low
 - Medium
 - Major/High

Actual governance structure: Regional Nature Park Livradois-Forez (based on Brenner & Job, 2012)

Chapter 8 Governance of protected landscapes and its implications for economic evaluation



Impressions from Peak District National Park and Regional Nature Park Livradois-Forez

8. Governance of protected landscapes and its implications for economic evaluation³²

8.1 Introduction

The goal of this chapter is to provide an introduction to the governance of protected landscapes and to shed some new light on how the increasing complexity of this topic requires a multifaceted and nuanced economic evaluation approach. Because the term “governance” – and especially its relation to “protected areas” – is crucial to this chapter, we will in this introductory section first elaborate on these two items, before we briefly outline the structure of this chapter.

Governance – a general description

The last decade has seen rapid advances in the field of nature policy and regional development, especially into the direction of non-hierarchical structures and bottom-up decision making. Thus, the term “governance” has become crucial in the ongoing scientific and policy discussions about the development of regions and landscapes.³³

Governance primarily describes the social decisions which develop from (in principal) equal and voluntary cooperation between state, private industries and civic actors. It concerns the interactions and relationships of actors through networks and the combination of different co-ordination mechanisms such as markets and negotiations. As such, governance implies that policy decisions are not under direct political control alone, but negotiated between the different actors and political levels. Due to their involvement in governance arrangements, economic and civil actors have the ability to influence political processes. This contrasts to the traditional role of the state as a hierarchical political decision maker. The potential of governance for environmental policy is currently broadly discussed (Böcher et al. 2008).

A variety of governance terms has emerged (see Figure 8.1). What is relevant here is that some of these terms refer to different spatial scales and levels, such as local governance, regional governance, urban governance, rural governance or landscape governance (see the bold elements in the Figure 8.1). They almost always share equal cooperation of all actors and have a bottom-up

³² This chapter is reprinted from Mehnen, N., Mose, I. & Strijker, D. (2013): Governance of protected landscapes and its implication for economic evaluation. Chapter 6. In Van der Heide, M. & W. Heijman (eds.). *The Economic value of landscapes*, London: Routledge. pp. 101-119.

³³ According to the European Landscape Convention, “Landscape” means: ‘an area, as perceived by people, whose character is the result of the action and interaction of natural and/or human factors’ (Council of Europe 2006, see also Chapter 2 of this book). The definition applies to the whole territory of states including all urban and periurban landscapes, towns, villages and rural areas, the coast and inland areas. It applies to ordinary or even degraded landscape as well as those areas that are outstanding or protected. The European Landscape Convention argues that the protection, management and planning of all landscapes in Europe is a task not just for governments but for all sectors of civil society, entailing ‘rights and responsibilities for everyone’ (Governance). The concept of landscape as understood by all three official languages (English, French and Spanish) of IUCN and in the European Landscape Convention embodies both the natural world and the human impact on it. We follow Antrop et al. (Chapter 2 of this book), who distinguish between landscape and land (a piece of terrain, bounded in space and bordered, and very often owned by someone or some institution. Land refers to (private) property that can be used more or less freely by its owner). Land use is the result of indirect and direct human impact.

approach in common, but it is questionable if that really is the case. Only the geographic scale differs with implications for the context.

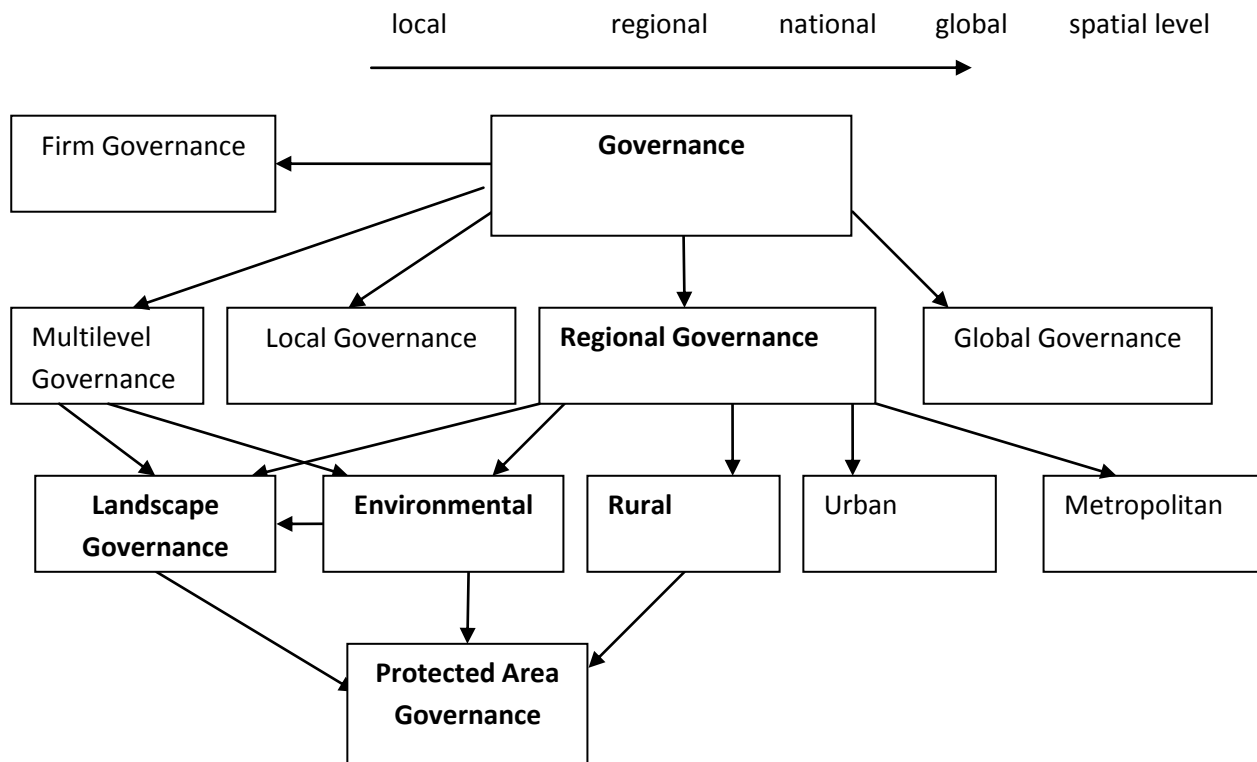


Figure 8.1: Different terms of governance

Regional governance, for example, refers first and foremost to the regional level (Fürst 2003, Pollermann 2006), while the term “rural governance” applies particularly to peripheral, rural areas. In addition, the concept of environmental governance has received considerable attention the last few years (Hempel 1996, Weale et al. 2003). Davidson and Frickel (2004: 471) define environmental governance as ‘attempts by governing bodies or combinations thereof to alleviate recognized environmental dilemmas’. A vast volume of literature on environmental governance focuses on the top-down approach. According to most of these treatments, an improvement in governance is to be sought by reforming government and government-related institutions, assuming that the reason for environmental problems is an institutional weakness.

Landscape governance is a component of environmental governance. It is neither exclusively nor primarily involved in the maintenance of untouched, natural landscapes, nor is it necessarily in concordance with the maintenance of cultural landscapes. In the next sub-section, we will describe in further detail the governance of protected areas and how it relates to the preservation of landscapes. But before doing so, we first quote Görg, who argues:

‘What seems to make the landscape concept useful as a link between governance processes in multi-level-politics and natural-spatial conditions is precisely its hybrid character, that is, that

societal and “natural” factors are intrinsically linked to one another. Cultural, aesthetic, economic and social dimensions are as much involved as ecological functioning or abiotic conditions. Therefore, using the concept of landscape instead of the concept of region (cp. to regional governance: Pütz, 2004) is a more appropriate way of incorporating these dimensions. Herein, landscape provides the rescaling of politics with a material foundation, without returning to presumptions regarding ontologically prescribed spaces.’ (Görg 2007: 961).

However, the concept of regional governance is more valuable when it comes to concrete regions with distinctive (administrative) boundaries and management systems, which is the case in protected landscapes.

Governance of protected areas

For several years, the term governance has been applied to protected areas and the term “protected area governance” has been established (Borrini-Feyerabend 2004, Dearden et al. 2005, Fürst et al. 2006, Stoll-Kleemann et al. 2006). Protected area governance is useful because resources such as biodiversity and heritage create conflicts over their use and preservation. But also a kind of tension emerges, as resource protection is usually regulated top-down (through state administration) and governance is bottom-up (for example, through local initiatives).

Protected areas are a cornerstone of modern conservation policy – a legacy of the world’s most valuable assets and places. By 2008, there were over 120,000 protected areas covering a total of about 21 million square kilometers. While the terrestrial protected areas listed in the World Database on Protected Areas cover 12.2 per cent of the Earth’s land area, marine protected areas currently cover 5.9 per cent of the Earth’s territorial seas and only 0.5 per cent of the extraterritorial seas. Among nations there is a great deal of variation in protection: only 45 per cent of the 236 countries and territories assessed had more than 10 per cent of their terrestrial area protected, and only 14 per cent had more than 10 per cent of their marine area protected (UNEP-WCMC 2010). The roots of the protected area idea go back thousands of years – long before governments created national parks – to the conservation regimes that human societies have been devising for millennia, among which are community-conserved areas (Borrini-Feyerabend 2002).

The modern foundation for protected areas was established in the late nineteenth century in the United States, with the designation of Yosemite as a State Park in 1864 and soon later Yellowstone as a National Park in 1872. The “Yellowstone model” is seen as representing the preservation of large and wild areas by governments, where people are allowed to visit for recreation and pleasure but not reside. While in many places the public image of protected areas is still rooted in this national park model, in reality the protected area idea has evolved, moving beyond a single model to include many different kinds of protected areas.

Today the world's protected areas vary in almost every respect, including the purposes for which they are managed, their size, the resources they protect, and the management body responsible for the area (Phillips 2002). For this reason, the International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) has created a classification system which identifies six categories of protected areas according to different management objectives. Within this system, the protected areas of Category V ("Protected Landscapes/Seascapes") are based on the interaction of *people and nature*, which makes the concept of governance a cornerstone in the maintenance of this category.

The importance of the governance concept is further substantiated by the paradigmatic shift or extension from a static-preservation to a dynamic-development oriented approach of areas, which occurred in recent years (Mose 2007). Among a number of relevant aspects, this shift includes a reallocation of responsibility: formerly protected areas were primarily managed by the central government while now several actors or stakeholders are involved. In general, however, protection remains the formal responsibility of the government.

Protected landscapes are a recent development and today play a growing role in national systems of protected areas, and in regional and global conservation strategies. Significant progress has been made over the last 25 years, running parallel to broader trends in conservation and in new approaches to protected areas in general. Protected landscapes are the predominant category, especially in Europe. The most recent United Nations List of Protected Areas 2003 declares that 46.1 per cent of the total protected area in Europe is classified as protected landscape (IUCN category V) (Chape et al. 2003). According to this classification, which we shall return to later in this chapter, protected landscapes take multiple interests into account and (because of this) are less strict and less contentious than other protected areas, like for example national parks which are mostly created for the preservation of flora and fauna and for the benefit and enjoyment of the public. Because the term "national park" existed long time before the IUCN classification system, some countries have categorized their national parks under other IUCN categories (e.g. English national parks are described as lived-in landscapes and classified under IUCN category V (Dudley 2008)). Due to this characteristic, protected landscapes have become important for regional development. Some regions apply for a designated protected landscape to increase the value of the area in order to obtain social, cultural and economic benefits. A good example of this is the Black Forest Nature Park Central/North in Germany, where local stakeholders and the local population applied together for the status of protected landscape area (Verband Deutscher Naturparke 2008). The same applies for the UNESCO Biosphere Reserve Entlebuch in Switzerland (Hammer 2007) and the UNESCO Biosphere Park³⁴ Großes Walsertal in Austria (Coy and Weixlbaumer 2009).

³⁴ Biosphere parks are identical to biosphere reserves. The Austrian Man and the Biosphere (MAB) National Committee decided to use the term "biosphere park" for reasons of acceptability (<http://www.grosseswalsertal.at>).

All in all, governance structures in protected landscapes have become more complex and the goals are less concrete. This, of course, has consequences for the evaluation of protected landscapes: what is their economic and societal impact, and are the costs of protecting these landscapes higher or lower than their benefits?

Structure of the chapter

The remainder of this chapter is organized as follows. In the following section we further elaborate on the concepts of protected landscapes. Here, we also conceptualize the governance of these landscapes, before we conclude with a few considerations about the state of the art of it in different European countries. Then, attention will be paid to the existence of multiple functions and various values of protected landscapes, including the production of (agricultural) goods and the protection of biodiversity. In the last part, we will trace the objectives of the different actors, and conclude with what the consequences are of their multiple and possibly conflicting objectives for the economic evaluation of protected landscapes, and introduce a step-by-step-plan for the economic evaluation (of governance) of protected landscapes.

8.2 Protected Landscapes – Different Approaches, Categories and Emphases

Protected landscapes are categorized by the interaction of man and nature, thus the question of governance emerges. Apart from the already mentioned IUCN classification, there is also a classification by the UNESCO, with which we will discuss in the following sub-section. Table 8.1 summarizes the various types of protected landscapes.

Table 8.1: Comparison of the different protected landscape initiatives

Initiative	Character of affected landscape	Geographical scope of application	Areas covered by initiative	Main aims	Governance
UNESCO World Natural Heritage	Outstanding natural value, from the point of view of science, conservation or natural beauty	Global	Natural features	Protect natural values	No specific governance objectives
UNESCO World Cultural Heritage	Outstanding cultural value, from the point of view of history, art or science	Global	Monuments, group of buildings, sites	Protect cultural values	No specific governance objectives
UNESCO Cultural Landscape	Outstanding universal value	Global	Any appropriate area	Protect heritage values	Multi-stakeholder approach
UNESCO Biosphere Reserve	Outstanding universal value	Global	Areas with high biodiversity values	Conservation of biodiversity and biological resources	Multi-stakeholder approach
IUCN Category V	Landscape/Seascape that deserves protection	National / Sub-national	Landscapes that typically have been modified	Integrate activities and enhance natural	Multi-stakeholder approach with

			extensively by people over time	and cultural values	different protected area governance types
IUCN Category VI	Areas in a natural condition	National / Sub-national	Unmodified natural systems	Sustainable use of natural resources	Management by public bodies or through local custom

In the table, the term “multi-stakeholder processes” is used to indicate that these types of protected landscapes require and allow for new forms of communication and decision-finding and possibly decision-making. Decision-finding or decision aid relates to the finding of all different possible arguments and ‘keys which might enable the actors to go forward’ (Bana e Costa and Pirlot 1997: 565). Decision-making, as the term itself already suggests, relates to the making of concrete decisions (based on weights). The geographical scope of the application in most types of protected landscapes is global, only the areas classified under IUCN category V and category VI (see hereafter) are more of national or sub-national (and hence local or regional) importance.

UNESCO designations

The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) designates places of cultural and scientific significance. The most important types are UNESCO World Natural Heritage, UNESCO World Cultural Heritage, UNESCO Cultural Landscapes and the UNESCO Biosphere Reserves (UNESCO 2008) (see Table 6.1). One of the UNESCO types is “cultural landscapes”, described as having outstanding universal value and developed through dynamic and evolving human relationships and interactions with the environment (“living landscapes”).³⁵ There are three categories of cultural landscapes:

- (i) Landscape designed and created intentionally by man: this embraces garden and parkland landscapes constructed for aesthetic reasons which are often (but not always) associated with religious or other monumental buildings and ensembles.
- (ii) Organically evolved landscape: this results from an initial social, economic, administrative, and/or religious imperative and has developed its present form by association with and in response to its natural environment. They fall into two sub-categories: a relict (or fossil) landscape (where the evolutionary process came to an end at some time in the past) or a continuing landscape (where the evolutionary process is still in progress, and which retains an active social role in contemporary society closely associated with the traditional way of life).

³⁵ Cultural landscapes are often conceived as a ‘conceptual bridge between culture and nature, between tangible and intangible heritage, and across space and time.’ (Brown 2008: 5).

- (iii) Associative cultural landscape: the inscription of such landscapes on the World Heritage List is justifiable by virtue of the powerful religious, artistic or cultural associations of the natural element rather than material cultural evidence, which may be insignificant or even absent (UNESCO 2008).

UNESCO Biosphere reserves are maybe the most prominent example of protected landscapes; they are an instrument of UNESCO's Man and the Biosphere (MAB) programme, dedicated to sustainable development and the conservation of biodiversity, as well as the support of environmental education, research, and the monitoring of the most important natural areas of the world. One key element in this program is the involvement of local actors and especially the participation of local inhabitants. Because these biosphere reserves are places that seek to reconcile economic development, social development and environmental protection through partnerships between people and nature, they are ideal to test and demonstrate approaches to sustainable development at a regional scale (Hammer 2007).

IUCN categories

The International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) designates two categories which concern protected landscapes: IUCN category V and IUCN category VI. IUCN category V is defined as "Protected Landscape/Seascape" and

'represents a protected landscape or seascape where the interaction of people and nature over time has produced an area of distinct character with significant ecological, biological, cultural and scenic value. Safeguarding the integrity of this interaction is vital to protecting and sustaining the area and its associated nature conservation and other values.'

(Dudley 2008: 20).

An area that is categorized as "Protected Landscape/Seascape" may be owned by a public authority, but is more likely to comprise a mosaic of private and public ownerships operating under a variety of management regimes, such as associations or limited companies. These regimes should be subject to a degree of planning or other control and are supported, where appropriate, by public funding and other incentives, to ensure that the quality of the landscape or seascape and the relevant local customs and beliefs are maintained in the long term.

The other category of protected landscapes is IUCN category VI: "Managed Resource Protected Areas", which shares with Category V an emphasis on sustainable use of natural resources. However, Category VI differs from Category V in that "Protected Landscape/Seascape" areas involve landscapes that typically have been modified extensively by people over time. They are

based on the interaction of people and nature. Category VI, on the other hand, includes areas with predominantly unmodified natural systems that are managed to ensure long term protection and maintenance of nature and biodiversity. These areas must be managed in such a way that at least two-thirds of its natural system remains unmodified (Phillips 2002). This means that management should be undertaken with an unambiguous remit for conservation, and carried out in partnership with the local community. In practical terms, management of Category VI areas may be provided through local customs supported and advised by governmental or non-governmental agencies. Ownership is in the hands of the national (or other levels of) government, the community, private individuals, or a combination of these.

Emphases of protected landscapes in Europe

Protected landscapes in Europe have different emphases and goals (Mose 2007), such as traditional forms of nature protection (Italy, Spain, Slovenia, Croatia, East Germany), recreation and tourism (West Germany, Great Britain) and motor for rural development (France, Luxembourg, Belgium, Austria, Germany (from 2002), Switzerland (from 2006)). In the Netherlands, the so-called National Landscapes (*Nationale Landschappen*) are characteristic for the Dutch countryside, emphasizing the landscape scale of history and the connectivity between people, places and heritage items. They integrate natural and cultural heritage conservation by examining them at a landscape level. The Dutch National Landscapes are not classified within the IUCN classification system or within any other global initiative yet.

Most, if not all protected landscapes in Europe aim to integrate protection and land use and, as such, they are instruments of regional development. Hence, protected landscapes contribute to the regional economy as well as to the preservation of biodiversity and the services provided by nature. In the future, this integration will be of even greater importance, due to increasing impacts of settlements and other forms of land use. In this context protected landscapes have a central role, because they open the perspective of multi-purpose land use explicitly (Mose 2007).

8.3 Multi-functionality and values of protected landscapes

Protected landscapes are not only characterized by their classification and their complex governance structures but also by their multiple functions (regulatory function, habitat function, support function, development function and information function). These functions have been described extensively in the literature (e.g. Mose 2007) and will not be discussed further here. Rather, we wish only to state that until recently most (rural) landscapes were treated as “mono-functional” with emphasis almost exclusively on (agricultural) productive functions. While for many parts of Europe such functions are still important to some extent, other (explicitly consumptive) functions are

gaining in significance, such as leisure, residence, and ecological and environmental functions. As a result of this, the primary production function has decreased further and further in importance.

Transitions between functions, and the changing relationships that these transitions imply are encapsulated in the concept of landscape. In fact, landscapes and especially protected landscapes are multifunctional by definition: they are more than just shapes and morphological features of the surface of the earth, more than habitats, more than images, more than elements of culture. They are the interfaces where the social and the natural interact and a space where the global and the local meet. Multifunctionality refers to the fact that an economic activity may have multiple outputs and may contribute to several societal objectives at once (e.g. Brouwer and Van der Heide 2009). It is thus an activity-oriented concept related to specific properties of the production process and its multiple outputs. Interestingly, multifunctionality represents a shift from a rather traditional production-centric view to one that incorporates other outputs that are often beyond the private domain.

While multifunctionality and multi-purpose land management is becoming increasingly important, land users and policy makers must nevertheless make choices between different, and usually competing, land uses. In view of the various functions of the protected landscape and the multiple stakeholders and land users involved (e.g. farmers, environmentalists, tourists and local inhabitants), land use allocation problems are spatial planning problems. The interaction among different stakeholders on a common stage highlights the complex interaction between ecological processes and economic activities. Not surprisingly thus that problems of competing claims can be really severe in protected landscapes.

The various functions of protected landscapes reflect a variety of values (which can be tangible but also intangible). They indicate that protected landscapes serve not only as a conservation tool but also as economic engines for tourism and outdoor recreation, food and fibre production and (ecological) education and research. Very important values are environmental and natural values, cultural values, educational values, scientific values, recreational values and spiritual values. There is a broad range of literature focusing on these values (Getzner et al. 2005, Amend et al. 2008, Mallarach 2008). For several years (and mainly due to the concept of “ecosystem services”), the economic or utilitarian value of protected areas has become more and more important. Most of the studies differentiate between use values and non-use values of protected areas and concentrate on regional value added through protected area tourism (e.g. Task Force on Economic Benefits of Protected Areas 1998, Küpfer 2000, Job et al. 2005, Job et al. 2009, various other contributions to this book).

8.4 Many stakeholders with differing interests

One key issue for protected landscapes is the engagement of a diverse set of stakeholders on equal terms in order to facilitate governance. A legal framework can shape the form of governance and can provide recognition of traditional management systems and customary law. Strict principles of (voluntary) participation, decentralization, transparency, and a search for consensus combined with administrative flexibility, a lack of bureaucracy and a process that involves simultaneous and equal participation of all levels of government and non-government bodies (NGOs, members of the scientific community, the private sector and local population) characterize contemporary governance.

These new governance structures have a different influence on economic evaluation – the process of scoring or rating the quality of landscapes. Strict rules and strict objectives defined by the state are easier to evaluate than fuzzy rules from bottom-up. Governance could increase or decrease the different functions of protected landscapes depending on which parties are most successful in navigating the governance process. For example, if civil society has a stronger influence on the process than private business interests then sustainable development could become a prominent concern while private business would become secondary.

Is local economic development compatible with environmental concerns such as the protection of biodiversity or landscapes? After numerous debates in the scientific world and in society, there is a growing consensus on this question. In many protected areas, institutional arrangements try to reconcile environmental objectives and economic interests of local populations. This multi-purpose land use is not entirely restricted to protected landscapes, but is rather typical for an increasing number of non-protected rural landscapes as well. In most of the protected landscapes, settlements (often established before official designation of a protected area) are included and even extension of built-up areas is allowed, while the stimulation of “heavy” industrial activities in protected landscapes is forbidden. As such, the multi-purpose land use is restricted to a limited number of less polluting and less disturbing (economic) activities (e.g. agriculture, tourism, crafts). As a result the integration of environmental objectives and economic interests leads to many different types of governance structures, in which local communities and actors regularly participate in decision-making processes. Many protected landscapes provide good examples of governance and especially of adaptive co-management of these areas (see also Chapter 5 in this book, Elbakidze et al. 2010).

In England, the practice of government regarding protected landscapes has changed recently as a result of processes of devolution and regionalization. The experience of regional governance in England has been that state and public agencies dominate new governance arrangements. Regional institutions have become recognized as significant players with whom the National Park Authorities and Area of Outstanding Natural Beauty partnerships (AONB) increasingly interact especially with

respect to the regional delivery of European funding. However, the national government is still important in terms of annual funding allocations and policy steer (Thompson 2003).

In Germany, the role of governance in protected landscapes is not so well researched. There are only a few studies focusing on governance in Biosphere Reserves (Stoll-Kleemann and Bertzky 2004, Fürst et al. 2006) and in Nature Parks (Gailing and Keim 2006). One general remark based on that research is that the conservation success of protected landscapes strongly depends on the appropriateness of their governance and management systems with regard to the local context (e.g. organizational structure, adaptive planning tools), but also on broader economic and governance issues.

In Finland, the management model for national parks is rather centralized from a European perspective (Grönholm 2009). There is, however, a tendency to put more emphasis on stakeholder governance through public participation within the participatory planning processes of management plans for national parks. Nevertheless, only very few of the affiliated local stakeholders are involved in institutional participation processes. Furthermore (and despite the sincere efforts and good intentions) a majority of the local stakeholders share the feeling that there is no possibility of participation. The main reason for this is a general lack of information and communication between the administrators and the local stakeholders. Because the lack of certain social values, such as social responsibility, an active local democracy and tolerance and civility, is at the root of many environmental conflicts, Grönholm (2009) suggests a more extensive local stakeholder involvement in the management of protected areas.

To perform a thorough evaluation, it is essential to identify and include all actors, interpret their interests and assess their costs and benefits of how to use the protected landscapes (see Figure 8.2).

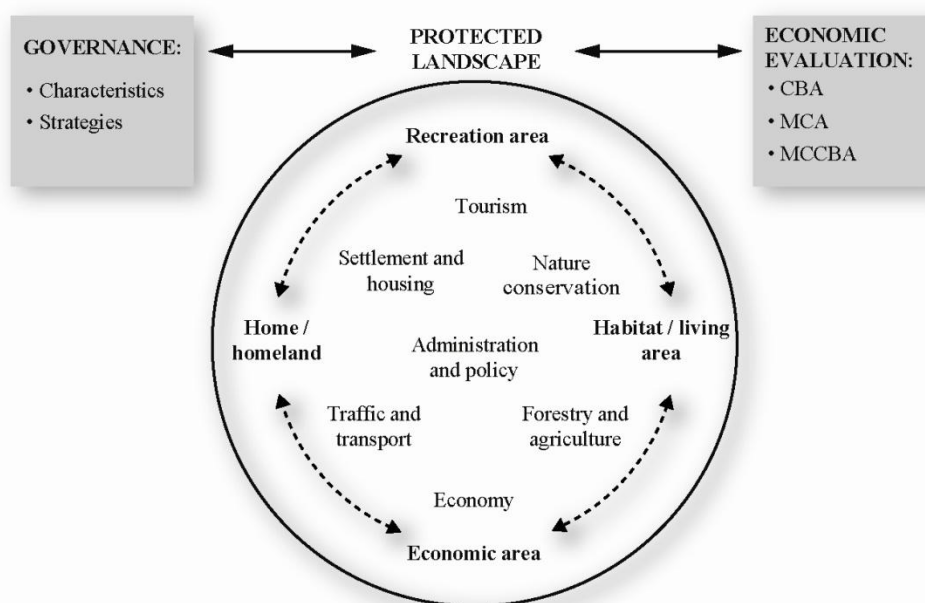


Figure 8.2: Governance, protected landscapes and economic evaluation

8.5 Implications for evaluation

There are many actors actively involved in new and modern ways of governance of protected landscapes, and these actors have different resources, interests and relations (Stoll-Kleemann and Welp 2006, Stokman and Vieth, 2004, Stokman, 2004). Some actors, such as the park management, will have broad interests in the ecological and recreational development of the protected area. Others will have more limited or partial interests. The owner of a rent-a-bike for instance is primarily interested in the accessibility of the park, the quality of the infrastructure, and probably the routing of the visitors, but not in protection of water resources, or the working routines of the park management. Local farmers will judge a plan primarily in terms of land use, water levels and building restrictions, but not in terms of visitors or the quality of the biodiversity.

In such circumstances, the emphasis in the assessment of the impact of a certain project on a protected landscape shifts from a discussion between specialists with a common language (discourse) to a kind of communication tool with different actors with unequal interests, knowledge and language. These interests cannot be denied, even when specialists regard them as less important: the articulated interests of the impacted actors should always be covered in the assessment. Their concerns should be taken into account in order to connect them to the project (Pannell et al. 2006, Stolp et al. 2002, Craig and Vanclay 2005). These concerns will be manifold for almost all projects, because usually not only economic, but also all kinds of social or environmental aspects play a role.

The traditional Cost Benefit Analysis (CBA) evaluation technique, which typically quantifies the costs and benefits of a project in monetary terms, is not very well suited to the challenge of considering all interests and concerns, because it does not take into account the distribution of the impacts. Recently, Sijtsma et al. (2011) have elaborated on this issue in the light of sustainability. Their conclusion is that a social benefit in monetary terms is only an increase in welfare, “when, and only when” society conceives it as such. That implies that all individual actors should conceive the project as yielding a social benefit. Besides the distributional shortfall of CBA, there is often fundamental disagreement between actors about the relevance of monetary judgment, or even its ethical desirability.

The complement of monetary evaluation techniques are non-monetary evaluation techniques, of which Multi Criteria Analysis (MCA) is the most well-known. As such, MCA is able to take into account all possible criteria of a project. The technique allows for the recognition and active participation of stakeholders, which fits very well with modern governance structures. However, in the case of many actors with differing interests and positions, and that is often the case in protected areas, there are practical limits to the application of MCA. One problem is how the preferences of stakeholders with partial interests should be judged against those with a broader interest. Moreover,

long lists of criteria are difficult to analyze, and lead to serious risks of double counting (Strijker et al. 2000b). In the case of Multi Criteria Decision Making (Strijker et al. 2000a), long lists of criteria will result in very low weights for the individual criteria (Sijtsma et al. 2011). And, very practical, MCA with many different criteria is costly to perform – not only in terms of money, but also in time.

An approach advocated in recent years is to combine both techniques – CBA and MCA – in a mixed approach: Multi Criteria Cost Benefit Analysis (MCCBA) (Sijtsma et al. 2011). Their idea dates back to the 1970s (Nijkamp and Van Delft 1977). Criteria which can be easily summarized in monetary terms, and on which the different actors can agree (investment costs, maintenance, benefits of the production of market goods) are treated in a traditional CBA-framework, leading to some kind of net present value (NPV). This NPV is then brought as one specific criterion in a MCA-framework. Non-market goods and elements on which the actors do not (potentially) agree, or which are relevant for only a limited number of actors, are measured in their own dimension or unit and are also inserted in the MCA. The risk of long lists of criteria as mentioned above is diminished, although not completely solved.

A great advantage of this approach in relation with modern governance structures is that different actors, also the less important ones with partial and specific interests, can participate in the process of effect assessment, which will lead to a greater support for the ultimate outcome of the project.

Our suggestion for a step-by-step-plan for the economic evaluation (of governance) of protected landscapes is based on the MCCBA approach of Sijtsma et al. (2011) (see Table 8.2).

Table 8.2: Step-by-step-plan for economic evaluation of (governance of) protected landscapes

Blocks	MCCBA	Economic evaluation of (governance of) protected landscapes
I: Providing the basic evaluation structure	Stage 1: Identify function, project alternatives and scale of the evaluation	Step 1: Identify function, alternatives and scale of the evaluation, should be negotiated afterwards with all actors
	Stage 2: Involve a broad group of stakeholders	Step 2: Involve actors from all sectors (state, economy and civil society)
	Stage 3: Organize judgment criteria on sustainability impacts	Step 3: Organize clear judgment criteria on governance of the protected landscape: value all meanings and opinions
II: Fact finding on physical impacts	Stage 4: Quantify impacts physically	Step 4: Quantify criteria physically (with knowledge of all actors)
III: Aggregation of impacts to a compact format	Stage 5: Aggregate monetary scores consensus based	Step 5: Aggregate monetary scores consensus based – all actors should have an equal voice

	Stage 6: Aggregate non-monetary scores consensus based	Step 6: Aggregate non-monetary scores consensus based – all actors should have an equal voice
IV: Communication of problem understanding	Stage 7: Interpret trade-offs	Step 7: Interpret trade-offs
	Stage 8: Perform sensitivity analysis and reconsider project alternatives	Step 8: Perform sensitivity analysis and reconsider project alternatives, evaluate the process

In the first step the function and the scale of the evaluation should be identified, but also possible alternatives need to be considered. Negotiation is crucial at this point. The second step is especially important for the evaluation of protected landscapes. (Representatives of) all actors from state, economy and civil society should be involved in the evaluation process. The whole evaluation process, its function, objective, alternatives and scale should be identified and negotiated with all actors involved in step 2. In the third step, when the clear judgment criteria on governance of the protected landscape are organized and negotiated, it is important that all interests and opinions should be taken seriously, also if specialists do not agree; otherwise the evaluation will not work. In step 4, the criteria should be quantified physically with the knowledge, experience and resources of all actors involved. Steps 5 and 6 deal with the aggregation of monetary scores and non-monetary scores. All actors must reach a consensus and have an equal and effective voice. Maybe it is necessary to use weights for actors who are more affected by a project (e.g. because they live in the area) than actors who are less affected. In step 7 trade-offs should be interpreted. Here, the consensus based aggregation of the performance matrix should be clarified and annotated, for example with a ratio-analysis (Sijtsma et al. 2011). The ratio-analysis is similar to cost-effectiveness analysis and set one criterion alongside another criterion (Stewart and Losa 2003, Sijtsma et al. 2011). A crucial step is the last one, when a sensitivity analysis should be performed and project alternatives should be reconsidered. The whole economic evaluation process should be evaluated at the end.

8.6 Conclusions

Compared to national parks, protected landscapes have come relatively late upon the protected area scene. Nevertheless, they play today a major role in national systems of protected areas and in regional and global conservation strategies. And although they are classified within different classification systems (UNESCO or IUCN), protected landscapes always have a combination of economic and/or societal use and biodiversity conservation in common. Governance structures of such areas can be very diverse, with many stakeholders and land users being involved (each with different interests and objectives) and this requires a multifaceted and nuanced economic evaluation approach. Economic (valuation) knowledge and information can be very useful for the governance

process of protected areas. For these very purposes, it is crucial that actually all actors are getting involved and that all their interests are being covered by the evaluation.

Clearly, it is unlikely that actors will adopt economic valuation results (e. g. CBA or MCCBA) wholeheartedly, but these results can nevertheless play an important role in negotiating and in the outcome of the process. Of course, there will always be actors who are likely to use the results as an argument (e.g. entrepreneurs), and others who are less likely to use them (e.g. nature conservationists). However, if every position and every stake is taken into account, it is more likely that the whole process will end with a well-grounded result, which all actors can accept and support. As we have explained above, the development of suitable governance arrangements is exactly about gaining sufficient acceptance and gets as many actors as possible actively involved in “their” protected landscape.

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Chapter 9 Conclusion and recommendations



Regional Nature Park Livradois-Forez (F)

9. Conclusion and recommendations

This dissertation contributes to reflections on the concept of *protected landscapes* by studying governance processes in IUCN category V areas. This chapter summarizes the research project's discussion and conclusions, thereby addressing some issues, such as EU policy, from a broader perspective. The main results are presented in four sections (concerning theory, methodology, protected areas and governance). Current and future strategies for protected landscapes are explained and recommendations and good practices are provided. Suggestions and advice for further research are explored in the final section, along with a proposal for a typology for the governance of European protected landscapes and a possible answer to whether protected landscapes can become the 'great hope' of European area protection policies.

9.1 General conclusions and common findings

This study shows that identifying the benefits of multi-actor engagement, participation and governance can provide useful insights into how decisions are made today. It can thereby help improve the quality of protected area planning, development and management.

Role of the state

In developed societies people are increasingly eager to gain influence (Maslow, 1943). However, influence should not be confused with operational command. Influence in this context is connected to decision-making, participation, cooperation and less to operational control. Heinrichs et al. (2011) show that for a sustainable society, participation and cooperation cannot be regarded as a 'universal cure'. The role of the state and sound institutional and legal frameworks are of fundamental importance for some societal tasks. For example, nature conservation interests cannot be performed with minimal state spending. Even where people are individually willing to pay for it, the state is still needed (willingness to pay; see Chapter 8). Therefore, in developed societies, when issues directly concern inhabitants – such as their local environment – or when direct financial implications have to be considered, there is a tendency for citizens to be interested in getting involved in decision-making processes.

If actors participate in decision-making, they also want to have an influence (see Chapter 7). For example, if actors participate in meetings and projects, thus donating their valuable time, they want to be taken seriously. They are eager to have the opportunity to contribute their local knowledge to decision-making. The state should therefore not withdraw from all its previous responsibilities. In that sense, concepts such as the *intelligent state* are not new but are significant (cf. Kliksberg, 2001). Kliksberg (2001) examines the role of the state in advancing towards sustainable solutions for improving society. He expands conventional views concerning the state and proposes looking

beyond traditional concepts, such as the omnipotent state, the overburdened state or the minimal state. He proposes new areas for developmental thought on the role of social capital and culture in development or community participation in implementing public policies and programmes.

EU policies

Changes in nature protection policies and in regional EU policies (for example in EU cohesion policy and the common agricultural policy) will have an impact on protected area policy and on the management of these areas. In the future, funding policy will move even further away from the distribution of money with a ‘watering can’, where funding was given to projects without monitoring their outcome and benefits, towards a more targeted distribution, bound to specific guidelines and results. In the foreground today is the cooperation of various actors (often referred to as multi-level governance in EU documents). New institutions and decision-making mechanisms such as LEADER and the recently introduced Community-Led Local Development (European Commission, 2011) and multi-fund approaches play important roles (McCann & Ortega-Argilés, 2011; McCann, 2012). Therefore, local-regional governance structures can also facilitate funding acquisition. In fact, a prerequisite for funding is a regional development perspective in which parks can play a major role.

The transparency of all decisions and processes is of paramount importance, because an increasing number of actors are concerned with decision-making the smart specialization of regions, protected landscapes can play a role with their natural beauty and other similar attributes, and can therefore be required as key resources in the regional specialization process. For example, the natural beauty of the Wadden Sea area is very important to visitors and inhabitants alike (Sijtsma et al., 2012). However, when implementing the above-mentioned new policy changes, problems can still occur. For example, bureaucratic structures are probably still not as flexible as the EU envisages, wants and requires. However, the EU itself remains bureaucratic, with strong regulations, formal and structured decision-making, and ongoing standardization (Zielonka, 2007). Local actors are acquiring more responsibilities and tasks, which could be problematic for them due to a lack of knowledge, skills and resources (Derkzen, 2008). Results and outcomes are playing a bigger role than ever. The EU recognizes that geography matters and regions are heterogeneous – including protected landscapes – especially since the accession of the new member states (e.g. Hübner, 2008 or the Committee of the Regions of the European Commission, 2011). Therefore, from a park perspective, it is important to explain their specific and unique qualities and contexts.

9.2 Theoretical findings and societal relevance of the research

Our research contributes to the theoretical debate in several ways, and enriches the debate on protected area governance (especially protected landscapes governance), theory, models and concepts. The main theoretical contribution is the combination of a holistic theoretical framework based on actor-centred institutionalism (Mayntz and Scharpf, 1995; Scharpf, 1997) with the concept of policy arrangements (Van Tatenhove et al., 2000), the concept of political modernization (Arts et al., 2006; see also Leibenath et al., 2010) and a heuristic model for the elaboration of microfoundations for the social network analysis of the choice of social relationships (Stokman & Vieth, 2004).³⁶ Focusing on the interests, resources and relationships of each actor contributes to the theoretical debate. We also incorporated the notion of sense of place and brought out the interplay of interests, resources and relationships. Maslow's pyramid of needs was used as a prerequisite (Maslow, 1943). In general, the contribution of our study lies in the fact that to the best of our knowledge it is the first study of governance in European IUCN category V protected landscapes. Accordingly, based on our research we state that governance in protected areas is a new regulatory concept and it is more than 'old wine in new wineskins' (Mehnen et al., 2010). Governance entails more than a desire of the local population for increased participation, rather it means an equal relationship for all stakeholders and actors. This is connected, so to speak, to the final steps of Arnstein's ladder of participation (Arnstein, 1969), but it is more than that – it is about who decides to do what, how those decisions are taken, who holds the power, authority and responsibility, and who is or should be held accountable (see also section on governance).

This research is relevant to society in two ways. At a time in which the number of protected landscapes – especially nature parks – is increasing and parks are characterized by dynamic developments (rising visitor numbers, growing numbers of tasks and simultaneously increasing demands on quality, growing numbers of actors with multiple interests, demographic changes, funding cuts, etc.), it is crucial to know how actors can contribute to decision-making and how the acceptance and support of such parks can be improved. It is also decisive to balance socioeconomic and nature conservation interests, and in some cases it is also essential to work with the surrounding municipalities to ensure balanced economic development that conserves and protects the cultural and natural values of the parks. Protected landscapes can thus become unique assets. How this can be achieved is shown by the comparison of the parks studied.

9.3 Methodological findings

Several methodological approaches have played a significant role in our research. This includes the Delphi method that we used to assemble information from several professionals with in-depth

³⁶ These theoretical frameworks and concepts are explained in the various chapters.

experience in nature conservation, protected areas and governance (see Chapter 4). The Delphi method is a systematic, interactive, written method, which relies on a panel of experts and is conducted in several rounds. The Delphi method was developed in the 1950s and has been used in various fields, such as education, nursing, business, industry and in the social and natural sciences (Häder, 2002). More recently it has been also applied in geography (e.g. Anderson & Schneider, 1993; Lupp, 2008; Miller, 1993; Steffenhagen, 2010), in planning (Ali, 2005; Schnur & Markus, 2010) and in policymaking (Critcher & Gladstone, 1998). Pütz (2004) conducted a Delphi survey in the field of regional governance, and scholars such as De Urioste-Stone et al. (2006) and Sanftenberg (2000) have used the Delphi method to gather information about protected areas. We applied the method to see if it is appropriate to obtaining information on governance and protected areas.

The specific purpose of this study was to obtain a better understanding of the scientific governance debate in the context of protected areas. Three rounds of questionnaires were sent to the selected experts, and after each round, each expert received a summary of the results from the round, which was also used to devise new questions for the next round. The Delphi survey was conducted in German and English because it is preferable to approach participants as much as possible in their own language to get the best results from the discussion. The Delphi method is valuable for obtaining different views from experts, in this case about governance and protected areas. The strength of the method lies in the fact that it is conducted in several rounds, so that the participants can adapt their opinions and respond to the points raised by other participants. The participants must therefore remain anonymous. We accordingly agree with Hsu and Sandford (2007, 5) that ‘the Delphi technique has and will continue to be an important data collection methodology with a wide variety of applications and uses for people who want to gather information from those who are immersed and imbedded in the topic of interest and can provide real-time and real-world knowledge’.

The results of our Delphi survey show that there is a broad common understanding of governance in protected areas, hence that the role of state and non-state actors has changed, and there is a specific understanding of the different protected area concepts and terminologies. For example the term ‘Large Scale Protected Area’ (German: ‘Großschutzgebiet’) was mostly used by experts from German-speaking regions as a generic term for national parks, nature parks and biosphere reserves (see Appendix IV). The Delphi survey also yielded input for the selection of the case study areas.

The main method used in this research was the case study method. Case studies are widely acknowledged as being good for untangling social complexity by studying individuals or groups. Through a case study, a researcher attempts to gain exploratory and descriptive information about a concrete subject or to answer specific research question. Case studies can offer insights that might

not be available through other approaches. For many years, researchers have used the case study method in a variety of disciplines, such as nursing, psychology, sociology, anthropology and geography. Social scientists have made particularly wide use of this qualitative research method to examine contemporary real-life situations and provide the basis for the application of ideas and the extension of methods. However, critics argue that the study of a small number of cases offers no grounds for establishing the reliability or generality of findings. Other critics state that case study research is useful only as an exploratory tool (Rowley, 2002). The benefit of the case study approach in this research is that it enabled us to collect data directly from the place itself. We were able to observe the actors in their daily working environments and the tasks they actually performed. We analysed the data gathered and were thus able to draw conclusions and provide explanations. Because we executed case studies in four countries we were able to compare the data and learn about different protected landscape approaches and case-specific governance characteristics. Knowledge about the interests, relationships and resources of actors was crucial, because actors can be grouped on the basis of common interests. We therefore determined the relative strength of the actors and their interests in the case study areas.

The visualization of such governance structures and actor constellations, and the methods and approaches by which this could be achieved, were important considerations for this thesis. We used the Brenner and Job (2012) method to illustrate the actor constellations in the case study areas (see Chapter 7). Following their political ecology and actor-oriented approach, we grouped the actors into four clusters: conservation-centred, utilization-centred, less powerful place-based actors, and development-centred actors. Therefore, we gathered information about interests, resources and relationships for each actor. This methodological and theoretical approach is thus valuable for gathering information about the governance of protected landscapes. The use of earlier studies enabled us to compare our findings with other research results. The different case studies revealed the importance of the regional contexts that determine behaviour and the relationships between actors. The involvement of actors and their positions will be further elaborated below.

9.4 Protected areas concepts

Protected landscapes, or IUCN category V areas, are areas where nature protection and use are allowed simultaneously. Thus, they are not strict nature protection areas such as IUCN categories Ia (Strict Nature Reserve) or Ib (Wilderness Area) or National Parks (IUCN category II), but they often require a distinctive degree of nature conservation areas or landscape protection areas within them. For example, according to federal law, nature parks in Lower Saxony (Germany) should contain a majority of protected landscapes.

However, the cultural and natural values of protected landscapes are inextricably linked. Often, protected landscapes are located adjacent to or within other categories of protected areas as part of a mosaic of protection, and often they have national or sub-national significance. Compared to National Parks, protected landscapes have come onto the scene relatively late. While the first European national park was designated in 1909 in Sweden, the designation of nature parks in Germany, for example, began no earlier than in 1956. Nevertheless, today they play a major role in national systems of protected areas and in regional and global conservation strategies. Significant progress has been made over the last 25 years, running parallel to broader trends in conservation and in new approaches to protected areas generally (paradigmatic change from static-conservative to dynamic-innovative European area protection approaches). The designation process for protected landscapes and the role of the government are very diverse in different countries. For example, while a more hierarchical and top-down state approach to the designation of national parks in the UK has had a strong influence on the acceptance and success of such parks, the French approach of establishing regional nature parks suggests that bottom-up, collaborative forms of implementing protected landscapes lead to even greater acceptance and stronger local support.

However, many protected landscapes in Europe today – like other rural landscapes – are facing profound threats through urbanization and demographic change. Protection is often a means to prevent deterioration of the rural landscape or ecological quality. Protected landscapes thus have to adapt to change and threats. However, in some cases new protected landscapes are designated to prevent undesirable change and to function as ‘test beds’ or ‘model regions’ for sustainable regional development, nature conservation, recreation and environmental education (see e.g. the recently designated German and Dutch Bourtanger Moor-Bargerveen Nature Park [Int. Naturpark Bourtanger Moor-Bargerveen, 2007] or the Austrian Steirische Eisenwurzen Nature Park). The protected landscapes of the Lauenburgische Seen Nature Park and the Peak District National Park have had to adapt to demographic change. In both cases the population is aging as a result of immigration of older people. In the Austrian Steirische Eisenwurzen Nature Park, the native inhabitants are growing older while the younger people are leaving the area because of a lack of job opportunities. This impacts on community services; for example, schools lack pupils or the local voluntary fire brigades have too few members.

Professional nature protection is also under pressure (see Chapters 5, 6 and 7). In these times of financial cutbacks the state is less willing to support protected areas than it was in the past. In the UK the Peak District National Park had to cope with severe financial cutbacks in 2010/2011, with about 20 percent of their funds cut by the state (see Chapter 6). This has made the role of non-state actors more pronounced, and people affected by protected areas have also been freed from the

overweening influence of the state, now tending to make their voices heard earlier and more loudly when unwanted or unexpected developments in the protected area occur (see Chapter 7).

9.5 Governance of protected landscapes

We conclude that protected area governance is a relatively new field in the governance debate, which is becoming increasingly influential in protected area development and management (see Chapter 3, where the theoretical, empirical and methodological implications of governance in protected areas are introduced). Since the Fifth IUCN World Congress in Durban in 2003, the discussion about protected area governance has grown, especially regarding national parks and biosphere reserves (e.g. Fürst et al., 2006; Thompson, 2006; Schliep & Stoll-Kleemann, 2010).

Governance and sense of place

Fürst et al. (2006), for example, analyse new patterns of regional governance in five biosphere reserves in Germany and the UK, and show that *place-making processes* and *sense of place* can occur in biosphere reserves. Residents' and visitors' sense of place can both lead to positive and negative attachment to a park and to specific change. Fürst et al. (2006) state that specific governance arrangements which support the management of biosphere reserves can in principle develop if they are desired by or required from actors: for example, if the biosphere reserve authority sees governance and multi-actor cooperation as a benefit and does not prefer hierarchical steering and decision-making. Fürst et al. (2006) use the term 'place-making' and define it as a collective process that appreciates the multidimensionality of space/place and the social conditions of its production (see also Healey, 2002). We agree with Jorgensen and Stedman's (2001, 233) definition of 'sense of place' as 'the meaning attached to a spatial setting by a person or group'. They distinguish three dimensions of sense of place: (a) place attachment, (b) place identity and (c) place dependency. Fürst et al. (2006) conclude in their case studies that regional governance is in principle possible and could be even more effective if supported by regional actors through identification, and if promoters channel the resulting powers into collective action.

In Chapter 5 we investigated the relationship between sense of place and governance by using the example of the German Lauenburgische Seen Nature Park. Sense of place – including sense of place in protected areas – is well researched, but its relationship to and influence on the governance structure of a protected area has received little attention thus far. It is often stated that governance actually reflects a desire of the local population for increased participation. However, increased local participation could also intensify governance processes. We argue that regional governance structures will arise more easily, but are also more necessary in IUCN category V protected

landscapes than in other protected areas because in such areas multiple interests have to be taken into account by definition.

Today, the Lauenburgische Seen Nature Park faces new challenges. It faces structural and demographic changes due to the in-migration of elderly people, financial insecurity, weaker legislation due to new political agendas and pressure on nature conservation from other land uses. It is important to consider the direction in which the park wants to and should develop. It is already apparent that the involvement of other actors would increase place attachment and place identity, which again increases the willingness of people to protect nature and support the park, which in turn would further increase the involvement of actors and vice versa. We found that sense of place was strong in the Lauenburgische Seen Nature Park, and that it was a facilitator of actor involvement. More attention to regional governance and sense of place is important to improve the standing and acceptance of the park and to strengthen both regional development and biodiversity protection.

In this chapter we also showed that it is valuable to have knowledge of the actors, their interests and their resources – as an input for governance structures – to strengthen the park. Governance can enhance the development and the effective functioning of Lauenburgische Seen Nature Park by exploiting its strengths and opportunities and especially by strengthening place attachment and place identity. The Nature Park Authority has a crucial role in this because it has the ability to balance and negotiate the interests of the actors, and financial and human resources are required to achieve this. If budget cuts are necessary, they should go hand-in-hand with new means. More actor involvement could thus be a solution and, accordingly, the Nature Park Authority needs to emphasize the value of the park to both inhabitants and tourists, and to stress the possibilities it offers to mutually strengthen nature conservation, regional development and tourism.

Actor involvement

We also studied the evidence of actor involvement in the Peak District National Park in the UK (see Chapter 6), with our main conclusion being that coalitions, cooperation and projects must be regarded as processes in which immediate results are sometimes less important. The English National Parks are designated to conserve, enhance and promote the natural beauty, wildlife and cultural heritage of areas of outstanding landscape value. The complexity of uses, of interests and actors involved, and the external and internal pressures, have increased significantly since the first park was designated in 1951. The Peak District National Park has been influenced and shaped by human habitation for thousands of years. The national approach to park designation in the UK can be described as hierarchical and top-down. The main actors are the relevant park authority, the administrative facilities, the forestry services, tourism organizations, tourism providers and entrepreneurs, NGOs (such as nature conservation associations), cultural institutions, tourism and

nature centres, museums, local action groups/LEADER, the farmers' union, farmers, landowners and estate owners, inhabitants and local industry (such as quarries and water companies). This diversity of actors requires policies, such as social learning processes, and in order to be able to influence behaviour, governments and governance must adapt to the motives and goals of the various actors. The role of coalitions and cooperation, as forms of interactive decision-making among actors, is crucial, especially because the various actors have different interests and time horizons, and come from different backgrounds with different discourses. Such coalitions and cooperation must be set up in such a way that participation is attractive for all actors from each sector (state, economy and civil society). The involvement of actors from outside the park is also important (e.g. scientific actors), as they can also provide input into decisions. Given the limited human and financial resources available for protected area management, transparent negotiation processes are required to determine how much participation is possible. The governance of protected areas in general, and of the Peak District National Park in particular (see Chapter 6), must yield appreciable benefits for all actors.

Chapter 7 provides an analysis of actor-oriented regional governance processes in four different protected landscapes in the European Union by using a comparative multi-theoretical case study approach. The chapter examined the main governance challenges connected with protected areas, arising from multiple actors, multiple interests and changing constraints and requirements. We identified the relative strength of the actors and their interests in the case study areas (see methodological findings). Based on the Brenner and Job (2012) model, we were able to cluster the actors into several groups and to visualize the actor constellations.

While the more hierarchical and top-down state approach to the designation of national parks in the UK or the nature parks in Germany strongly influences their acceptance and success of the parks, the French approach of creating regional nature parks suggests that bottom-up, collaborative forms of implementing protected landscapes lead to greater acceptance and stronger local support. The research results indicate that certain actors have more influence and gain greater freedom than others. Actors are also often unequal in terms of power, knowledge and skills. It is crucial to be aware of these facts when various actors are involved and to acknowledge that they have real concrete interests and that they should therefore be sitting at the right table, that is, involved at the right level and in the right form. For example, local entrepreneurs are above all interested in local issues that directly influence them and their business, not issues at a national level. This means that actors need to be involved in addressing issues that most impact on their interests. This research shows that park authorities play a central role, among many other actors. They are often key actors and their skills are important for the entire development of a park, although they have few resources.

Governance and economic evaluation

We also examined the governance of protected landscapes and its implications for economic evaluation (see Chapter 8). Protected landscapes always combine economic use and biodiversity conservation. However, the governance structures of such areas can be very diverse, with many stakeholders and land users involved – each with different interests and objectives – which is definitely a challenge, especially for the economic evaluation of these protected landscapes. Economic evaluation can be a means or a communication tool for getting actors involved.

9.6 Future strategies for protected landscapes

Recommendations and good practice – a short manual

Based on our research, we would finally like to make the following basic recommendations for the support of the further development of successful governance in protected landscapes:

Involve all actors at an appropriate and relevant level and in the right way and form. Every actor should feel that he or she can influence decision-making and that his or her ideas are valued; they should not feel that involvement is a waste of time. Actors often need to be convinced of the benefits of a close partnership and the added value they can draw from it. Their interests should be acknowledged and the level at which they should be involved should be clear. Local contexts, the preferred ‘modus operandi’ and the knowledge of actors are important. The process of involvement is sometimes more important than the result. It may even be of value to define projects simply with the aim of involving actors. Personal interviews or forums can help administrative staff gain better insight into the needs of the actors and to build up relationships of trust. Nevertheless, this is a lengthy process. Corresponding forums need to be created and/or existing forums should be further developed to secure partnerships in the long term. Regular meetings, functioning as permanent stakeholder forums, can give new impetus to initiatives and allow an exchange of information among partners.

Be aware that the actors are often unequal in terms of power, knowledge and skills. Accordingly, try to address the balance of power in networks and cultivate ways to share power, knowledge and skills. Be attentive to different ‘languages’ among actors. Derkzen (2008) shows that in order to influence decision-making processes, it is crucial to be able to speak the same language. When actors do not know or use the appropriate terms and vocabularies, they may be neglected and ignored in discussions. Moderators could help overcome such difficulties. Responsibilities and accountabilities should be shared on equal terms.

Strengthen the cooperation of local actors both within and outside the protected landscape. It is important to have strong embedded cooperation between actors within but also outside the park. Grouping relevant actors together can help create projects that get more actors involved. Thus, under optimal conditions, governance can create powerful networks and connections between social, cultural, economic and environmental actors, and thereby strongly contribute to the benefit of protected areas. Therefore, it is important to find the appropriate balance between the level and type of participation needed to achieve consensus and raise broad commitment on the one hand, and the urgent need for less conversation and more action on the other.

9.7 Further research

Many questions cannot yet be fully answered, such as how the ‘protected landscape’ concept is approached in other European countries, such as those in Central or Southern Europe. What different governance structures can be found there? There is clearly a need for further research. For example, an inter- and transdisciplinary study involving researchers from different fields – such as mathematics, economics, political science, geography, geodesy, natural science, sociology and psychology – could deliver additional insights. Approaches such as game theory and modulation from mathematics could also help forecast decision-making processes. Psychologists could add insights into actors’ personal characteristics and behaviour patterns. Accordingly, further research and theoretical discussion of the governance of protected landscapes will have to raise the issue of which individual characteristics affect involvement in protected area governance, planning, development and management.

It would also be interesting to trace governance processes and the role of participants and institutions over time (e.g. several decades). With regard to *sense of place* in protected areas and the relationship to governance, a quantitative survey could also provide supplementary results. Further research into effective management and governance frameworks for achieving goals in nature conservation, biodiversity, sustainable development and local communities – especially in protected landscapes – would also be useful. Whether protected landscapes are successful in achieving their objectives and contributing to sustainable development and nature conservation should also be studied, while another question in need of an answer is how many protected landscapes worldwide are only ‘paper parks’.

There are more open avenues for further research, such as developing a European typology for protected landscape governance. A first step could be to use country contexts. For example, countries such as France are still structured hierarchically, with many decisions being made in Paris. The more bottom-up approach of creating regional nature parks could therefore have some advantages, but local decision-making still often relies on final judgments from Paris. We thus

describe the French approach as a local bottom-up designation process with strong hierarchical steering and governance processes (Type 1). While the Countryside Commission in England is responsible for the designation of national parks, the decision itself lies in the hands of the relevant ministry. Each park has a park authority, which is linked with others in the Association of National Park Authorities (ANPA). The English national parks are a special case because each park authority has the power to grant planning permission for the park area and also because of their long history of partnership and cooperation and strong local steering competences. Accordingly, we describe the English approach as a state designation process with local steering and governance processes (Type 2).

Similarly, in Germany the federal states (Bundesländer) are responsible for designating nature parks. However, the nature park authorities are very heterogeneous. In Austria, defining a rural region as a ‘Nature Park’ is also done through the provincial government of the federal state (Bundesland). We thus describe the German and Austrian approaches as governance by a sub-national ministry or agency, with heterogeneous local governance types, from associations to state actor authorities (Type 3).

The world database on protected areas (www.protectedplanet.org) uses a different typology, declaring all of the four protected landscapes in this research as Governance Type A areas (Governance by government),³⁷ more specifically as a sub-type of ‘sub-national ministry or agency in charge’. However, in the new draft of ‘Governance of Protected Areas – From Understanding to Action’ the French regional parks are offered as examples of protected areas under shared governance (Type B). The draft (2012, 47) states that ‘each park is governed by a council of local elected officials and other key stakeholders, which oversees the multi-disciplinary technical team that manages the park. The broad aims are to protect the local natural and cultural heritage, and to promote environmentally sound economic and social development’. It could thus be worth looking at this classification and typology in future studies.

9.8 The great hope of European area protection policies?

Protected landscapes will become the ‘great hope’ of European area protection policies only if they fulfil their task and balance the diverse interests of the relevant actors. The occurrence and specification of network-like forms of cooperation between actors within the national, private and civic sectors for the handling of joint regional development (regional governance) tasks in protected landscapes is very heterogeneous and has emerged from a long history of multiple-actor involvement, such as that in the Peak District National Park, or project-related involvement, as found in the Lauenburgische Seen Nature Park. The actors involved in protected landscapes are

³⁷ Chapter 3 introduces and explains the governance types in more detail.

diverse and this diversity also characterizes how they cooperate. The success of each park depends on local characteristics and the fulfilment of the IUCN category objectives. Protected landscapes are particularly regarded as the great hope because in a congested Europe there is not much room for pure nature conservation. Diverse actor involvement has also become increasingly important due to budget limitations and the emancipation of those who are potentially affected. Therefore, they should be taken seriously; failure to do so could lead to opposition in many forms to planned measures and decisions.

Protected landscapes have the potential to become ‘models’ or ‘test beds’ for regional development, but the balance between interests should therefore be carefully acknowledged. The special initiatives and projects conducted in these areas, such as the development and supply of regional park products or the designation of nature park schools or environmental education activities, will enable parks to play a leading role in sustainable regional development in the future. Protected landscapes could be arenas of active involvement of the many relevant actors, who together are able to meet future challenges.

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Appendices

Appendix I: Glossary and clarification of key terms

Appendix II: Delphi experts

Appendix III: Interview Guideline

Appendix IV: Essay

Appendix I: Glossary and clarification of key terms

Landscape

'Landscape means an area, as perceived by people, whose character is the result of the action and interaction of natural and/or human factors' (European Landscape Convention, 2000).

Cultural landscape

'A cultural landscape is fashioned from a natural landscape by a culture group. Culture is the agent, the natural area is the medium. The cultural landscape the result' (Sauer, 1963)

Protected area

"A clearly defined geographical space, recognized, dedicated and managed, through legal or other effective means, to achieve the long-term conservation of nature with associated ecosystem services and cultural values" (Dudley, 2008, 8).

Protected landscape / seascape = IUCN category V

'A protected area where the interaction of people and nature over time has produced an area of distinct character with significant ecological, biological, cultural and scenic value: and where safeguarding the integrity of this interaction is vital to protecting and sustaining the area and its associated nature conservation and other values' (Dudley, 2008, 20).

Countryside

'The land and scenery of a rural area' (Oxford English Dictionary)

Rural

'In, relating to, or characteristic of the countryside rather than the town' Origin: late Middle English: from Old French, or from late Latin ruralis, from rus, rur- 'country' (Oxford English Dictionary)

Conflict

"a : competitive or opposing action of incompatibles : antagonistic state or action (as of divergent ideas, interests, or persons) b : mental struggle resulting from incompatible or opposing needs, drives, wishes, or external or internal demands"(Miriam Webster Dictionary and Thesaurus - Merriam-Webster Online, 2011)

Consensus

"Agreement in opinion; the collective unanimous opinion of a number of persons." (Oxford English Dictionary, 2011)

Compromise

"a : settlement of differences by arbitration or by consent reached by mutual concessions b : something intermediate between or blending qualities of two different things" (Miriam Webster Dictionary and Thesaurus - Merriam-Webster Online, 2011)

Negotiation

“An act of dealing with another person; a private or business transaction. Also in extended use. Obs.” (Oxford English Dictionary, 2011)

Bargaining

“Discussion of the terms of a purchase or contract; chaffering, haggling; negotiation” (Oxford English Dictionary, 2011)

Dialogue

‘a : a conversation between two or more persons; also : a similar exchange between a person and something else (as a computer) b : an exchange of ideas and opinions <organized a series of dialogues on human rights> c : a discussion between representatives of parties to a conflict that is aimed at resolution <a constructive dialogue between loggers and environmentalists>’ (Merriam Webster Dictionary and Thesaurus - Merriam-Webster Online, 2011)

Governance

‘the interactions among processes, and traditions that determine how power is exercised, how decisions are taken on issues of public and often private concern, and how citizens or other stakeholders have their say’ (The Institute on Governance, 2002)

Regional Governance

‘network-like collaboration of the state, the private sector and the civil society with the aim of coordinating actions of different actors and regulation processes of common problem solving at regional level’ (Pollermann, 2006; Fürst, 2005).

Participation

‘a process where individuals, groups and organisations choose to take an active role in making decisions that affect them’ (Reed, 2008, 2418). There are various types of participation such as public participation, stakeholder participation or community participation.

Actors

‘a participant in an action or process’ (Oxford English Dictionary, 2011). We distinguish between actors state actors, actors from civil society and actors from economy.

Stakeholders

‘any group or individual who is affected by or can affect the achievement of an organization’s objectives’ (Freeman, 1984).

Appendix II: Delphi Experts

Augustin Berghöfer, M.A.	Department of Urban and Environmental Sociology UFZ-Centre for Environmental Research Leipzig-Halle Permoserstr. 15, D-04318 Leipzig, Germany
Prof. Dr. Thomas Hammer	Interfakultäre Koordinationsstelle für Allgemeine Ökologie (IKAÖ) Universität Bern Schanzeneckstrasse , Postfach 8573, CH-3001 Bern, Switzerland
Dr. Judit Katonáné Kovács	Faculty of Applied Economics and Rural Development University of Debrecen, Böszörményi 138, H-4032 Debrecen, Hungary
Dr. Dorota Klepacka-Kołodziejska	Institute of Rural and Agricultural Development (Instytut Rozwoju Wsi i Rolnictwa) Social Sciences Department , Polish Academy of Sciences (Polskiej Akademii Nauk) Nowy Świat 72, 00-330 Warszawa, Poland
Prof. Dr. Adrian Philips	Gloucestershire Environmental Trust Company Unit 16, Twigworth Business Centre Twigworth Gloucester GL2 9PG, UK
Dr. Marco Pütz	Swiss Federal Research Institute WSL Zürcherstrasse 111, CH-8903 Birmensdorf, Switzerland
Dr. Kim Pollermann	Johann Heinrich von Thünen-Institut Federal Research Institute for Rural Areas, Forestry and Fisheries, Institute of Rural Studies Bundesallee 50, D-38116 Braunschweig, Germany
Dr. Dominik Siegrist	HSR Hochschule für Technik Rapperswil Abteilung Landschaftsarchitektur Oberseestrasse 10, CH-8640 Rapperswil Switzerland
Prof. Dr. Susanne Stoll-Kleemann	Institute of Geography and Geology Friedrich-Ludwig-Jahn-Str. 16, D - 17487 Greifswald, Germany
Dr. Nicola Thompson	Centre for Rural Economy School of Agriculture, Food and Rural Development Newcastle University, NE1 7RU Newcastle, UK
Priv.-Doz. Dr. Andreas Voth	ISPA Hochschule Vechta Postfach 1553, D-49364 Vechta, Germany jetzt Aachen
Dr. Severine van Bommel	Chairgroup Forest and Nature Conservation Policy P.O. box 47 6700 AA Wageningen The Netherlands
Ao. Univ.-Prof. Ing. Dr. Norbert Weixlbaumer	Institut für Geographie und Regionalforschung der Universität Wien Universitätsstr. 7, A-1010 Wien, Austria

Appendix III: Interview guideline

1. GENERAL QUESTIONS

- 1.1 What is your current professional and personal involvement with the park? When and why did you participate in the process of development in the park? With which function?
- 1.2 Did you try beforehand to influence the process or the development of the park?

2. PROTECTED LANDSCAPE

- 2.1 Which (geographical) area characterizes the region? Is this area as park region suitable or would you consider another limitation more appropriate?
- 2.2 How would you describe your ideal _____ regarding nature, ecological quality, human use etc? Which role does other nearby protected areas play (Biosphere reserves, National parks)?
- 2.3 Which financial resources have the Protected Landscape? Which resources from additional funding programs like LEADER+, FUNDS, or TRUSTS etc. you use? Have other external factors importance?

3. PLACE ATTACHMENT

- 3.1 How important is this region for you [as place of residence, as business location, as working place, as “native place - Heimat”]? Since when did you live here? Where did you come from?
- 3.2 How attached/connected do you personally feel to/with the region? (Scale: 1-10; 1: no attachment/connection – very high attachment/connection) Why? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
- 3.3 How strong would you judge in general the place attachment of the local people to the region? (Scale: 1-10; 1: no attachment/connection – very high attachment/connection) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
- 3.4 Was that different before 10 or 15 years (place attachment region/park/yourself/others)?
- 3.5 Please, mention three key words, which you connected with the park: _____

4. CONCEPT/ STRATEGIC PLAN

- 4.2 Does a concrete concept for the park exist (Strategic plan)?
- 4.2 Which relevance does the concept or the planning has for a) you / the organization / the company; b) the forum / the working group and c) the local/communal/municipal policy?
- 4.3 Is there a “collective vision” of the actors for the development of the region? What importance has there the natural environment of the park? How are the measures implemented?
- 4.4 Are there conflicts between different concepts and plans? Which?
- 4.5 Is Regional Governance mentioned as an objective in the concepts or plans?

5. ORGANISATIONAL AND DECISION MAKING STRUCTURES

- 5.1 Have the structures of the park authority / associations / the municipalities (especially through their legal norm) proven to be successful? Are they transparent?
- 5.2 How is the park organised? Has that prove to be successful?
- 5.3 How are meetings organised? Who is moderating? Which role plays the advisory board?
- 5.4 How are decisions made? a) Consensus, b) Majority vote, c) Other
- 5.5 Which commitment do the decisions have? Binding, Informal, but self-commitment, Purely informal Other
- 5.6 Which participating possibilities exist?

6. ACTORS

- 6.1 This list should include all actors in this park (List of actors). Is someone missing? Should someone be included?
- 6.2 Can you identify the most relevant actors regarding the park and can you name their different interests?
- 6.4 How do you judge the different position regarding the park?
- 6.4 How do you judge their influence on: political decision making processes; public opinion; debate about park? Is there anything else?
- 6.5 Could you indicate for these actors, whether you generally consider them as allies, opponents or somewhere in between and why? Please provide a justification for your response.

7. CO-OPERATIONS

- 7.1 How do you judge the willingness of the actors to engage in cooperative processes?
Please categorize therefore the following groups (Scale 1-10: no – very high willingness)
- Policy National Park Authority General Administration Economy businesses Associational Nature conservation Civil society Private persons / citizens Others: _____
- 7.2 How cooperation occur (public debates, round tables, workshops, others)?
- 7.3 Is it now easier to find cooperation partners than 10 years before? (yes/ no- in what way?)
- 7.4 Has the trust in other actors increased? (In which actors? How does it is expressed?)
- 7.5 What do you think, how would the cooperation look like in 5 of 10 years?
- 7.6 Did you think that this cooperation is stable?
- 7.7 In your opinion, is there sufficient information exchange/co-operation between the different committees; Countries and processes, between the Forums and if necessary different processes? (Arenas)
- 7.8 Did a „cooperation culture“ develop (development of norms, common values, acknowledgment of the interests of others; Does the discussion culture make an equal discussion possible? - Regarding a) Leader; b) other forums)?
- 7.9 What recommendations do you have for future cooperation's?

8. JUDGMENT/VALUATION OF THE PROCESS

- 8.1 Did you have other attitudes towards the following aspects then before 10 years? (Scale: 1-10; 1: no– very high)
Resource protection, Cooperation, Information exchange, cooperation of state, economy and civil society)
- 8.2 Which causes had these (non-) changes? Would you ascribe that to the process of the framework concept/Leader process or were there other reasons? (Determined milestones/stumbling blocks/conflicts/Aha experiences?)
- 8.3 Were / Are there differences in the motivation of the participating actors in the different process phases (beginning, project development, implementation)?
- 8.4 Which learning processes did you notice?

9. BALANCE / CONCLUSION/ FUTURE PROSPECTS

- 9.1 If you should draw a balance/conclusion: How do you judge your satisfaction with the different processes? (Scale: 1-10; 1: no satisfaction – very high satisfaction) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
- 9.2 Is the IUCN category V (here the National Park) a suitable possibility for
- a) Regional development
- b) Nature protection?
- 9.3 Are there enough projects, which promote nature protection?

9.4 What do you believe, how will co-operation/park look like in 5 or 10 years?

9.5 Do you believe that the co-operation concerns stable relations (Or only for a project)?

CLOSING

Is there anything more you would like to add?

Thank you very much for your time and your insights.

Appendix IV: Essay (in German)

Wer kennt den Begriff -„Großschutzgebiet“?

Deutschsprachige Fachtermini als Gefahr für den internationalen Wissenschaftsdiskurs – ein Essay

Von Nora Mehnen, Ingo Mose und Dirk Strijker

Der Gebrauch von bestimmten deutschsprachigen Begriffen kann im wissenschaftlichen Diskurs zu Schwierigkeiten führen. In den Raum-/Planungswissenschaften verwenden deutschsprachige Wissenschaftler Bezeichnungen wie zum Beispiel „Großschutzgebiet“ wie selbstverständlich und gehen davon aus, dass jeder die englische Übersetzung des Terminus („Large (scale) protected area“) sofort versteht. Und ist das so? Nein! In Großbritannien, Polen und auch in den Niederlanden kennt man den Begriff nicht.

Unter dem Begriff Großschutzgebiet werden im deutschen Wissenschaftsgebrauch im allgemeinen Naturparke, Nationalparke und Biosphärenreservate zusammengefasst. Dieser Beitrag soll einige Anmerkungen zu der provokanten Frage formulieren, ob sich die deutschsprachigen Wissenschaftler aus europäischen oder sogar internationalen Diskussionen ausschließen und ob sie zu sehr auf ihre eigene Forschung fokussiert sind, so dass sie oft andere Untersuchungen, insbesondere Studien aus dem angelsächsischen Raum, nicht genügend beachten. Wir betrachten den Diskurs aus sehr unterschiedlichen persönlichen Entwicklungen und aus einer internationalen Perspektive.

In der wissenschaftlichen Diskussion spielen Begriffe und ihre Definition eine sehr bedeutende Rolle. Bei einer Delphi-Befragung fiel auf, dass die deutschsprachigen Experten, also Experten aus der Schweiz, aus Österreich und aus Deutschland, Begriffe verwenden, die in der internationalen Diskussion kaum bekannt und gebräuchlich sind (Mehnen et al. 2009). Eine Delphi-Studie ist ein mehrstufiges Befragungsverfahren, das in der Technologie-, Zukunfts- und Trendforschung eingesetzt wird. Sie geht auf Forecasting-Entwicklungen der RAND-Corporation im Auftrag des Pentagon zurück, ist aber längst ein fester Bestandteil der Forschungsmethoden der Wirtschafts- und Sozialwissenschaften. Die Delphi-Befragung wurde 2009 zum Thema Governance in Schutzgebieten mit Experten aus Deutschland, Österreich, der Schweiz, Großbritannien, Polen, Ungarn und den Niederlanden durchgeführt. Sie ist Teil eines international angelegten Promotionsvorhabens an der Universität Groningen. Insbesondere der Begriff „Großschutzgebiet“ scheint demnach bei Experten aus Großbritannien, den Niederlanden, aus Polen und Ungarn nicht bekannt zu sein. Was sind nun die Gründe für die Verwendung des Begriffs? Ein wichtiger Grund ist, dass der Begriff Großschutzgebiet eine konsensuale Klammer für Nationalparke, Naturparke und Biosphärenreservate nach der Sevilla-Strategie darstellt und im deutschen Sprachraum ein etablierter Begriff ist. Large (scale) protected areas = Großschutzgebiete wird vor allem benutzt, weil es (zumindest für den deutschsprachigen Raum) üblich ist; aber auch, weil der Begriff mit IUCN und UNESCO assoziiert wird. Im Kontext geht es nicht nur um Natur-, Landschafts- und Biotopschutz, sondern um Regionalentwicklung, Tourismus und regionalökonomische Effekte. Ein Experte sagt: „Das Gebiet ist ein konkret abgegrenzter Raum. Im Gebiet bestehen gesetzlich festgelegte Vereinbarungen zu seinem Schutz. Das Gebiet weist eine Flächengröße auf, die über geschützte Einzelobjekte (Monumente) ganz deutlich hinausgeht“.

Warum verwenden nun einige Experten nicht diesen Begriff? „Ich vermeide diesen Begriff wenn immer möglich, da er falsche Assoziationen auslöst. In der Schweiz wird von Park/Pärken gesprochen. In der international vergleichenden Diskussion hat man sich allerdings an die

Bezeichnung der „protected areas“ gewöhnt und es ist schwierig, eine Alternative zu finden. Im sozio-ökonomischen Kontext eignet sich der Begriff „Modellregionen“.

Andere Wissenschaftler sehen den Begriff insgesamt wenig nützlich als universelle Kategorie. 1000 ha sind in Deutschland groß und in Kanada, Grönland oder Afrika eher nicht. Die Besiedlungsdichte sei stattdessen entscheidend. Ob somit ein Gebiet als großräumig gilt, ist sehr vom Zusammenhang abhängig. Ein Experte würde den Begriff nur verwenden, wenn Akteure selbst ein Schutzgebiet als großräumig ansehen. In anderen Fällen würde er ihn nicht gebrauchen. Für die Schutzgebietsklassifizierung in Großbritannien ist der Begriff nicht relevant. Einige der deutschsprachigen Experten verwenden eher den Begriff „protected areas“. Ein weiterer Experte tendiert dazu spezifische Schutzgebiete und Punkte zu diskutieren, die sie auszeichnen; also vorzugsweise die Klassifizierung (Nationalpark usw.) als Ausdrücke, die die Größe eines geschützten Raumes beschreiben, zu gebrauchen.

Ist der Begriff typisch für den deutschsprachigen Raum? Definitiv ja. Warum das so ist, wird von den Experten sehr unterschiedlich begründet. Einige halten die englische Übersetzung nicht für gebräuchlich oder lesen den Begriff nur in deutscher Literatur. Der Begriff „Protected Area“ ohne den Verweis auf die Größe sei sehr verbreitet und ausreichend. Ein Experte meint, dass in der deutschen Sprache tatsächlich eine gute Alternative fehlt. Ein Experte weist noch einmal darauf hin, dass der Begriff eher als Oberbegriff der „größten drei Schutzgebiete“ (Naturpark, Nationalpark und Biosphärenreservat) dient und er deshalb auch (zukünftig) gebraucht wird.

Kommt es nun zu Kommunikationsschwierigkeiten? Ja, das kann der Fall sein. Auf die Frage, welche anderen Konzepte oder Begriffe eine internationale Diskussion über Governance und Schutzgebiete erschweren, wurden vor allem abstrakte Begriffe aus der Regionalentwicklungstheorie genannt – wie Partizipation, Bottom-up, Nachhaltigkeit, Nachhaltige Entwicklung und Community. Aber auch die einzelnen Schutzgebietskategorien selbst sind in Bezug auf ihre Vielfalt, ihre präzise Definition und ihre Einordnung problematisch. Allein in Deutschland gibt es elf verschiedene Schutzgebietstypen, in Österreich zwölf (Mose 2007). Des Weiteren macht der historische Hintergrund (und nicht unbedingt die Begriffe) die Diskussion schwierig.

Die Situation ist ambivalent: Auf der einen Seite ist die englische Sprache aus der Wissenschaft nicht mehr wegzudenken (Ammon 1998, Mocikat 2008), auf der anderen Seite sind einige deutschsprachige Wissenschaftler oder auch Praktiker bis heute nicht dazu bereit, z.B. an Befragungen in englischer Sprache teilzunehmen. Seit einiger Zeit warnen sogar einige deutsche Wissenschaftler, dass die deutsche Fachsprache verkümmert. So haben sich 2007 einige Wissenschaftler im Arbeitskreis Deutsch als Wissenschaftssprache zusammengeschlossen. Denn Deutsch, Englisch und Französisch waren zu Beginn des 20. Jahrhunderts die drei am weitesten verbreiteten internationalen Wissenschaftssprachen und alle etwa gleich bedeutend. Heute hat sich eindeutig Englisch als Wissenschaftssprache (insbesondere in den Naturwissenschaften) durchgesetzt. Die Verbreitung von Deutsch, aber auch von Französisch ist stark zurückgegangen (Ammon 2008). Gründe für die steigende Entwicklung des Englischen können zum einen die Zunahme der Englischkenntnisse in den nicht englischsprachigen Teilen der Welt und zum anderen die Abnahme des Fremdsprachenlernens in der angelsächsischen Welt sein (Eichinger 2005).

Aber nicht nur innerhalb der wissenschaftlichen Diskussion führen Begrifflichkeiten zu Schwierigkeiten. Die Begriffe „Park“ und „Reservat“ sind auch in der Praxis problematisch. Insbesondere Biosphärenreservate haben oft mit einem schlechten Image aufgrund der Bezeichnung zu kämpfen. Häufig treten Assoziationen mit einem abgeschlossenen Reservat bei der Bevölkerung auf und führen zu Vorbehalten oder sogar Ablehnung gegenüber dem Schutzgebiet. Dabei ist der Begriff offenkundig eine falsche Übersetzung des englischsprachigen „Biosphere Reserve“, das eher als „Biosphären-Ressource“ zu übersetzen wäre. Entsprechend werden seit einiger Zeit

Biosphärenreservate in Österreich als Biosphärenpark und in der Schweiz als Biosphäre bezeichnet. In einigen deutschen Bundesländern wird der Begriff Biosphärengebiet favorisiert. Auch Naturparke werden mit einem problematischen Image konfrontiert. Oft werden sie mit Parkanlagen, Grünanlagen oder Tierparks assoziiert.

Zwar gibt es Experten, die die internationale Diskussion für nicht weniger verwirrend als die deutsche halten, dennoch wären einheitliche Definitionen und der kongruente Gebrauch von bestimmten Begriffen und die Anpassung an die europäische Forschungswelt wünschenswert.

Also, schließen die deutschsprachigen Wissenschaftler sich nun aus aktuellen Forschungsdebatten aus oder nicht? Auf jeden Fall sollten wir nicht selbstverständlich mit Begriffen umgehen und davon ausgehen, dass uns jeder versteht. Die europäische Forschungslandschaft ist sehr viel vielfältiger, als wir manchmal denken. Wir sollten und müssen sie deshalb im Auge behalten. Und was ist nun mit dem Begriff „Großschutzgebiet“? Sollen wir ihn verwenden oder nicht? Wenn wir wollen, dass jeder uns versteht, verzichten wir auf den Begriff und sprechen von den drei Schutzgebieten selbst. Der Begriff ist in der internationalen Debatte einfach problematisch und nicht gebräuchlich, das hat sich jetzt herausgestellt. Dies können wir aufgrund unserer eigenen wissenschaftlichen Arbeit sowohl aus internationaler als auch aus deutscher Sicht beurteilen.

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Anschrift der Verfasser(in): Dipl.-Umweltwiss. Nora Mehnen & Prof. Dr. Dirk Strijker, Universität Groningen, Fakultät für Raumwissenschaften, Abteilung Kulturgeographie, PO Box 800, NL-9700 AV Groningen, Niederlande, E-Mail N.Mehnen@rug.nl; Prof. Dr. Ingo Mose, Carl von Ossietzky Universität Oldenburg, Institut für Biologie und Umweltwissenschaften (IBU), Arbeitsgruppe Regionalwissenschaften, Ammerländer Heerstraße 114-118, D-26129 Oldenburg, E-Mail Ingo.Mose@uni-oldenburg.de.

Samenvatting

*Vertel het me, en ik vergeet het.
Toon het me, en ik onthoud het.
Betrek me, en ik begrijp het.*

(Confucius, 450 v.Chr.)

BESCHERMDE LANDSCHAPPEN - DE GROTE HOOP VAN DE EUROPESE BELEIDSPOLITIEK ? - Een vergelijkende studie van Governance in IUCN Categorie V gebieden

Beschermde gebieden hebben een hoge maatschappelijke waarde. Hun omvang en aantal neemt nog steeds toe, en dat geldt met name voor de beschermde landschappen (*protected landscapes*). Van oudsher speelt de overheid een belangrijke rol in de bescherming en de ontwikkeling. De afgelopen jaren trekt de staat zich echter steeds meer terug uit haar traditionele taken in beschermde gebieden en moeten andere actoren deze taken overnemen. Vaak is het moeilijk om ervoor te zorgen dat economische belangen en belangen van verschillende actoren/stakeholders gelijkwaardig worden beoordeeld. Economische belangen moeten bescherming van natuur en landschap niet in de weg staan en er moet voorkomen worden dat beschermde landschappen slechts “marketing tools” of “papieren tijgers” worden. Vraagstukken rondom governance en management vormen daarom de focus van het theoretische debat. Hierop sluit ook dit onderzoek aan. Bovendien is er tot nu toe (te) weinig onderzoek gedaan naar de betekenis van beschermde landschappen (IUCN categorie V gebieden) in Europa. Dit proefschrift heeft als doel een bijdrage te leveren aan het vullen van deze leemte.

Governance verwijst naar "netwerkachtige samenwerking tussen actoren in de publieke en private sector en maatschappelijke sectoren in de uitvoering van gezamenlijke taken voor de regionale ontwikkeling. Het proces en de controlesystemen staan op de voorgrond, waardoor het collectief handelen van verschillende actoren mogelijk is en daardoor verschillende handelingslogica's met elkaar verbonden kunnen worden" (Fürst et al., 2006, 7; eigen vertaling).

IUCN Categorie V (Beschermd landschap/Marine beschermde gebied) wordt gedefinieerd als "een beschermd gebied waarin de interactie tussen mens en natuur in de loop der tijd een landschap met een uniek karakter met uitstekende ecologische, biologische, culturele en landschappelijke waarden gevormd heeft, en waarin de ongestoorde voortzetting van deze relatie essentieel is voor de bescherming en het behoud van het gebied en de bijbehorende natuur- en andere waarden" (EUROPARC Duitsland, 2010, 27; eigen vertaling).

Beschermde gebieden en bijzondere beschermde landschappen zijn zelden monofunctioneel georiënteerd, maar hebben vrijwel altijd een aantal verschillende taken en functies, zoals natuurbehoud, economische uitbuiting, milieueducatie en regionale ontwikkeling (Mose, 2007) .

In moderne, gedifferentieerde maatschappijen groeit het spectrum van belangen, opvattingen, problemen en oplossingen. Zoals hierboven reeds is genoemd, is dit ook het geval in beschermde landschappen, en met name in tijden van financiële moeilijkheden zijn de klassieke staatsinstellingen, politieke structuren en de representatieve democratie niet goed in staat om met deze nieuwe uitdagingen om te kunnen gaan (Forbrig, 2011).

Niet in de laatste plaats is vanwege de verdragen van Rio (1992) en Aarhus (1998) door wetenschappers en politici erkend dat participatie van de verschillende actoren in besluitvormingsprocessen tot een betere kwaliteit en duurzaamheid van de resultaten leidt (Arnstein, 1969; Healey, 1997; Turnhout et al., 2010). Het beschermde landschap kan fungeren als een actieruimte op lokaal en regionaal niveau, waarin specifieke oplossingen gemakkelijker te implementeren zijn (Forbrig, 2011).

In dit proefschrift zijn vier IUCN Categorie V gebieden als case studies onderzocht - het natuurpark Lauenburg in Duitsland, het natuurpark Styrian Eisenwurzen in Oostenrijk, het Peak District National Park in Engeland en het Regionale Natuurpark Livradois-Forez in Frankrijk. Voor elke case studie zijn diepte-interviews gehouden, zijn observaties gedaan en is on-site onderzoek verricht. Er is geen case studie uitgevoerd in Nederland, omdat de Nationale Landschappen niet als IUCN categorie V aangewezen zijn.

Er zijn duidelijke verschillen waar te nemen op het gebied van governance tussen de case studies in mijn onderzoek. Dit is deels te verklaren door hun zeer verschillende contextuele, en met name institutionele structuren.

De case studies hebben aangetoond dat beschermde natuurgebieden niet 'papieren tijgers' moeten worden en dat de doelstellingen van natuurbescherming niet overstemd moeten worden door economische belangen. De aanpak van de Engelse Nationale Parken - met het "Sanford-principe", d.w.z. het prioriteren van beschermingsdoelstellingen boven recreatieve doelstellingen, wanneer deze twee doelen niet met elkaar in balans gebracht kunnen worden door middel van geschikt management - kan ook interessant zijn voor andere parken. Daarnaast kan de actieve betrokkenheid en participatie van natuurbeschermingsorganisaties, ecologen en biologen, boeren, boswachters en lokale gemeenschappen helpen om de druk te verminderen waarmee het natuurbeheer tegenwoordig te maken heeft, door het nemen van tijdige en juiste beslissingen en hiermee waarschijnlijk de levenskwaliteit verbeteren (Fürst, 2006).

Dit proefschrift bestaat uit diverse publicaties en behandelt verschillende onderwerpen, zoals de gevolgen van governance van beschermde landschappen voor de economische beoordeling

(hoofdstuk 9; Mehnen et al. , 2013a) en de vraag of de Delphi-methode een bruikbare 'tool' is voor de studie naar governance en beschermde gebieden (hoofdstuk 4 ; Mehnen et al., 2012). De relatie tussen *sense of place* en governance wordt in de case studie naar het natuurpark Lauenburg onderzocht (hoofdstuk 5; Mehnen et al., 2013b). De methodologisch-theoretische aanpak van Stokman & Vieth (2004) die ik gebruik richt zich op actoren, hun belangen, middelen en relaties. Deze aanpak kan helpen bij de advisering over participatie en onderhandelingen voor het eenvoudiger bereiken van consensus, omdat belangen, bronnen en verhoudingen vanaf het begin duidelijk gecommuniceerd worden. Actoren zijn daardoor waarschijnlijk eerder in staat om hun eigen belangen op de achtergrond te stellen ten behoeve van het gemeenschappelijke belang in betere onderhandelingen en democratische besluitvorming.

In het algemeen blijkt de toewijding (*commitment*) van alle actoren (maatschappelijke organisaties, bedrijfsleven en overheidsactoren) belangrijk te zijn voor succesvolle ontwikkeling van beschermde gebieden. De beheerder van natuurgebieden zou kunnen functioneren als een moderator of zelfs als een bemiddelaar, waarbij sociale vaardigheden cruciaal zijn. De case studies laten zien dat voor een succesvolle ontwikkeling beslissingen en besluitvormingsprocessen moeten transparant zijn; elke actor moet de kans krijgen om deel te nemen en moet in staat zijn om beslissingen te beïnvloeden. Beschermde landschappen kunnen, wanneer zij geconfronteerd worden met nieuwe uitdagingen, zeker modellen zijn voor duurzame regionale ontwikkeling en dus gezien worden als de hoop van het Europees territoriale beschermingsbeleid.

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Zusammenfassung

*Erzähle mir und ich vergesse.
Zeige mir und ich werde mich erinnern.
Lass es mich selbst tun und ich verstehe.*

(Konfuzius 450 v.Chr.)

GESCHÜTZTE LANDSCHAFTEN – DIE GROßE HOFFNUNG DER EUROPÄISCHEN SCHUTZGEBIETSPOLITIK? – Eine vergleichende Untersuchung von Governance in IUCN Kategorie V-Gebieten

Schutzgebiete haben einen hohen gesellschaftlichen Stellenwert. Ihre Fläche und Anzahl nimmt noch immer zu, dies gilt vor allem für geschützte Landschaften (*protected landscapes*). Seit jeher spielt der Staat eine wichtige Rolle beim Schutz und der Entwicklung. Aber in den letzten Jahren zieht sich der Staat von einigen seiner traditionellen Aufgaben in Schutzgebieten zurück und andere Akteure müssen diese Aufgaben übernehmen. Oft ist es schwierig, sicherzustellen, dass die Interessen der verschiedenen Akteure ausgeglichen betrachtet werden. Wirtschaftliche Interessen dürfen dem Schutz von Natur und Landschaft nicht im Weg stehen und es muss verhindert werden, dass geschützte Landschaften nur "Marketing-Tools" oder "Papiertiger" werden. Fragen zu Governance und Management rücken somit in den Fokus der Forschung und von theoretischen Debatten. Hier reiht sich auch diese Arbeit ein. Außerdem ist bisher (zu) wenig erforscht, welche Bedeutung geschützten Landschaften (IUCN Kategorie V Gebiete) in Europa zukommt. Diese Arbeit will einen Beitrag leisten, um diese Lücke zu schließen.

Governance bezeichnet „netzwerkartige Kooperationen zwischen Akteuren des staatlichen, privatwirtschaftlichen und zivilgesellschaftlichen Bereichs zur Bearbeitung von Gemeinschaftsaufgaben der regionalen Entwicklung. Dabei stehen Prozesse und Regelsysteme im Vordergrund, die kollektives Handeln unterschiedlicher Akteure ermöglichen und dadurch unterschiedliche Handlungslogiken verbinden können“ (Fürst et al., 2006, 7).

IUCN Kategorie V (Geschützte Landschaft/Geschützte Meeresregion) wird definiert als „ein Schutzgebiet, in dem das Zusammenwirken von Mensch und Natur im Laufe der Zeit eine Landschaft von besonderem Charakter mit herausragenden ökologischen, biologischen, kulturellen und landschaftlichen Werten geformt hat und in dem die ungestörte Fortführung dieses Zusammenwirkens für den Schutz und Erhalt des Gebietes und seiner zugehörigen Naturschutz- und anderen Werte unerlässlich ist“ (EUROPARC Deutschland, 2010, 27).

Schutzgebiete und besonders geschützte Landschaften sind daher selten monofunktionell orientiert, sondern erfüllen häufig gleichzeitig eine Vielzahl von unterschiedlichen Aufgaben und Funktionen wie Naturschutz, wirtschaftliche Nutzung, Umweltbildung und Regionalentwicklung (Mose, 2007). In modernen, differenzierten Gesellschaften wächst das Spektrum von Interessen, Überzeugungen, Problemen und Lösungen. Wie oben bereits erwähnt, ist dies auch der Fall in geschützten Landschaften; insbesondere in Zeiten von finanziellen Schwierigkeiten sind die Kapazitäten der klassischen staatlichen Institutionen, politischer Strukturen und der repräsentativen Demokratie stark eingeschränkt auf diese neuen Herausforderungen angemessen zu reagieren (Forbrig, 2011). Nicht erst seit den Verträgen von Rio (1992) und Arhus (1998) ist von Wissenschaftlern und Politikern anerkannt, dass die Beteiligung von verschiedenen Akteuren an Entscheidungsfindungen zu einer besseren Qualität und Nachhaltigkeit der Ergebnisse führt (Arnstein, 1969; Healey, 1997; Turnhout et al., 2010). Die geschützte Landschaft kann als ein Handlungsraum auf lokaler und regionaler Ebene fungieren, wo gezielte Problemlösungen einfacher zu aktivieren sind (Forbrig, 2011).

Im Rahmen dieser Doktorarbeit wurden vier IUCN-Kategorie V-Gebiete als Fallstudien untersucht – der Naturpark Lauenburgische Seen in Deutschland, der Naturpark Steirische Eisenwurz in Österreich, der Peak District Nationalpark in England und der Regionale Naturpark Livradois-Forez in Frankreich. Im Rahmen jeder Fallstudie wurden Intensivinterviews geführt, Beobachtungen gemacht und Vor-Ort-Recherchen angestellt. Es wurde keine Fallstudie in den Niederlanden durchgeführt, da die „Nationalen Landschaften“ nicht als IUCN Kategorie V klassifiziert sind. Die Fallstudien, die im Rahmen dieser Arbeit untersucht wurden, zeigen deutliche Unterschiede in Bezug auf Governance auf. Das liegt zum einen an ihren sehr verschiedenen kontextuellen und vor allem institutionellen Strukturen.

Die Fallstudien haben gezeigt, dass geschützte Landschaften nicht 'Papiertiger' sein dürfen und das Naturschutzziele nicht von wirtschaftlichen Interessen überstimmt werden sollten. Der Weg der englischen Nationalparks - mit dem „Sanford Prinzip“, also dem Vorrang von Schutzziele vor Erholungszielen, wenn die beiden Zwecke nicht durch geschickte Verwaltung in Einklang gebracht werden - könnte auch für andere Parks interessant sein. Und das aktive Einbeziehen und Beteiligen von Naturschutzorganisationen, Ökologen und Biologen, Land- und Forstwirten und lokaler Bevölkerung könnte helfen, den Druck zu minimieren, unter dem der Naturschutz heute steht, indem sie mehr gerechte und geeignete Entscheidungen treffen und so vermutlich die Lebensqualität verbessern (Fürst, 2006).

Diese Arbeit setzt sich aus verschiedenen Veröffentlichungen zusammen und beschäftigt sich mit unterschiedlichen Fragestellungen, wie zum Beispiel, welche Implikationen Governance von geschützten Landschaften für die wirtschaftliche Bewertung hat (Kapitel 9; Mehnen et al., 2013a)

oder ob die Delphi-Methode ein sinnvolles ‘Werkzeug’ zur Untersuchung von Governance und Schutzgebieten sein kann (Kapitel 4; Mehnen et al., 2012). Der Zusammenhang von *sense of place* und Governance wird am Beispiel des Naturparks Lauenburgische Seen untersucht (Kapitel 5; Mehnen et al., 2013b). Der in meiner Arbeit verwendete methodisch-theoretische Ansatz von Stokman & Vieth (2004), sich auf Akteure, ihre Interessen, Ressourcen und Beziehungen zu konzentrieren, hilft Beteiligung und Verhandlungen zu erleichtern und einen Konsens einfacher zu erreichen, weil Interessen, Ressourcen und Beziehungen von Anfang an klar kommuniziert werden. Das Engagement (*commitment*) aller Akteure (der Zivilgesellschaft, der Wirtschaft sowie staatlicher Akteure) ist von entscheidender Bedeutung für die erfolgreiche Entwicklung des Schutzgebietes. Die Schutzgebietsverwaltung könnte als Moderator oder sogar als Mediator funktionieren, daher sind deren soziale Fähigkeiten zentrale Kernpunkte. Aber Entscheidungen und Entscheidungsprozesse müssen transparent sein, d.h. jeder Akteur sollte die Möglichkeit haben sich beteiligen und Entscheidungen beeinflussen zu können. Geschützte Landschaften können, wenn sie sich den neuen Herausforderungen stellen, durchaus Modelle der nachhaltigen Regionalentwicklung sein und somit als Hoffnung der Europäischen Gebietsschutzpolitik gesehen werden.

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Curriculum Vitae

PERSONAL DATA

Name Nora Mehnen
Born April 19, 1981 in Göttingen, Lower-Saxony (Germany)
Citizenship Federal Republic of Germany
Contact n.mehnen@gmail.com

SCIENTIFIC INTERESTS

- Protected areas, nature protection, policy
- Sustainable development
- Governance, participation
- Regional economy
- Qualitative and quantitative research methods

PROFESSIONAL ASSOCIATIONS

- The Netherlands Graduate School of Urban and Regional Research (NETHUR)

EDUCATION

July 2008 – 2013	University of Groningen, Faculty of Spatial Sciences, Department Cultural Geography, The Netherlands	PhD student (Prof. dr. Dirk Strijker, Prof. dr. Ingo Mose); (Regional) governance in protected landscapes in Europe
October 2007 – March 2008	Carl von Ossietzky University of Oldenburg, Germany	Research Assistant (Tourism potential analysis and location analysis for designations for recreational housing in the municipality Freren, Emsland, Germany; Prof. Dr. Ortwin Peithmann; Prof. Dr. Ingo Mose)
October 2000 – December 2005	University of Vechta, Germany	Environmental Sciences: Diploma (Dipl. Umweltwiss.) Study emphasis: Environmental monitoring; thesis (diploma): The regional-economic value of national park tourism in the new Harz national park, Germany.

PUBLICATIONS

Mehnen, N. (forthcoming): Actor involvement in protected landscapes – evidence from the Peak District National Park, UK. *Europa Regional* (a peer reviewed quarterly journal)

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