The connoisseur method – A study on long-term participation in landscape planning

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Cover: Components of the connoisseur method vary, but the landscape, the connoisseurs and representations to support the dialogue are always there.
(collage by Mellqvist and Henriksson, 2017)

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Abstract

This thesis presents and asseses a method for participation in landscape planning and management. The method has a long-term perspective, while focusing on the interests of local stakeholders.

Public participation has been recognized as a fundamental part of landscape planning and management. Through for example the European Landscape Convention's (ELC) inclusive definition of "landscape", landscape got a more democratic connotation where focus is put on people's perception of a landscape. This shift calls for more collaborative working methods requiring more and somewhat different skills from the professional planner than a traditional top-down system does. The research presented in this thesis is context-bound, and based on action-oriented working methods and approaches where citizens, planners and managers are involved in parallel. Academia, represented by researchers and students, is proposed to supplement and assist municipal authorities and the local society in collaborative planning. Methods and approaches related to awareness raising, embodied knowledge, strengthening people's relationship to their everyday landscape and identifying ways of letting local experts' voices be heard in the municipal planning process, have guided the research.

All the cases presented, describe planning processes in peri-urban landscapes, at different scales with strong connection to nature reserves, changed patterns of land use, and with varying amounts of stakeholders directly related to the landscapes in question. Three cases were selected to discover, design and investigate potentials with the "connoisseur methods", and three cases were selected to test and refine the method, anchored in current municipal planning and resulting in actual plans.

In this thesis '*The connoisseur method*' is proposed as a way to achieve better collaborative planning. It invites a new type of expert to influence landscape development: the *connoisseur* is an expert in experiencing the landscape from her particular perspective, and represents the local society. The method proposed is a mix of different participatory methods used for landscape analysis as a way for the professional planner/manager to understand how the local community understands and uses different landscape features. The results of the different cases show how *the process* is of vital importance. A successful collaboration process is a valuable tool for learning, both locally among the connoisseurs and amongst the municipal planners and managers.

Keywords: long term landscape planning, collaborative planning, participatory landscape actions, connoisseurs, connoisseur-method, learning processes, empowerment, sustainable landscape planning, awareness raising, embodied knowledge, shared learning, trust, local knowledge

Photos and illustrations are made by the author unless the text in the figure states otherwise.

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Dedication

To Alfred and Jonatan

Contents

List of Publications

This thesis is based on the work contained in the following papers, referred to by Roman numerals in the text:

I Mellqvist, H., Gustavsson, R., and Gunnarsson, A. (2013). Using the connoisseur method during the introductory phase of landscape planning and management. *Urban Forestry & Urban Greening* **12** 211-219.

II Mellqvist, H., and Gustavsson, R. (2014). Learning and Acting through Participatory Landscape Planning: The Case of the Bräkne River Valley, Sweden. *In* 'Urban Forests, Trees, and Greenspace: A Political Ecology Perspective' (A. Sandberg, A. Bardekjian and S. Butt, eds.), pp. 292-306. Earthscan, London.

III Arler, F., and Mellqvist, H. (2015). Landscape democracy, three sets of values, and the connoisseur method. *Environmental Values* **24** 271-298.

IV Mellqvist, H., Kristensen, L. S., and Konijnendijk van den Bosch, C. (2016). Participatory green structure planning for linking urban and rural landscapes - a case study from Ronneby, Sweden. *Nordic Journal of Architectural Research* **3**, 71-96.

The papers included in this thesis where written in different constellations as described below:

I I collected most of the material while Roland Gustavsson prepared the design of the study, i.e. the design of the connoisseur-method and the partnership with the municipality of Ronneby. I was responsible for the writing process together with Roland Gustavsson and Allan Gunnarsson.

II I collected material and carried through the course together with Gustavsson. Gustavsson prepared the course and were responsible for contacts with local associations as well as a partnership with the municipality. I was responsible for the writing processes.

III Finn Arler is responsible for conceptualising democracy and analysis of democratic aspects in the range of methods used for participation in planning. I am responsible for the connoisseur-method with examples from three of my cases. Finn Arler was responsible for compiling the article and I was responsible for writing about the connoisseur-method.

IV I have participated in the green structure-project and collected material, Lone Söderkvist Kristensson contributed with theorizing on collaborative planning in peri-urban landscapes and Cecil Konijnendijk van den Bosch with broad knowledge on green structure planning and participation in planning.

1 Preface

After two years of studies at SLU, I started working together with Professor Roland Gustavsson on a series of smaller projects. The projects contained a blend of what I had been missing during my previous studies in sociology, philosophy and landscape architecture. We touched on a deeper discussion on the *people* for whom we were taught to plan and design landscapes and focused on the *people* responsible for planning and managing landscapes. 'Local experts' and 'place-related' knowledge were introduced as key concepts. Learning by observing, building a dialogue, and acting together led me to better understand the importance of a personal experience of a place. The idea was that an emphasis on dialogue will improve the processes of planning and managing our landscapes and therefore enhancing public participation is necessary. The question remained, however, whether a wider participation could be combined with current planning cultures in Sweden and abroad.

In the Landscape Ambassador seminars (LAMB), organised by Periscape (a group of landscape researchers from different European countries), students were trained to observe, discover, interpret, represent, and communicate landscapes together with a group of teachers. It was a practice-oriented approach, where teaching involved a mix of lectures, excursions, and meetings with local experts 'on site' in the landscape. The pedagogic cornerstones in the LAMB seminars are carefully thought out and I was intrigued by the learning processes and by how different groups of stakeholders can learn from each other. My LAMB experience is both from student and teacher. While testing and exploring different forms of collaboration, I also became more convinced of the power in learning together with *doers*, in particular by creating events where local experts could share their knowledge/opinions with students/researchers/planners and anyone else involved in the learning

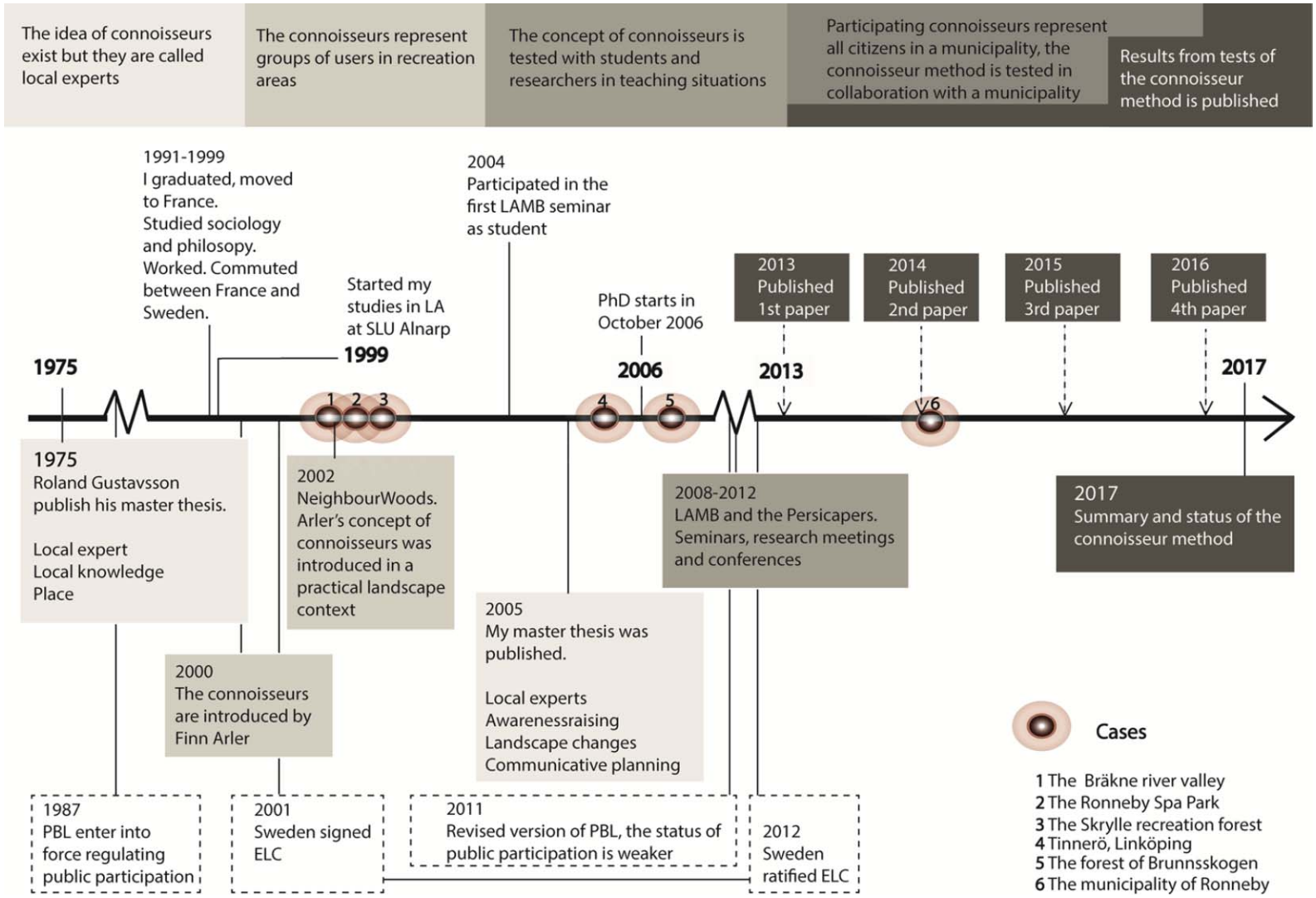
process. It appeared necessary to highlight local experts in the formal planning process. The connoisseur method that will be explained in this thesis is developed by my colleague Roland Gustavsson and myself and is my contribution to working with situated learning, site-specific knowledge and long-term planning.

The entire research process has been a true expedition, but also a voyage of education for me. Curiosity and action-oriented research created preconditions for exploring how the planning of our peri-urban landscape can actually include the opinions of local actors as well as place-based knowledge. Achieving the involvement of local users in long-term landscape planning is a challenge. The peri-urban landscapes I have focused on have different characteristics but share a somewhat unclear distribution of responsibility due to a complex pattern of usage. The peri-urban landscapes include recreation areas as well as the home environment; they provide ecosystem services, such as the production of food and timber and common-pool resources managed by private landowners (or by the local government if it is a nature reserve). Landscape alterations accelerate due to changes in land use, among other factors, but public participation is often weak in these sparsely populated landscapes. This thesis is an attempt to awaken the interest of local users in getting involved in community development by focusing on their everyday landscape, which they know and care for, and for responsible planners to make room for deliberative planning processes in their work. Confidence and trust are important for peri-urban planning, and this thesis aims to show that public participation is believed to strengthen both.

In Figure 1, I have illustrated the process of the thesis.

Figure 1.The timeline illustrates my research journey, also indicating that the presence of local experts is of great relevance and that they are gradually being renamed as connoisseurs. Public participation has been a buzzword in landscape planning since at least 1987, with PBL (the Swedish Planning and Building Act) and 1992 with the Rio Declaration. Participation in landscape planning was updated in connection with the ELC 2001 and turned gradually into collaborative planning during my work with this thesis. The six cases are marked according to the year they started and they are further described in the methods chapter below, together with a timeline in Fig. 6.

(LA – Landscape Architecture and LAMB – Landscape Ambassador)


The idea of connoisseurs exist but they are called local experts
The connoisseurs represent groups of users in recreation areas
The concept of connoisseurs is tested with students and researchers in teaching situations
Participating connoisseurs represent all citizens in a municipality, the connoisseur method is tested in collaboration with a municipality
Results from tests of the connoisseur method is published
1991-1999
I graduated, moved to France.
Studied sociology and philosopy.
Worked. Commuted between France and Sweden.
Started my studies in LA at SLU Alnarp
1999
2004
Participated in the first LAMB seminar as student
PhD starts in October 2006
2006
2013
Published 1st paper
2014
Published 2nd paper
2015
Published 3rd paper
2016
Published 4th paper
2017
1975
1 2 3
4 5
6
1975
Roland Gustavsson publish his master thesis.
Local expert
Local knowledge
Place
2002
NeighbourWoods. Arler's concept of connoisseurs was introduced in a practical landscape context
2000
The connoisseurs are introduced by Finn Arler
2005
My master thesis was published.
Local experts
Awarenessraising
Landscape changes
Communicative planning
2008-2012
LAMB and the Persicapers. Seminars, research meetings and conferences
2017
Summary and status of the connoisseur method
1987
PBL enter into force regulating public participation
2001
Sweden signed ELC
2011
Revised version of PBL, the status of public participation is weaker
2012
Sweden ratified ELC
Cases
1 The Bräkne river valley
2 The Ronneby Spa Park
3 The Skrylle recreation forest
4 Tinnerö, Linköping
5 The forest of Brunnsskogen
6 The municipality of Ronneby

2 Introduction

User participation in landscape planning is not a new concept, and the literature has frequently addressed the need for the further development of methods, as public participation often does not work as expected (Healey, 1996; Henecke and Khan, 2002; Innes and Booher, 2004; Tahvilzadeh, 2015). One dilemma of public participation is how the official planner needs to balance her/his role as neutral municipal planner with the role of compassionate fellow human (Bornemark, 2016). Another dilemma is the question of who is participating together with the power of a representative democracy.

This thesis attempts to analyse how the everyday landscape of citizens is treated in official planning strategies. It discusses official planners' and local actors' comprehension of public participation in long term landscape development. Set in a peri-urban context, the research explores how new groups of experts may be introduced into a planning context, while also testing inclusive methods that makes it easier for the different groups of actors to learn from each other. The method explored takes the perspective of embodied knowledge acquired by 'doing' as its point of departure, with the professional planner—representing the public sector—in focus. Besides the local authorities, the local society and academics are also introduced as actors in collaborative long-term planning processes in the peri-urban landscape.

Continuous and long term planning has proven to be a challenge due to a general lack of interest in getting involved (Metzger, 2016). Basic needs like schools, housing, and healthcare are fulfilled by the Swedish welfare state, and it may be fair to assume that many Swedish inhabitants feel that long-term planning processes are also a task for the public sector; that is, something for the local government to handle. An ongoing and long-term public participation is therefore not easy for planners to maintain, and the existing legal instruments for participation in planning

processes are not always helpful (Bornemark, 2016; Henecke and Khan, 2002; Wiberg, 2015).

Agnoletti (2014) discusses the lack of protection of rural landscapes with a range of examples that demonstrate the speed at which abandoned farmland or grazing land is covered by forest. His description is also valid for the peri-urban Swedish landscapes that are the focus of this thesis. He proposes as a solution that involves a combination of making sure that existing legislation is applied and improving citizens' and policy makers' awareness of the multiple resources offered by rural landscapes. Changes in attitude take time, however citizens must realize that they are needed in planning processes and develop a trust in the system in order to be more involved. Policymakers must find methods of letting public participation be a part of their everyday work while keeping Arnsteins' warning in mind: 'participation without redistribution of power is an empty and frustrating process for the powerless' (1969, p.216). Lost features of the landscape cannot always be restored. Sustainable landscape planning, as the ELC suggests, is hard to realize (Butler, 2016) due to the difficulty of characterizing 'landscape, and how it is handled.' (ibid p. 259) as well as determining who should define what the qualities of a landscape are.

2.1 The local connoisseur

The term connoisseur is introduced into a peri-urban landscape planning context to designate a knowledgeable person, specifically in terms of how they perceive a certain place at a certain time (Arler, 2000). According to Arler, connoisseurs are people with either a professional relationship to the landscape or a relationship that is created through the everyday use of an area. Connoisseurs living in a place or spending time there for other reasons, have learned to judge landscape qualities by embodied experience and 'the sense of place' is intuitive for them (Flyvbjerg, 2001; Relph, 1976). The term "Connoisseur" derives from the French word *connaître*, meaning 'to know,' and is mainly used for somebody with a personal experience of judging qualities in wine and music (Merriam-Webster, 2017). Deciding who holds the title of connoisseur is decided from a place-based horizon focusing on personal relationships with a place and a connoisseur's embodied experiences through being there, i.e. a pronounced 'sense of place' (Tuan, 1974). Arler introduced the connoisseur as a landscape expert who is missing from the range of experts involved in nature policymaking and landscape planning on a strategic level (Arler, 2000, 2008).

The selection of connoisseurs is case dependent and thereby place dependent. In a landscape context, users become 'knowers' when their experience is transformed into a set of qualified opinions about which features of a landscape are worth preserving in a specific place (Arler, 2000; Arler and Mellqvist, 2015; Mellqvist et al., 2013). The connoisseurs is a new group of experts to complement already established groups of experts in landscape planning, such as landscape ecologists, geologists, hydrologists, and landscape planners (Arler, 2000). The six cases that are elaborated in this thesis, focus on connoisseurs from organized grassroots communities—mainly local associations and NGOs (non-governmental organization).

Students participation in this study pinpoint a strong focus on learning processes between the various connoisseurs and other actors involved in the processes of landscape development in order to achieve sustainable strategies focusing (see Fig. 3 and Forester, 1999). The connoisseurs include local residents, but also people working there and tourists passing through. The connoisseur is proposed to cover the interests of the local residents, employees, tourists and passengers. A common denominator for most landscape education is its strong relation to practice, to the physical and social context, to traditional know-how, rules and regulations—namely, to the profession. Therefore, students in landscape education must learn to deal with societal changes and megatrends as well as the tasks of their discipline, which could be forestry, landscape architecture, landscape engineering or environmental engineering (Michelin et al., 2008; Riesco-Chueca and Gómez-Zotano, 2013).

3 Background

3.1 A landscape in transition

Effects of the ongoing acceleration of urbanization are equally strong in rural and urban landscapes, albeit of entirely different natures. Both landscape types are in transition, affected in the first instance by homogenizing and depopulation and in the second by increasing population densities and urban sprawl. During the past century, the Swedish landscape—along with European landscapes overall—has altered physically, and so have people's relationships with these landscapes (Olwig, 2005). Centrally-defined policies and the shrinking numbers of active farmers have contributed to a homogenization of the agricultural landscape (Pinto-Correia et al., 2006; Primdahl et al., 2013b). Decisions about people's everyday landscape are to a larger extent made by professionals with expert access to the evaluation of values and potentials in the landscape (Peterson, 2006). The fact that fewer hands are working with the land leads to standardized management, which transforms places and subsequently, people's access and usage of these places (Flygare and Isacson, 2003; Jordbruksverket, 2016; Stenseke, 2009). It also leads, however, to a considerable number of nature reserves aimed at preserving agricultural landscapes and the values connected to them (Saltzman et al., 2011).

In a time when fewer people are active in shaping and working with the landscape, local knowledge and engagement could be better integrated into the development process for landscape planning (Sarlöv Herlin, 2012; Selman, 2004; Stenseke, 2006). The landscape is becoming more uniform and less multi-functional, which affects ecological systems, attractiveness and visual impact. However, society has changed—and so have the prerequisites for active participation.

Knowledge of landscape management, traditional movement patterns, and the habit of sharing responsibility of the care and concern for places in the landscape are also changing (Mellqvist and Gustavsson, 2014). Vejre et al. (2002) describe a future for rural landscapes in Denmark with farming as a hobby, farm estates with no land, and rural inhabitants with other gainful employments than farming. Already today, small-scale family farming is supported more for its touristic appeal than its economic viability (Cadieux, 2006; Selman, 2012). Patterns of outmigration, farm closures, and the loss of local know-how are strongly affecting the livelihoods of those who remain.

On a small scale, these changes put much-appreciated features of the peri-urban landscape as well as local ecosystems connected to sources of income and people's identity at risk (Mellqvist and Gustavsson, 2014; Widgren, 2012). In Sweden, a rapid change of landscapes causes threats to locally cherished features of the landscape (SCB, 2008, SCB and Swedish Environmental Protection Agency 2016; Gustavsson and Ingelög, 1994). Landscape value is, according to the European Landscape Convention (2000b), to be defined and set by local users. A challenge is to ensure local users' access to the landscape and that private and official forces cooperate to safeguard the continuity of landscapes. Vejre et al. (2002) summarise this as the landscape hosting 'farming, dwelling, recreation and living environments for plants and animals' (p.301-302).

3.2 Top-down call for bottom-up engagement

International conventions recommend public participation in planning (Council of Europe, 2000a; United Nations, 1987, 1992, 2001), and leave the task of actually making it happen to the planners. These calls reflect physical as well as organizational changes in the entities responsible for landscape in different ways, although 'sustainable development' is always at the centre (Campbell, 2016). In order to be sustainable, collaboration between decision makers, official planners and local stakeholders is considered necessary (Innes, 2016; World Commission on Environment and Development, 1987).

This thinking is reflected in the ELC (Council of Europe, 2000a), which aims to ensure the people's right to influence the development of their everyday landscape. During the 1990s, public participation was used mainly for environmental and ecological sustainability issues (United Nations, 1992), while municipalities in Sweden gradually launched different strategies for implementing public participation in other contexts

as well as at an earlier stage than the law required (as regulated in the Planning and Building Act) (Lindholm et al., 2015). Today public participation is widely accepted, even though its purpose is often unclear (Tahvilzadeh, 2015). It is valued, for example, because of its capacity to find the unexpected and generate new ideas (Innes and Booher, 2010). Tahvilzadeh (2015) points out how future forms of public participation will depend on political battles, in which basic opinions of social development and the role of the state are more important than the invention of new methods for dialogue. Participatory methods that embrace and involve the political layer as well as local stakeholders would be a way of fulfilling both, striving for better, not more, participation (Butler and Berglund, 2014).

3.3 Opportunities and challenges for participation

Loftus (2015) formulated the challenges for an integrated planning approach as a need to commit to '*both* a deepening of democratic politics *and* to better governance of the environment of which we are a part' (ibid p. 268), emphasising the practice-oriented engagement. It is not a question of leaving either local government or local communities in total control (Arler, 2008; Jones, 2007), but rather of gaining public inputs as a complement to official decision making processes. The potential for integrated approaches, encouraging cross-fertilization between the established disciplines and the everyday users of the landscape, is widely advocated and accepted, but realisations are complex and less documented (Buchecker et al., 2003; Primdahl et al., 2013b; Randrup and Persson, 2009; Stephenson, 2007). Therefore, the main challenges for collaborative and integrated planning are related to how to implement this type of planning in daily municipal work (Healey, 2006). In Sweden, a Delegation for Sustainable Cities was appointed in 2008 with the main task of creating an arena for the exchange of knowledge and experiences regarding sustainable urban development. Results from four years of work were compiled under the heading 'Fifteen obstacles to sustainable urban development'. The findings stated that more practical examples are needed that show how we can plan and manage our cities in a sustainable way (Statens offentliga utredningar, 2012). In October 2015 a report was published on the 'Designed Living Environment' (Statens offentliga utredningar, 2015). The Commission of Inquiry's remit was, among other things, a proposal for new national objectives: 'The overall objective of the national policy for architecture, form and design is to strengthen the

field's influence and thereby help to create a well-designed living environment with long-term sustainability' (ibid p.29). In this sense, landscape development and green structure planning are right on target, and the declaration is likely to help support participatory landscape planning in the future.

3.4 Ambiguity in delegating power

The authors of the ELC write how important it is to identify, protect and develop landscape qualities; however, they do this in very general terms (Arler, 2008; Council of Europe, 2000b). Arler notes how the formulations reveal an anxiety towards letting public authorities on the national or local level do their own landscape assessment and set their own landscape values. According to Johansson and Khakee (2009) the majority of planners believe public participation does not work in practice, as it requires too much time and commitment from both politicians and municipal planners. Bickerstaff and Walker (2005) assessed the results of governance and deliberative processes in local transport planning in the UK and observed the ways in which the tensions that affect the process as well as the result actually lie in 'the difficult and unresolved linkages between representative and participatory governance' (ibid p.2138). Key tensions are centred on the lack of direct and observable results, not on the process. One of the issues for successful collaborative planning is to build up trust between planners and citizens and to assure participating citizens get involved and influenced in the results. Arler (2008) further describes how the *value* of self-determination appears to overrule the specific *landscape values*, quoting the ELC's explanatory report with guidelines for identifying and evaluating landscapes: 'the value which the population concerned attaches to it' (Council of Europe, 2000b par.54). This raises the issues of concrete measures and methods that would allow us to reach the opinions of 'concerned populations' and thereby reach a landscape assessment that is truly democratic (Arler, 2008).

3.5 Multiple actors in the landscape

Using a typical Swedish peri-urban landscape scene, Fig. 2 illustrates how the established experts are invited to contribute within their respective domain of expertise,to the processes of official landscape planning in Sweden. The lines are just as sharp in the practical planning

processes as in the picture. Landscape planning and nature conservation are project-oriented and object-oriented activities, depending on how the responsible authorities are organised. Municipalities as well as county administrative boards are divided into departments with separate responsibilities, budgets, and personnel (Sveriges Kommuner och Landsting, 2016). Projects stretching over several departments are often divided into smaller projects within the different departments. Planning conditions for peri-urban areas are complex partly due to the dominance of private land use rights and the presence of relatively little public space (Primdahl et al., 2013b). Municipalities often meet situations with little room for the activity of spatial planning in peri-urban landscapes due to the heavy sectorial regulation of space and the place-bound production of agriculture and forestry (Mellqvist et al., 2016). Financial subsidies for landscape management are object-oriented and rarely take a whole landscape into consideration. However, this is changing (Primdahl et al., 2013a) and the Swedish government has signed a national rural development plan describing more sustainable and holistic approaches (Jordbruksverket, 2014-2020). Place-related knowledge on local land use traditions or place-specific customs connected to the landscape are missing in Fig. 2 just as they are in many official planning processes today. The long-term planning in focus for this thesis is also challenging to capture, due to both the object-oriented systems of subsidies and the project-oriented planning and strategy for financial support.

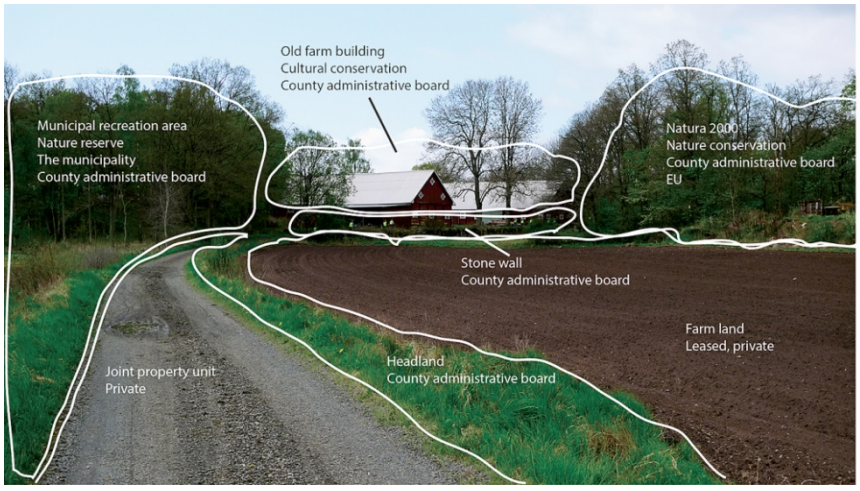


Figure 2. Illustration of the wide range of experts and responsibilities in processes of landscape planning.

3.6 Planning in partnership with academia

One way of moving toward collaborative planning is to focus on people's practical engagement with the landscape, and to work with popular adult education. The ELC article 6 (Council of Europe, 2000) calls for raising public (general) awareness on landscape values and states that this means that we should strengthen both landscape-related education to educate specialists and broader transdisciplinary programmes (Sarlöv Herlin and Stiles, 2016). Partnership between responsible planning institutions (in Sweden this essentially means the municipalities), local associations (NGOs, 'the grassroots') and universities is another way of reaching practical working situations where new knowledge can merge into new creative thinking and acting. Public outreach is in Sweden called the 'third task' of the universities, and it has been settled in Swedish law since the 'högskolereformen' (higher education reform) of 1977 (1977:218). This third task has been questioned, as universities are evaluated based on academic merit, and scientific publication in particular, far more than on their practical engagement with society (Hicks, 2012).

Flexible learning processes are, according to Svensson and Brulin (2014), hard to integrate in the linear planning models of today (New Public Management and similar models with standardized models for monitoring and evaluation). They identify a need to develop and accept changed approaches and learn to work differently with 'development where complexity, unpredictability, contradictions, dilemmas, and paradoxes are the foundation, which set requirements for an open and learning approach' (ibid p.290), where deviations and surprises are more important than the expected results. Fig. 3 illustrates how universities, researchers, teachers, and students can play an important role and assist the local government in planning for governance.

3.7 Problem statement

Peri-urban landscapes have problems fitting into current physical planning ideals. Peri-urban landscapes are used by many and offer a broad variety of services, but are planned and managed by very few. Planning processes are in focus, and some change is needed to change attitudes and to spark people's interest in participating. In order to help tackle the described set of challenges related to urbanization, landscapes in transition, international calls for public participation, a multitude of landscape actors, and the loss of place-related knowledge, it is necessary

to focus on long-term inclusive and participatory local planning of our peri-urban landscapes.

Since current planning of peri-urban landscapes is struggling to be inclusive and socially sustainable, we must develop new approaches for long-term landscape planning. There is a need for more robust planning approaches that can ensure care for threatened landscape values—which local citizens would like to keep—as well as safeguard a continuity of essential local functions related to the constituted existence of an active peri-urban landscape. A more robust long-term planning approach should include other actors and mainly peri-urban citizens, making public participation a 'natural' component of local planning. This type of planning could also include academia with the knowledge, experience, and power in domains not covered by local planners or local citizens.

3.8 Objective

Exploring ways to engage local actors, professional planners and academics in partnership implies a discussion about the decision process regarding the planning and management of people's everyday landscape. Moreover, we need to discuss how this process can be better oriented towards democratic, engaging, and knowledge-developing formats in which the knowledge and perspectives of local stakeholders are taken into account and are integrated in a joint effort between amateurs and professionals.

I have focused on the working process, observing changes in people's engagement with the surrounding landscape and looking for possibilities to better engage people in landscape development. The capacity of public participation in empowering the relevant stakeholders is a key issue, together with the potential of universities to be involved in planning processes between the official planners and the local society.

The thesis has one overall objective: to develop and assess a method for landscape planning and management that addresses the new societal demands for tending to the identity of a place from a long-term perspective, while also taking into account the interests of different stakeholders. This objective is elaborated through three further research aims:

- To explore how inclusive long-term planning can be performed, building up an engagement of local planners, local actors, and academics.
- To study the impact of the individual stakeholder, be it a planner, local actor or academic, in the process.
- To assess the impact of the tested method.

3.8.1 Limitations

Being a landscape architect, I have chosen to present my research from a planner's perspective. The concern for people's relationships with their everyday landscapes is expressed through considering how this relationship could be a part of official planning policies. But it is also expressed through an effort to see how professional planners, in collaboration with academia, can engage and perhaps 'educate' citizens to value and to care for their home landscapes. The analysis is limited to the three groups of actors identified and local citizens are to a large extent represented by local associations (the grassroots organisations).

This thesis has evolved from practice. The applied methods have emerged from a conviction that user participation in planning, as well as a well-functioning democracy, does not emerge by itself; it has to be nurtured and supported.

The focus is on peri-urban landscapes, excluding urban phenomena that are not as relevant outside the city fringe as well as issues connected to rural landscapes. I operate in a northern European context, although my findings could also be relevant for other regions. The six cases studied in this research are six places embedded in their respective distinctive contexts, with six particular histories. One case study is located in Tinnerö, Linköping, four are situated in the municipality of Ronneby, south-eastern Sweden, and one in Scania, southern Sweden.

4 Theoretical framework

This chapter begins with the importance of learning processes, for landscape planners to reach local place-related knowledge. Especially important in collaborative planning with many actors involved. Further a short outline of the context of Swedish landscape planning, introducing relevant legislation, trends, and traditions in (participatory) peri-urban landscape planning. Collaborative planning is discussed next, with a brief review of the advantages and disadvantages associated with public participation, examining relevant topics on hesitation and citizens' trust and belief in the planning system as well as in their neighbours. If collaborative planning is to be successful, it must first of all be politically anchored and consider learning processes, that is, how knowledge is transferred within the municipal planning system (Gilljam, 2006; Tahvilzadeh, 2015). Reasoning about learning processes with a focus on different levels of knowledge, embodied knowledge, mutual learning, and learning by communicating and collaboration with other knowledgeable persons (connoisseurs) are central in this respect (Bornemark, 2016).

The practice-oriented nature of this thesis encourages a clarification of who the actors actually are. The planning model in Fig. 3 is elaborated, with groups of experts that can operate on the strategic as well as operational level in the planning process together with more established groups of actors such as land owners, certain NGOs and of course municipal planners and the county administrative board (Henecke and Khan, 2002). The landscape is also central and especially the peri-urban landscape that differs from rural and urban landscapes as follows:

RURAL landscapes are sparsely populated, mostly privately owned and dominated by farming and forestry (www.merriam-webster.com),
PERI-URBAN landscapes have an irregular population density, mixed land use, mostly private ownership,
URBAN landscapes are densely populated; embraces public spaces, parks, streets etc., and most public spaces are owned by the municipality (www.merriam-webster.com).

4.1 Learning by doers in a more robust landscape planning

There is a lack of place-related knowledge in current planning practice (Hahn et al., 2006; Stenseke, 2006), highlighting the importance of learning processes. The need for deeper knowledge will be presented through three arguments: 1) the knowledge required for planning is gained through engagement with practice; 2) students in landscape disciplines need a relation to practice in order to learn; and 3) the possibility of researchers to function as mediators. Participation in processes of landscape planning contributes with new knowledge for both planners and participating citizens. To move from top-down planning system to an approach of networked and participatory manner call for attention on how knowledge is exchanged. The participation of researchers is highlighted as needed for official planners and for researchers themselves as well as students. Communication between the three groups of actors is illustrated in Fig. 3.

The philosopher and urban planner Donald Schön (1983) argues that instrumental knowledge has received too much attention, and calls for a greater emphasis on unique cases, examples, experiments and what he calls ‘reflection in action’. He argues that teaching must imply some form of Action Research (AR). Instrumental knowledge, also called school knowledge, is only part of what counts as important in practice (Schön, 1995). Bornemark (2016) adds how the practical knowledge is considered to be a technical skill, since we separate practical from theoretical knowledge today. In a similar manner, Bent Flyvbjerg raises this issue in his book ‘How to make social science matter’ (Flyvbjerg, 2001). Here he discusses how to reach real professionalism. Indirectly, this is a critique of academics. Flyvbjerg raises the question of whether you can really become ‘professional’ in your subject field if you only stay in your office at the university. Flyvbjerg means that if you stay in the university and accept having the position as an outsider and observer, then you can never become more than ‘an advanced beginner’ (see Table 1). Physical

presence makes participants reflect more and reach a broader understanding (Schön, 1983). Different learning processes lead to different levels of knowledge, just like different processes of participation lead to different degrees of inclusion.

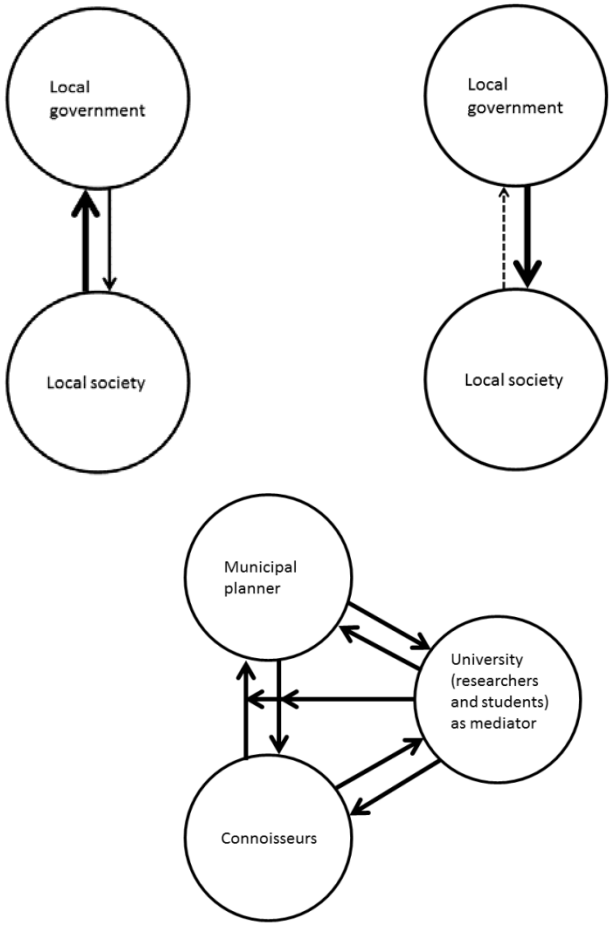


Figure 3. The planning model at the left illustrates an idealized view of bottom-up planning and management, where most steps are initiated by citizens. At right, the model illustrates a traditional way of handling landscape planning and management. The dialogue between local society and the government is weak, but it does exist.

The third model below shows the university getting involved, acting mediator and contributes with knowledge and experience from research and learning processes. Local society is replaced by 'connoisseur', the new group of local experts and local government is replaced by municipal planner

Parallel to the international shift in attitude towards socially anchored and sustainable planning processes (Council of Europe, 2000a; United Nations, 1987, 1992) there is a discourse around 'learning by doing', a pedagogical approach that became popular in the 1960s (Dewey, 1997; Flyvbjerg, 2001; Schön, 1983). The learning process was in focus, as the importance of context and real life examples was used to show students as well as researchers how things are related to and dependent on each other. Fig. 3 illustrates how researchers could then work as mediators or facilitators between local connoisseurs, landscape experts, and policy makers in processes of landscape development. Even though universities in Sweden are part of the public sector, they do not have any legal rights or obligations to influence actual processes of change in the landscape. However, there is another form of power—that is, the power to attract peoples' attention, one of academia's great contributions in a partnership (Trencher et al., 2014). Once attention has been received, universities can assist in managing a long-term engagement in landscape development on the ground at the local level.

4.2 Frames for participation in landscape planning in Sweden

A number of international and Swedish authorities and cooperation organizations call for increased and improved public participation in landscape planning (Council of Europe, 2000a; Riksdag, 1987; United Nations, 1987, 1992, 2001). This general call for public participation in landscape planning indicates an acceptance towards including a variety of views of the local landscape. It is to be considered as an invitation to citizens and a task for local authorities to implement and work with participation. Henecke and Kahn (2002) agree that this acceptance is shared by most actors, as long as 'public participation' is not thoroughly defined. Since 1987, public participation has been a part of the Planning and Building Act in Sweden, see Fig. 1., and some groups are frequently exercising their right to make their voice heard (Henecke and Khan, 2002; Wiberg, 2015), while the responsibility of planning decisions still lie with municipal planning authorities (Metzger, 2016).

The ELC argues for a use right to landscapes which requires the recognition of landscape as 'an essential component of people's surroundings, an expression of the diversity of their shared cultural and natural heritage, and a foundation of their identity' (2000a, art 5a). The convention's dynamic approach to the landscape (Brunetta and Voghera,

2008) represents a well-established attitude in Sweden partly due to the right of public access (in Swedish *allemansrätten*). The right of public access provides the possibility for everyone to visit somebody else's land, pick flowers or mushrooms, or bathe in or travel by boat on somebody else's water (Naturvårdsverket, 2016); however, one is responsible for behaving correctly and for not destroying anything. Klas Sandell, a Swedish geographer, describes the right of public access as 'based upon experienced knowledge—what is reasonable behaviour has to be learnt and 'read' in the landscape' (Sandell, 2006, p.278), and claims that the right of public access is being threatened in our fast-changing and globalized society. Sandell also confirms that the right of public access, with long traditions of use right in rural landscapes, enjoys strong and wide support in Sweden, where public access for outdoor activities is found to be more important than designated areas for recreation (Sandell and Fredman, 2010). Swedes consider using the landscape to be a vital aspect Swedish identity (Ehn and Löfgren, 1982), which might be about to change but is still associated with a strong feeling of community and avoiding conflict (Sörlin, 1992). Following Sandell's reasoning, then, the right of public access from a Swedish landscape perspective is strongly related to participation, as the connection to public access is a precondition to learn what the right to public access means. This cherished right is included in both the Environmental Code and the Swedish Constitution (since 1994), although it's content is not specified (Bengtsson, 2004).

4.3 Landscape planning, landscape management and governance

Planning can be considered an action that evaluates what will become. It is an effort to catch the actual and real, which is often hidden behind concepts and ideas (Lindholm, 2012). In order to catch what is here and now, the professional planner needs assistance from citizens because it is through true dialogues that we can reach becomings (Innes and Booher, 2004). Just as Stephenson (2007) sought to understand the landscape through 'the eyes of people who had a close relation with the landscape' (ibid p.11), a similar approach is to plan together with new groups of experts (the connoisseurs introduced in Fig. 3) in the peri-urban landscape. Thereby one can reach a planning practice that does 'not just try to understand it afterwards' (Lindholm, 2012, p.16), but that is also a

way toward reaching locally-anchored planning from a municipal perspective.

Landscape management needs to be boosted in order to be considered pro-development (Pinto-Correia et al., 2006) and to see management as follows: 'investments in conservation, restoration and sustainable ecosystem use generate substantial ecological, social and economic benefits.' (de Groot et al., 2010, p.270). Jansson and Lindgren (2012) confirm that the distinction between landscape planning and management is not always clear; nevertheless, it is often divided into separate processes in the responsible organizations. Randrup and Persson (2009) and Gustavsson et al. (2005) bring up three levels of landscape management of importance to understand its strong relation to planning: the strategic/policy level, the tactical level, and the operational level, whereby the municipal planner could be responsible for both the strategic/policy and tactical levels, but not for the operational level (Jansson and Lindgren, 2012).

LANDSCAPE DEVELOPMENT Used here to complement 'Landscape Planning' to emphasise the peri-urban, broad landscape perspective including planning, management, governance and maintenance.

LANDSCAPE GOVERNANCE Public and private actors participating in the municipal planning system, in a decentralised, networked and participatory manner (Buijs, A., Elands, B., Havik, G., Ambrose-Oji, B., Gerőházi, E., van der Jagt, A., Mattijssen, T., Steen Møller, M., and Vierikko, K. H. 2016).

LANDSCAPE MANAGEMENT The care for identifying and developing landscape values, the actual 'doing' (Council of Europe, 2000a, art. 1e).

LANDSCAPE PLANNING Landscape planning is used as overall concept, also including management and governance. Planning is process-oriented striving towards finding forward-looking strategies and solutions (Council of Europe, 2000a, art. 1f).

Konijnendijk van den Bosch (2014) describes the shift from government to governance as 'originating from the enhanced focus on the involvement of citizens and other stakeholders in decision-making' (ibid p.35), particularly regarding their local environment. From a Swedish

perspective, there is nothing controversial in that definition, neither is it representing a new perspective (Hedlund and Montin, 2009). Arts and Visseren-Hamakers (2012) define different conceptualizations of governance and conclude that governance can have different meanings: 'from steering in general to new modes of governance that go beyond the confines of the state, which can be multileveled in nature.' (p.6). Governance is a result of, among many things, the decentralization of administration and strengthened participation in planning processes focusing on the creation of networks. Governance is thereby included in the collaborative planning (see section 'Collaborative planning').

4.3.1 Landscape planners and place dependent knowledge

There are different ways of intervening with landscapes. We can observe, analyse, and suggest new models based on different concepts. Politicians can pass legislation and private landowners can change landscape maintenance in order to create changes in a landscape. We can take a spade and start to dig, and after some time we will achieve a different landscape. But landscapes can also be changed by changing local users' perceptions of what is already there. This can be done deliberately and slowly. There is a saying: 'You see what you know', which explains this well. To reflect in action, as brought in by Schön (1983), is an approach for planners to achieve such changes. Yet, if planners shall reflect while acting together with local citizens, they need generous and flexible working conditions as well as colleagues working with collaborative planning as a united front (Butler, 2016).

To involve local associations is one way of reaching citizens, and thereby also gathering place-dependent knowledge, in peri-urban landscapes. To involve people living and working in the landscape is the be-all and end-all of collaborative planning (Innes, 2016). Municipal planners have no possibility of reaching the embodied knowledge of land users, i.e. place and context-dependent knowledge, without involving them with an experience-based knowledge of this.

The effort of collaborative planning is, however, challenged by the New Public Management (NPM) regime as described by Jones and Stenseke (2011), with the trading of landscape values and maintenance based on economic agreements instead of local citizens wishes. NPM is a reform model that was adopted when politicians demanded smaller, cheaper and more effective governments (Kettl, 2006), privatizing responsibility for a number of public goods, whereby NPM's outsourcing led to result-oriented management and the public came to be considered

as customers. Kettle (2006) discusses the decline of public confidence in governmental institutions and performance, concluding that the global management revolution among other things means that 'management reform is not fundamentally about management, but because elected officials believe it will help them to achieve a broader goal' (ibid p. 67), for example to reduce taxes or increase services. NPM's purpose to 'work better and cost less' has been much debated as it may be strengthening the global standardisation rather than highlighting the value of particular places in the landscape (see e.g. Bretzer et al., 2016).

Scott (2011), a professor of environment and spatial planning, studied efforts of implementing the ELC in Scotland, including efforts toward strengthening public participation. One of his examples is a top-down initiated project in a peri-urban fringe area surrounded by problems of a social nature and landscape decline. Instead of using the networks of local associations, he recruited volunteers from within the disadvantaged community to anchor the project and involve even more stakeholders. They brought in local knowledge but also created a feeling of shared responsibility that was necessary for the project to move forward. Arguing that the 'landscape should not necessarily form an explicit part of any project; rather it should sit within a wider spatial planning approach which embraces inclusion, integration and scale dependencies' (ibid p. 2760), he proposes that landscape must be firmly embedded in spatial planning. Scott's description of the landscape's potential to be used as a foundation for planning could be complemented with a fresh and inclusive approach to consider local citizens as a part of the landscape and move from government to governance.

4.3.2 Sense of place

A sense of place is what characterizes a person's relationship with a particular area that they are familiar with, which is gained in turn through the *use* of the place and its resources (Relph, 1976; Soini et al., 2012). A sense of place is an embodied feeling and involves an understanding of what is right or wrong, nice or unpleasant, odd or common in the particular place. It is a personal feeling, but the knowledge is easy to communicate. For landscape planners as well as landscape managers, it is important to get acquainted with the sense of a place in order to develop it with respect and finesse. Tuan (1974) describes sense of place as a way of getting closer to an area and a way of showing respect and understanding to people as well as their places. The sense of place, as described by Tuan, is hard to reach in current landscape planning; as Relph (1976)

points out, it is backward to plan places without considering the future residents. However, there are great potentials in introducing new methods for landscape planners/managers with a strengthened focus on peoples' relationships to their landscapes.

4.3.3 Planning for governance

The definition of landscape planning in this thesis enhances governance, while current landscape planning practices have not reached the same level of inclusivity. Government has been described as incorporating a clear division of boundaries and responsibilities both within the public sector as well as between the public and the private sectors (Sehested, 2004). Thus, elected politicians make the political decisions without actively involving the citizens in policy-making processes. Governance, on the other hand, is basically about 'people and their relations in the process of decision-making', as described by Smith et al. (2014, p.52), and strict governance has been described as a multi-centred political system where public and private actors cooperate without any clear hierarchy between the actors. An important underlying idea is that nobody has all the knowledge and answers to solve a collective problem, and by that the actors are interdependent (Sehested, 2004). According to Arts & Visseren-Hamakers (2012), a broad definition of governance is 'the many ways in which public and private actors from the state, market and/or civil society govern public issues at multiple scales, autonomously or in mutual interaction'. Arnouts et al. (2012), described governance as always including a network of actors and a pool of resources whose roles and relations define the outcome. Arts et al. (2006) described the policy arrangement model as a tetrahedron comprising various actors (public or private), resources (economic or knowledge), rules of the game (formal laws, regulations or relations), as well as the actual discourse, emphasizing the need to always look at the arrangements within the local context and in relation to a specific situation.

Thus, governance, and related public participation, is complex in changing landscapes. The struggle is not only reaching local knowledge but also engaging citizens and finding solutions that the individual planner would not have found alone. The Swedish peri-urban context described above fits within several forms of governance as explained by Hagendijk and Irwin (2006), especially in terms of 'educational governance', which assumes a certain amount of public ignorance and thereby highlights the need to create an informed citizenry. The authors also mention the endeavour toward reaching 'deliberative governance' as

important, relying on the assumption that open debate and engagement can create a satisfactory foundation in decision-making (ibid p.172).

In the Swedish peri-urban landscape, the economic profit from agricultural land-based industry is too low and the land is often no longer cultivated, as arable fields and grazing fields become overgrown, changing not only the aesthetics but also the access to the landscape (Gustavsson and Ingelög, 1994; Primdahl and Kristensen, 2011). In Sweden, the municipalities are responsible for land use planning, but only regarding public land. In urban areas, this means that the municipality is in control of most planning of public spaces while it is more complicated to ensure the land use planning aims regarding peri-urban and rural areas due to the prevalence of private ownership of recreation areas, forests, and bathing sites (see Fig. 2). To bridge the gap between peri-urban (private) and urban landscape planning and management requires collaboration between the municipality and peri-urban citizens (Mellqvist et al., 2016; Pinto-Correia et al., 2006), and long term planning has for a long time highlighted the importance of citizen participation as a means to achieve long-term sustainable solutions, with stakeholders represented in different governance arrangements (Connolly et al., 2014). One way of solving this is to move from government to governance and to introduce collaborative planning methods into the governance system (Innes and Booher, 2003). Almost all local planning responsibility in Sweden today lies with local government.

Hagendijk and Irwin (2006) discuss the various possibilities of European countries to enhance public deliberation, which to some extent implies a certain loss of control of the process. But, they continue, this loss is ‘not only to governments, but also to NGOs, which may find it hard to combine support for deliberations with their own agendas’ (ibid p.183). Extending public participation generates problematic issues for all participants, which is why strong political support is needed (Loftus, 2015; Tahvilzadeh, 2015). Molin et al. (2015) described how public authorities are influenced by new forms of governance based on citizen involvement, integrating new knowledge and co-creating other values than those that are traditionally offered by public authorities. The European-based research project ‘Green Surge’ suggested that planning practices across Europe are developing towards more flexible and networked governance approaches, and are increasingly set as examples of effective self-governance (Buijs et al., 2016). However, public participation is still not the norm (Molin and Konijnendijk van den Bosch, 2014) and its effects have been insufficiently studied (Fors et al.,

2015). This alone may be an argument for looking into new approaches to landscape planning, including new forms of collaborative planning.

4.3.4 Municipal planning and democracy

It is not only up to the individual planner to decide whether a participatory planning process should aim to 'inform' or 'delegate power' (an example referring to Arnstein's ladder of participation, Fig. 4). Participation is always connected to democracy and justice in some way, and the lowest level of participation is regulated on the national level in the Planning and Building Act (Riksdag, 1987). The Swedish municipalities are responsible for land use planning and are therefore involved in all projects of strategic landscape planning, i.e. in master plans (ibid.). They are often operatively responsible for running and implementing planning projects. The municipal council is the municipality's highest decision-making body, representing citizens in the municipality and taking decisions on the municipality's most important issues. The Swedish system of representative democracy gives the municipal council the power to decide upon how the municipal work is organized in departments, and the municipal employee is bound to fulfil instructions from the elected political representatives. This is relevant as the individual planner is thereby often bound to do things in a certain way, until the politicians change their opinions and give directions for a different development. The planner can of course affect politicians, and the research in this thesis explores how a third part, presented in the actor model in Fig. 5, can also work as a mediator and achieve changes of this kind.

An individual citizen's knowledge of the system and the ability to affect it is different in different contexts, whether it is regions or villages (Henecke and Khan, 2002). Bomble (2016) studied two municipalities in Sweden and their efforts to work with participatory planning. She noticed how citizens communicated with the municipality as if it were one specific person, while the municipal organisation actually comprises multiple actors, including official planners and politicians, a complexity of different offices, and sectors with different aims and objectives. This organisation creates gaps in the communication between citizens and decision makers (Henecke and Khan, 2002; Pinto-Correia et al., 2006). Calls for increased public participation as well as a broader participation within the municipality offer opportunities for bridging these gaps.

These gaps are mentioned by Arler (2008), who discusses democracy from three different sets of values: self-determination, codetermination,

and respect for argument. These three sets of values are complementary even though respect for argument and deliberation is recommended in relation to 'sense of place' and landscape planning, but it is always complemented with, for example, codetermination as deliberative processes do not always end up reaching consensus (Arler and Mellqvist, 2015)

Governance can be problematic in relation to a representative democracy, since politics here are formulated outside the direct control of authorities (Hedlund and Montin, 2009). The form of governance experienced in Sweden pushes operating responsibility to the lower levels of government, the region or municipality, and according to Kettle (2006), it will most likely 'devolve yet more policymaking and management responsibility to lower levels of governance'. The Swedish peri-urban context is special when seen from a landscape development perspective, as lack of green space is rarely an issue here—and Sweden has its right of public access. Castell's (2010) study on involving tenants in open space management in Sweden pinpoints how the typical issues are rather about how to engage stakeholders in the work. Parallel to this, Castell describes how arguments for participation are often underpinned by a spirit of cooperation and mutual interest, and not by conflicts. Contrary to Baily and Pill's (2015) critique of a top-down initiated participatory planning process to empower local society, Castell claims that in this Swedish context the bigger organisations were the most successful in including tenants. This has probably happened because big organisations in Sweden are used to working with social commitments in their commission and were trusted by the inhabitants (Castell, 2010).

In the context of north European peri-urban governance, governance by government appears to be the model that should work best. One reason for this is that public participation is actually a part of the law, and additionally the Swedish landscape is not currently facing any catastrophes or massive changes. Governance without government would require that a very strong sense of devotion and conviction be shared among the participants (see eighth rung in Arnstein's ladder of participation Fig. 4).

Pedagogic and landscape architecture working methods are strongly connected to collaborative planning, even though this connection is a vulnerable one. Professional planners need a certain amount of free space and trust in order to bring in people and colleagues during the analysis phase. Linking government to governance embraces, according to Kettle (2006), is to link the collection of institutions that act with authority with

a set of processes and institutions, through which social action occurs. The organised groups and local associations are therefore important partners for the professional planners of peri-urban landscapes. European rural policies build on local groups and voluntary associations are at the heart for local development in the Swedish rural strategy 2014-2020 (Arora-Jonsson, 2017) where both rural and peri-urban landscapes are treated. Active associations can create effective arenas for meetings, which are missing from many peri-urban landscapes in Sweden today and are difficult for official planners to create (Ostrom, 1990; von Essen, 2010). Governance by government requires that the government is centrally involved in five key tasks, as identified by Kettle (2006, p.71-72): managing basic functions (common defence, foreign policy, etc.); redistributing income; gathering data and promoting information-based linkages (in order to make the information age work); building bridges (new, close relationships among different government bureaucracies and between government and civil society are needed); and finally thinking strategically (to cope with everything from workforce planning to next-generation technology).

4.3.5 Wrapping up...

The official planning system in Sweden tends to work well. Organised association activities have long traditions in Sweden and are still strong, even though the degree of involvement has risen and fallen over the years. Municipalities have established a practice of working in dialogue with the citizens: this practice remains unthreatened, because it is statutory. However, NPM combined with changed ownership structure and the standardized management of peri-urban landscapes are changing aesthetic and ecologic values as well as access and the multifunctional use of many parts. Voices calling for governance with stronger social inclusion are heard in relation to peri-urban landscapes. The municipalities are used to cooperating with the established associations and organisations in mandatory consultations, but rarely more than that, likely due to the fact that official planners do not have the time to keep these contacts alive. This could be helped by introducing a third part into the planning process; however, first the awareness of the impact of different learning processes will be presented and discussed.

4.4 Collaborative planning

4.4.1 Participation in planning

In the 1960s, the need for public participation in planning was highlighted in Davidoff's critique of the planning policy as excluding the weaker groups in society, claiming that the planner should act as mediator in lifting groups that are seldom heard in the public debate (Davidoff, 1965). Davidoff called this *advocacy planning* and Brolund de Carvalho (2015) later described two examples of advocacy planning from America and Great Britain. Both examples involve NGOs with architects, planners, and urban developers working as mediators in areas lacking financial muscle and initiatives. Brolund de Carvalho compared her findings with the Swedish context, showing how the tradition of charity and volunteering is weaker in Sweden than in the US and the UK, in part due to the fact that Swedish public authorities previously represented basic safety, protection, and equality (folkhemmet=the Swedish welfare state). However, this has changed over the last decades, as Sweden's strong popular movements were partly sacrificed for the sake of the Swedish welfare state (Johansson and Khakee, 2009), with representative democracy growing stronger in the 1960s and '70s.

Calls for increased efficiency of the public sector opened the way for more business-oriented elements, where the citizens where treated as consumers or clients (ibid), as discussed previously for the case of NPM. Johansson and Kahkee (2009) describe this development and see how a fragmented participation in planning can be observed at the beginning of the 21st century. The authors are, however, certain that a more human-centred model for democracy is about to replace the collectivistic model. At the same time, deliberative democracy is promoted with a greater focus on the individual and less on the community. Davidoff's (1965) mediator returns in recent theories of collaborative planning and, for example, Brolund de Carvalho (2015) emphasizes how citizens need the architect's expertise in defending and creating public space and discusses where this meeting can take place. The mediator should also be a safeguard for participation not merely being about delegating all power to local communities (Jones, 2007) but to strive for public input leading to shared learning and the development of new knowledge (Healey, 1997). The third model in Fig. 3 shows how the university can step into the planning process and act as a mediator, assisting the municipal planner as well as supporting the local experts.

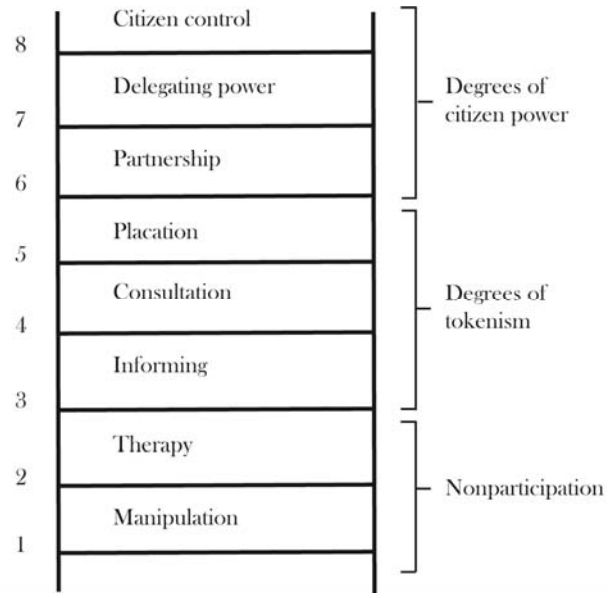


Figure 4. Arnstein's (1969) ladder of citizen participation, designed to visualize the significant gradations of citizen participation. Most planning programs have a level of participation from ladder rung five, and below. Actual power starts to be redistributed at rung six and this is where most collaborative planning processes in this thesis takes place.

Academics have the opportunity to act as mediators and to support the participatory aspect of the planning process, depending on the character of the project and on the individual researcher. Compared to more ethically complex issues like gene technology, extreme political or religious extremism, or research involving animal testing, landscape planning is rather uncontroversial. Nevertheless, it is of importance to all citizens as it concerns their everyday lives. In this context, academics are more 'neutral' and have a great potential to act as 'trust builders' in collaborative planning projects.

Sherry Arnstein's (1969) well-known ladder of participation (see Fig. 4) also emerged from a dissatisfaction with the powerlessness of have-nots in their own home environments. Provoked by the ways in which participation without a delegation of power made a mockery of the cornerstone of democracy, Arnstein formulated and designed a model for 'participation of the governed in their government' (Arnstein, 1969, p.216). The model is a ladder with eight levels of participation and corresponding levels of influence and delegation of power. This ladder of participation has been popular over the years and is still highly relevant, appreciated and used in official planning by NGOs and in Sweden by the

Swedish Association of Local Authorities and Regions (2009). Fors et al. (2015) discussed the unclear focus on concrete output in participatory planning processes and questioned whether the outcome of participatory process is an improvement, for example, for a park or just for the benefit of the people involved. The process-focused working methods used in collaborative planning are just as multi-layered as the concept of collaborative planning itself; a mix of planning, management and governance.

4.4.2 Social glue

It is relevant to question whether 'everybody' needs to participate in participatory landscape planning. Reasons for participating vary but it has been stated that the feeling of being a part of a local society is important (Forsberg, 2010; Putnam, 1995). While people's relationships to their everyday landscape and to their neighbours in peri-urban landscapes has changed (Soini et al., 2012), it has in some cases resulted in an increased alienation between people and their home landscape (Palang et al., 2006).

There are several factors influencing whether we can expect and hope for an engaged participation from a local society or not. Khakee (2006) distinguishes between the participation of the individual citizen and local associations/popular movements, whereby he considers the latter to be more specialized and capable of bringing relevant information into the planning process. Robert Putnam, the American political scientist, has investigated the importance of social capital in a well-functioning democracy, stating that 'the big' democracy depends on 'the smaller' democracies (1995; Putnam et al., 1993). According to him, people participating in local (he calls them 'civic') associations develop the skill to navigate in the bigger political system as well as a trust in other citizens' ability to do the same. A democracy works thereby better when many citizens are organised in associations (Putnam et al., 1993).

Putnam has been criticised by, for example, Sidney Tarrow (1996), professor in governance, for attacking 'the symptoms and not the causes of the problem' (ibid p.396). Tarrow claims that the problem might be civic but the causes are structural. Nevertheless it is certainly appropriate to bring his reasoning into this study's peri-urban context, where civic relationships connected to land use appear to be changing (Soini et al., 2012).

Landscape planners (or similar) working like Putnam's bridge builders (1993) or Davidoff's mediators (1965), with the humble attitude that landscape planning is about giving and taking, questioning and

understanding, would serve as ideal project leaders for approaching what Dewey called 'the wanted society' (1997). To introduce Arnstein's eighth rung of 'citizen control' (see Fig.4) would be problematic, as it would imply the exclusion of the professional planner from contributing with their knowledge. Shared learning processes on a strategic level (like in this study) should strive to build a deepened base of knowledge with participating local actors as well as with planners and other officials. This should serve both planners and locals in training their intuition in new situations (see Table 1, Flyvbjerg, 2001).

4.4.3 Trust

Collaborative planning is built on voluntary participation. Strong social welfare has been proposed as one reason for not participating, but further impetus for reaching participation in landscape planning is *trust*. Putnam et al. (1993) describe how participation in organizations creates social capital, meaning that relations between citizens meeting in organizations can be built on trust. People want to collaborate with their neighbour if they trust that the neighbour shares the desire to collaborate, and the solidarity evolved in organised local associations by sharing facilitates a development of trust (Ostrom, 1990). Citizens must have faith in each other in order to initiate collaborations, as a well-functioning democracy is built on a well-developed citizenship (Putnam et al., 1993). Participation creates meaning and a feeling of belonging for the participants. Putnam (1993, p.223) also states that it is not easy to rebuild social capital, but it is the key to creating more engaged citizens and therefore a more well-functioning democracy. This trust is slightly different from the trust discussed by Flyvbjerg. His study focuses on trust between planners and citizens (Flyvbjerg, 1998; 2001), while Putnam looked at the interplay between citizens in different structural settings. However, both perspectives of trust are relevant in strategic as well as tactical landscape planning (Randrup and Persson, 2009).

Elinor Ostrom's (American political economist) keyword for the successful use and management of our commons, public spaces and (thanks to the right of public access) large parts of our landscape in Sweden, is in line with the thinking behind Flyvbjerg and Putnam's idea of *trust* (1990). Different forms of partnership appear to be a good way of working together, taking several actors' aspects into account—but not all. If the shared learning process is to work effectively, the trust must be solid between the participants. Responsible planners must be given space

to work with different ways of giving participating local actors' feedback and sharing results with them.

Putnam's social capital builds on mutual trust between citizens and the numerous and effective arenas for voluntary work supported by the networks within local societies: sport clubs, choirs, political parties, and the like (Putnam et al., 1993). Öresjö (2000) describes how Putnam's social capital grows when we use it but diminishes when it remains unused. When people join voluntary organizations, mutual trust emerges. While the importance of social networks appears to be slightly neglected in modern landscape planning, it also appears worthwhile to implement them in peri-urban landscape planning (Henecke and Khan, 2002). Putnam brings up a parallel phenomenon in the article 'To bowl alone,' namely the fact that more and more Americans choose to bowl alone is described as a sign of a society where citizens increasingly mistrust their neighbours (Putnam, 1995). When this occurs we slowly loose the social capital that is actually the task of a functioning democracy. Öresjö (2000) describes this as when people stop building bridges, the social capital is undermined. The emerging lack of trust causes the social trap to snap. These effective arenas Putnam mentions about is a huge topic and of great interest to Ostrom (1990) when discussing 'local arenas'.

4.4.4 When trust is lacking

In situations where there is no formal communication between authorities and the local community, it can be desirable for professional landscape planners to create local networks and initiate associations. This is a tricky task requiring courage, sincere engagement, and patience on behalf of the planners. Inspiration from AR (Kolb, 1984), which aims to perform learning by doing whereby gained knowledge should be used to improve the situation (Reason and Bradbury, 2001) and could work as a good foundation. To actively get engaged is not only a way of developing mutual trust in a local society but also to strengthen a feeling of meaning for local citizens. If officials from the municipality could create Ostrom's local arena (Ostrom, 1990) by setting up conditions for local associations or others for meetings and putting time and energy into nourishing their personal relationships with the citizens, both Putnam and Flyvbjerg's visions of trust should be realizable.

4.4.5 The commons' dilemma – democracy, politics and rhetoric

Few peri-urban landscapes in Sweden suffer from consequences as described by Hardin in his much discussed 'Tragedy of the Commons'

(1969). He describes how people's selfish interests tend to destroy and overuse the shared resources upon which they are dependent. Today, the context of Swedish landscape planners is rather the opposite, with an increasing non-use and abundance of land. Crop fields still tend to be cultivated, while grazing fields are becoming abandoned even though farming conditions in Sweden vary considerably according to the different regions (Wretenberg et al., 2006). Remarkable changes in landscape features are the loss of details; stone walls, glades, landmarks, groves, creeks as well as abandoned farm buildings, mills and the like (Gustavsson and Ingelög, 1994; Mellqvist, 2005). However, Ostrom's (1990) concept of common pool resources (CPR) for shared responsibility and for shared profit is still useful (Mellqvist and Gustavsson, 2014).

Abandoned land in Sweden is often privately owned but the Right of Public access turn the peri-urban landscape into everybody's concern. One of Ostrom's suggestions is to bring in people living and working in the landscape, assuring that there is collaboration between different layers where decisions on people's landscape are taken. This would be the achievement of rung six in Arnstein's (1969) 'ladder of participation' (see Fig. 4), where power is redistributed between citizens and 'powerholders.' Ostrom (1990) claims that we need to work with local democracy in order to achieve a sustainable use of CPR. Her research shows that a functioning local democracy is the key to a sustainable, long-term solution for governing a collective resource, in this example the peri-urban landscape. With 70% of Swedes involved in non-profit associations (25% deeply involved and 25% not at all) (von Essen, 2010), associations appear to constitute the social glue needed for local democracy in Sweden. Ostrom makes a series of contextual considerations in relation to 'endogenous collective action' (2014, p.236). The following seem to have particular value in relation to this thesis:

- the heterogeneity of the group participating,
- the dependence of the group on the good,
- the common understanding of the group,
- the size of the total collective benefit,
- the marginal contribution by one person to the collective good,
- the loss to co-operators when others do not co-operate,
- having a choice of playing or not,
- the presence of leadership,
- past experience and level of social capital, and

- a wide diversity of rules that are used to change the structure of the situation.

(Ostrom, 2014).

4.5 Local knowledge and learning processes

Collaborative planning depends on a conscious and humble interest for both the learning processes and the network of actors. Knowledge is a keyword and it is place-based knowledge that is in focus. This is why this research is built around case studies and why qualitative methods have been used to collect information. Based in the tradition of landscape architecture that I belong to, I look specifically for knowledge for practical use.

John Dewey (1997) investigated conditions for education in a modern and increasingly liberal industrial society of the 1900s. He claimed that the democratic task of education consists of a comprehensive view of a person. This holistic view is in many ways shared by Bent Flyvbjerg (2001), an economic geographer and planner who was, especially in his early work, passionate about learning processes and case studies as a learning method.

Dewey (1997) presents two perspectives on society: that of a non-wanted society, and a wanted one. While the non-wanted society limits free choice of social relations and experiences, the wanted society implies equally distributed benefits to secure a flexible adaptation of the different institutions in society. If we aim for the wanted society, we must all continuously develop our knowledge through learning processes in communication with each other and with our society.

Flyvbjerg has inspired the research design of this thesis with his use of the Aristotelian term ‘phronesis’ as tactical knowledge, i.e. as embodied knowledge we reach by personal experience, guided by the situation and carried forward by action (Flyvbjerg, 2001). During this research, time is spent reflecting on how we can reach new knowledge connected to the development of the landscape in concern, often peripheral from the perspective of politicians, but cherished by many. Phronesis is elaborated in this study to emphasize the need for new groups of experts as highly relevant to all landscape planners when they build up their common references by sharing experiences with colleagues and with local actors.

Learning by doing in this broad planning perspective approaches 'learning by doers'.

Flyvbjerg started a battle against the scientific expectations of how to design social science research. The battle began with his PhD thesis (1998) and continued inter alia in his book 'Making social science matter' (2001). The discussion focuses on the importance of context in landscape research as well as in social science. Flyvbjerg claims that context is more complex in social science than in natural science and for that reason the formulation of universal laws is not as relevant in social sciences as in natural sciences. Using the Dreyfus brothers' (Schimank and Winnes, 2000) model of learning from the 1970s, Flyvbjerg (2001) shows how we move from being a novice to an expert in five levels of awareness raising (see Table 1). Dreyfus and Dreyfus's model of skill acquisition is based on situated performance and experiential learning (Benner, 2004). Flyvbjerg argues that this journey is not only a matter of 'knowing more' but marks a fundamental change in how you perceive the world, how you approach problem solving, and how you acquire new skills. Around a decade before Flyvbjerg's thesis, Donald Schön (1983) formulated his theories on the reflective practitioner ('reflect in action'), focusing on the teacher-student situation to a greater extent than Flyvbjerg. 'Reflect in action' was distinguished from 'reflect on action', whereby the latter is the most common with different forms of evaluation, and the first to require a presence and awareness from the researcher/planner to observe themselves. This study has benefited from both perspectives. The combination of methods used offered a possibility to focus both the professional landscape planner and the landscape planner's education in cooperation with professionals as well as the local society (Mellqvist and Gustavsson, 2014). Flyvbjerg (2006) also concludes during his own training that if he wanted to be an efficient teacher and truly help his students, he must learn to master the case study methodology in his teaching.

Table 1. *The Dreyfus and Dreyfus Model. (Flyvbjerg, 2001, p.10-22).*

Novice. Schoolbook learning. Knowledge you gain from learning by heart, e.g. from a book.
Advanced beginner. School desk learning. Knowledge that you by your own experience have tried and learned to identify.
Competent performer. Learning that involves experience and participation, the competent performer has to interpret and judge the meaning of actions in order to build up a plan with defined goals.
Proficient performer. The proficient performer is deeply involved, continually interpreting on the basis of prior experiences. Intuitive choices are made.
Expert. Experts' behaviour is intuitive; their decisions are made in one instant and are not divided into phases. It is an 'effortless performance' made possible through personal experience.

4.5.1 Learning by doers – the interplay of involved actors in collaborative planning

Flyvbjerg (1998; 2001) also influenced the chosen research method, because of his descriptions of the benefits of in-depth, long-term case studies in his earlier work. What can be gained is a depth of understanding toward being able to predict things as intuition is developed (at least the competent or proficient performer in Table 1), as well as an insightful process wherein the researcher acts as both insider and outsider. It thus embodies a conscious method through which the researchers build trust through a persistent presence and a demonstrated interest in local activities. This trust requires attentive maintenance, but it also helps to open doors toward a fruitful communication between the local community and, for example, municipal institutions and officials. Flyvbjerg (2011, p.303) describes the value of case studies as follows: 'Final proof is hard to come by in social science because of the absence of 'hard' theory, whereas learning is certainly possible.' Learning is a key word in partnership projects like the ones studied in this thesis. Learning can hopefully result in knowledge generation and awareness raising, and adult education on how dialogue planning could benefit from collaboration with, for example, a university (Utbildningsradion, 2003).

Zygmunt Bauman describes how the ancient philosophers had great moral courage. They took risks with their writing and understood that writing was something beyond simply the learning of something. It

requires time to think. Today, we are speed addicts and are always in a hurry (Bauman, cited in (Utbildningsradion, 2003). To learn by doers can be seen as a humble way of climbing the Dreyfus and Dreyfus model of learning (see Table 1)—that is, with the help of others. It is also a reason for the introduction of new and different forms of participation in landscape planning. The question is, who is climbing the ladder of participation or the model of learning? It must be determined who is learning from whom.

Municipal landscape planners cannot be expected to participate in everything everywhere, but we can expect them to be aware of the power of people's embodied knowledge as a necessary source of information. Thereby they can be aware of the importance of creating a well-developed web of contacts. Through an active 'learning by doers' perspective, municipal planners can learn and understand things from a complex system of landscapes, and they can gain insight into how other actors live things by seeing connections between happenings and different physical features in the landscape.

4.5.2 A proposed planning model

In the introduction part, it was explained how this study focuses on local associations and grassroots organizations. The following model was introduced in Fig. 3 and is used as a support to situate the connoisseurs within a flow of information but also within the frames of structure relevant for peri-urban landscape planning. The local government and the local society are two obvious components. The university is introduced as a third part in the collaborative planning process, in the shape of a group of experts contributing expertise that might not be site specific, as is that of the connoisseurs, nor anchored within the local society, but rather with experience and knowledge surrounding landscapes, communication processes, and subject specific questions. Further, university representatives have the power to enter processes as universities are cradles and engines for producing and accumulating knowledge, but lack the actual power to effect immediate changes in peoples' lives. In dialogue processes, governments are automatically granted special status as they have the power to decide, to give and to take away subsidies, to support local projects of development – or not. In a collaborative process, they are therefore superior. The local society lies in the opposite position, once the decisions have been made. Academia has a chance to avoid this and to bypass Flyvbjerg's (2001) critique of the academics, introducing a

different learning situation for the students by introducing partnerships. Universities can also take on the role of mediator (Davidoff, 1965) or assist in identifying and supporting other mediators. Fig. 5 illustrates the flow of communication between the actors involved.

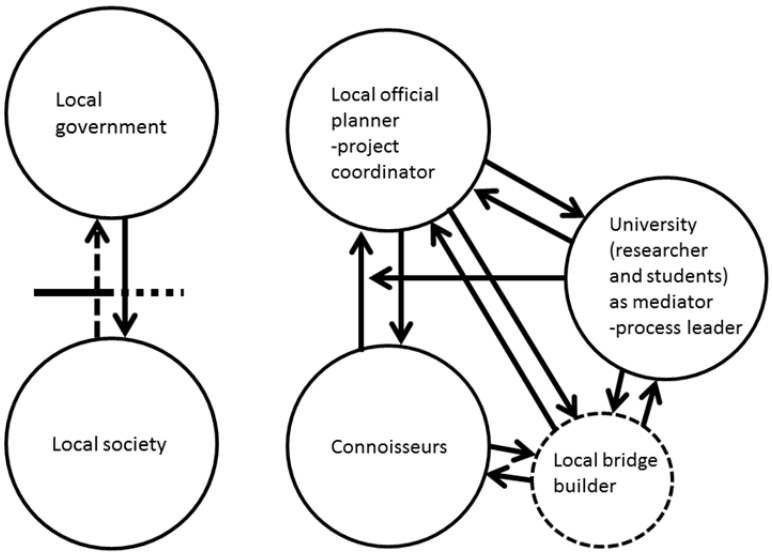


Figure 5. On the left; communication barriers illustrate emerging problems. The planning and management model tends to revert back to the top-down approach in Fig. 3. To eliminate the barrier and reach a circled flow of information between established decision makers and the local society, the university can assist. The non-experts' embodied knowledge is considered important and the (previous) non-experts are thereby counted as a new group of experts in collaborative planning; *the connoisseurs*. Once this exchange between experts is acknowledged, the model on the right can be created and the last learning process is easier to grasp, introducing the outsider to contribute with knowledge of their domain together with the two other groups of experts: the local experts and the local planners. The small dotted circle represents the potential mediator between the local society and the university. The local official planner is project coordinator, being responsible for the actual project, while the researcher act process leader.

5 Method and working process

> 'Learning is a process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience' (Kolb, 1984, p.38).

This section is introduced with a description of the methodological approaches used to develop an inclusive method toward long-term collaborative landscape planning, the 'connoisseur method'. The working process is described through its main parts, including an overview of the main qualitative methods used to build up the tests. Finally, the six cases are presented, including the participating connoisseurs. The cases reveal how the connoisseur approach is tested and refined in different contexts and developed into a flexible and context related method. The cases show how the method has developed over time and its parts are tested in different forms in the cases (see Fig.1. and Fig. 6).

5.1 Methodological approach

5.1.1 Qualitative research

The working process in this thesis is explorative, anchored in an action-oriented approach with contextualized knowledge as the point of departure, trying to understand processes of landscape planning from the viewpoints of the key stakeholders; namely local experts and municipal planners, each within their contexts. Deeper understanding for these processes is developed in case studies where the researchers' pre-understanding is tested and refined together with local associations (local society) and local authorities. All cases are based on collaborative processes within varying stages of the actual municipal planning phase. Some cases were used to observe/follow (based on the hermeneutic circle shown in Fig 7.), while others have contributed alongside actual planning projects to test and refine the involvement methods. The variety of the six

cases show how the research questions, theoretical frameworks, methods and goals have been woven together in order to form a web of cases, based on the hermeneutic circle, with the researcher turning back and modifying one part when necessitated by the results in another part. Thus, the research design follows a process-oriented model.

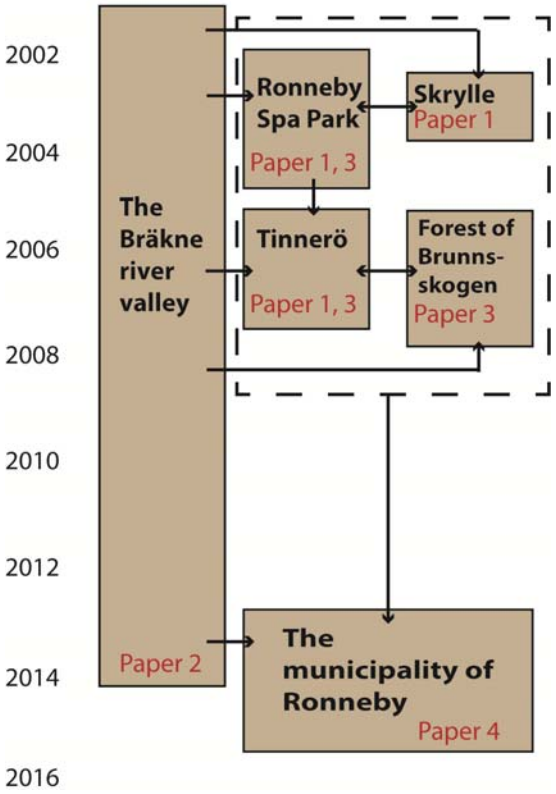


Figure 6. Overview of the research process, showing which case studies have contributed to the four publications included in this thesis. The locations of the six cases (the six grey boxes) locations on the timeline illustrate how the Bräkne river valley has been running (more or less actively) during the entire research process. The four cases circled by a dashed line were shorter tests of different aspects of the connoisseur method. All papers touch upon the Bräkne river valley case, thus illustrating how this case has influenced the research design and the development of the method as such. The municipality-wide case in Ronneby was the first full-scale test of the method.

5.1.2 Hermeneutics

Hermeneutics is about interpretation and the hermeneutic researcher learns to understand the world through texts or by the spoken word as perceived and understood by the researcher through her own pre-understanding. Thus, Patel and Davidson (2011) describe hermeneutics to be the exact opposite of positivism. They describe the modern hermeneutic to include the interpretation of human actions and signs of human life just as solely written texts were previously emphasized. The context-dependent studies in this thesis benefit from stressing how 'prior understanding and prejudices shape the interpretive process' (Denzin and Lincoln, 2011, p.16), interpreting narratives from local experts but also texts and maps.

It is only possible to understand the meaning of a smaller part if you are analysing the process as a whole, and the whole can only be understood through the analysis of the smaller parts. A meaning is a meaning for someone, and is to be interpreted relatively (Fay, 1996; Schmidt, 2006). This so-called hermeneutic spiral (in form of a circle, see Fig. 7) is relevant in this project as focus is diverted from the physical site to the planning context and back to the site again, and so on. Meaning arises out of the relationship between an action and the interpreter trying to understand it (Fay, 1996). The hermeneutic approach has worked as a foundation and support, as user participation and interpretation have been dependent on each other throughout this project.

5.1.3 Case studies

The empirical material has been collected in a multiple-case study (Lewis-Beck, 2004) with six cases. The case study approach has been the main overall method, with participation being the guiding star. To use case studies as a research method allows for working with complex research questions with an open and curious mind (Flyvbjerg, 2001; Johansson, 2004). The cases were initially used to discover how a bottom-up engagement could be initiated, but evolved to be more about enlightening possibilities and constraints in inviting connoisseurs to participate in landscape planning. All cases are situated in peri-urban landscapes on different scales. In the initial phase (2004–2013), five study areas were involved; in 2014 the latest case study area emerged and was included in the study, namely the entire municipality of Ronneby, which acted as a full-scale trial, using and testing the newly developed connoisseur approach to actually develop a green structure plan.

Stake's (2003) definition of a case study focuses on the object of study, not the methods used (in contrast to, e.g., the approach of Yin (2013)). From a case-perspective, the present study is inspired by Flyvbjerg (2001), who in turn based himself on Stake's place-oriented use of case studies (Johansson, 2005). People living, travelling or working in a landscape is what creates a place (Relph, 1976). To be considered 'a place' is what brings out the values in a landscape. Abandoned and ignored areas lose their title of place, even though the label of 'place' can be regained with changed character and use.

Flyvbjerg is more known for his elaborate working process and how he communicates it (Flyvbjerg, 1998) than the actual results of his studies (Bomble, 2016). The generalizability of the case studies is a central issue in Flyvbjerg's reasoning (2006). He states that generalization from one single case is possible, but that generalisations are overvalued as a source for scientific development while the power of the example is underestimated. To collect examples has been necessary in the process of developing, testing and refining the connoisseur method in different planning contexts.

Selection of case areas

The six cases represent six processes of landscape development on different levels, at six different geographical locations, whereby four are in the same municipality (see Fig.8). They all contribute to an exploration of people's relationships with their everyday landscape and of how these relationships are taken into consideration in municipal planning and the management of this landscape. The six areas are considered to be places, illuminating the importance of people acting and living in the landscape.

The selection of cases was based on a desire to dive into different processes of landscape development and try to detect what the use of dialogue looked like and how it worked as well as to reflect upon differences and similarities (Flyvbjerg, 2001). The six cases are all situated in peri-urban settings with different densities of interest groups claiming their right to the land in question. All of these have a strong connection to nature reserves, something which is interesting in a time when there are 4,400 nature reserves in Sweden and new nature reserves inaugurated at regular intervals (Naturvårdsverket, 2006, 2016). In 2015, protected land increased by more than 31,000 hectares, including nature reserves and Natura 2000 sites (SCB and Swedish Environmental Protection Agency, 2016). Other important factors in selecting cases were geographic location (peri-urban, recreation area or green space in need of

an improved management strategy) and were, above all, ongoing projects of landscape planning on the political agenda.

Except for the case in the Bräkne river valley and Tinnerö, all cases followed a prior existing collaboration between *the research team*, composed of my colleague Roland Gustavsson and myself, and the selected municipalities. The advantage with established contacts connects to the intention of the thesis, to develop and test methods in order to ensure that the interests of different actors are taken into consideration in long-term landscape planning. When working with dialogue planning and participation it is important to be aware of how participants are contacted and invited, as it takes time to establish contacts and gain people's acceptance and confidence (Flyvbjerg, 2001).

5.1.4 Researching by doing

The present study deals with planning processes running through a longer period of time, seen in opposition to temporary activities or happenings. The long-term perspective was important in order to investigate how official planners could attract and maintain people's engagement in 'everyday planning.' AR has inspired the approach (Reason and Bradbury, 2001) and ethnographic methods (Hammersley and Atkinson, 1995), such as participatory observations, interviews and walk-and-talk interviews, were used in combination with 'traditional' landscape architecture methods, including excursions (ECLAS, 2010; Gehl, 2011; Lynch, 1964; Van Manen, 1990) and the use of reference landscapes (ECLAS, 2010; Gustavsson, 1997; Gustavsson et al., 2005). My research partner Gustavsson has been more deeply involved in AR, acting as a driving force in projects, while I have taken part in participatory observations.

Ethnography describes the entire environment that influences human behaviour, thus making it possible to reach integrated answers to fundamental questions with regard to usage, preferences, attitudes and motives, and all underlying factors (Hammersley and Atkinson, 1995). Ethnography was important in the initial phase of the research design. Brulin (2001) explains how 'Action research does not only describe, understand, and explain, it also creates knowledge through direct participation in different development processes.' (ibid p. 440). The strength of AR in this study is to bring in practical knowledge about

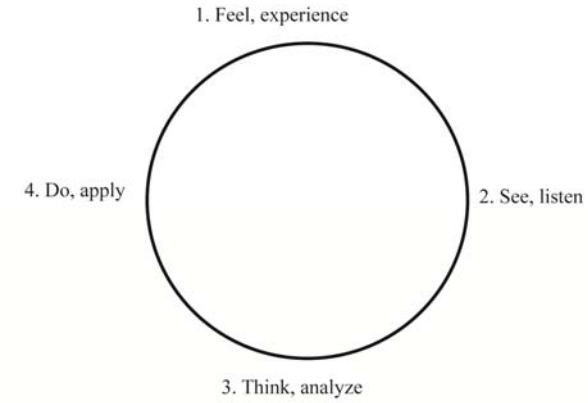


Figure 7. Kolb's learning cycle combining Lewin's experiential learning model and Dewey's more explicit developmental model of the learning process (Kolb, 1984). Bradbury (2016) argues that the model is overused, but it clearly illustrates the action-oriented approach.

development processes into the fields of academic knowledge as well as into current planning practice.

AR's pragmatic and democratic character is described by Levin and Greenwood (2011), who state that 'reflection proceeds from acting in a real context, reflecting on the results, and then acting again. This is necessarily a group process involving diverse stakeholders with different experiences and knowledge of the problems at hand.' (ibid p. 29). Fig 7. illustrates Kolb's (1984) experimental learning cycle inspired by Lewin and Dewey (Kolb, 1984). It reflects the thoughts of Levin and Greenwood (2011), emphasising experience as the source of learning and development. Participatory methods are in this study designed to give room for participants to see the unexpected.

Shared actions like excursions and lectures are part of classic 'learning by doing' actions, where teacher and student act together and learn from reflecting on the shared experience (Dewey, 1997); related to these approaches, in this thesis this is denoted as '*learning by doers*'.

5.2 Working methods

Several process-oriented working methods made up the participatory processes tested and analysed in the six cases. A range of methods was used to strengthen the dialogue between the connoisseurs and to determine their relationship to and understanding of the landscape: walk-and-talk interviews, social mapping, field trips/excursions, organized courses, collage design and interviews. The 'case descriptions' will clarify how the research team acted to collect and analyse information.

5.2.1 Walk-and-talk and 'traditional' interviews

To walk whilst talking has been used to find deeper dimensions in a conversation since Aristotle, whose style of lecturing was to walk around with the students (called the peripatetic school (Nationalencyklopedin, 2017)). Aristotle's peripatetic school of thought has influenced the working process and all six cases were designed to start outside with excursions or walk-and-talk interviews. Landscape researchers, especially geographers and anthropologists (Carpiano, 2009; Kusenbach, 2003; Kylin, 2004) have used walking and talking to let the landscape influence the dialogues. During the walk with the connoisseurs, attention is turned toward them but also to the landscape that we pass through. Walkabouts, walk-alongs and walk whilst talking have been designed to collect information on particular questions on development. Walking brings out stories and reflections on details that might not have been brought up otherwise, it has been said to be 'in the topic' (Skår, 2010). Foster (2000) stresses the importance of long walks as the dialogue shifts over time, from a formal, object-oriented one to one that has a more relaxed, association-rich and trustful atmosphere.

Walk-and-talk interviews as well as participation in meetings and fieldtrips together with connoisseurs are always based on communication. A walk through a local landscape should be designed to take enough time to cross an area and thereby allow for an informal, more intimate dialogue to develop. Dialogue is a keyword that needs to be taken seriously, claiming that a true dialogue only is possible if it takes place in a series of meetings.

Participation in projects that extend over time allow space to arrange meetings to give participants feedback as well as meetings with connoisseurs together with managers and administrators to pass on collected material to the next group (Mellqvist et al., 2013). Kvale and Brinkmann (2014) made a distinction between regular conversation and academic conversation, whereby the scientific interview relates to the academic conversation. The purpose of doing interviews has been to learn more about the connoisseurs' lives, opinions and how this information could be translated into planning situations. The interviews are an important tool in evaluating the connoisseur approach and determining what it contributed, for the local connoisseur as well as for the official planners. In the case of the BRV and the municipality of Ronneby, the interviews or the academic conversations were made both with a single person or groups of connoisseurs. The interviews had little pre-set structure and were normally opened with a question like 'how is your

project going right now' (Kvale and Brinkmann, 2014) to build up my understanding. It was a way to systematically collect relevant information, but also to allow individual viewpoints to develop according to individual interests.

5.2.2 Social mapping and collages

Social mapping in this thesis includes the use of printed maps with local connoisseurs marking them with comments and notes (Jung Wu and Isaksson, 2008), aiming at understanding a place through the eyes of the people using it (Stephenson, 2007). The connoisseurs' mapping was a continuation of the walk-and-talk interviews in Ronneby Spa Park and in Tinnerö. In both cases, the connoisseurs received a map of each recreation area (Ronneby Spa Park and Tinnerö Oak landscape) after the finalized walk-and-talk interview to fill in at home and to send to the process leader. They were asked to mark favourite places, paths and areas as well as more problematic features. Fig. 2 in Paper I, illustrates the result of social mapping in Ronneby Spa Park.

The purpose of social mapping has been twofold. During the walk-and-talks, a process of reflection started with the participants. This process is later picked up and the social mapping is to be seen as a continuation of the thoughts and ideas that came up during the walk-and-talk encounters (Højring et al., 2005).

In the Ronneby Green Structure project, the social mapping was included as part of the follow-up meetings guided by the process leader ('the steering committee', see case description). Unlike Tinnerö and Ronneby Spa Park, it turned into a creative working meeting as it was a shared process aiming for mutual understanding and formulating visionary proposals.

Collages were used in Ronneby Spa Park to illustrate the different personalities that the participating connoisseurs represented. The collages were built up by cutting and pasting, drawing and selecting illustrative quotations from the walk-and-talk interviews. The images were put together to visualise the connoisseurs' focus upon visiting the spa park. Use of collages was only tested in Ronneby Spa Park and used to present the connoisseurs and the social mapping to the municipality and the county administrative board. Prosser (2011) describes how collages and other forms of art can help us imagine 'how it might be like to live that life' (ibid p.488) and these rather naïve collages were made to attract attention and create an understanding for who is using Ronneby Spa Park (see Fig. 1 in paper I).

5.2.3 Excursions

‘Excursion’ relates to interactions between people and particular places in the landscape (Haahr, 2016), between local inhabitants and students as well as between local stakeholders in, for example, the Bräkne river valley. The flow of communication in Fig. 5 can be staged in an excursion by a skilled guide. Excursions are built up around the landscape and relevant local experts are invited. Municipal planners, landowners or managers describe their perspectives on site, guided by the mediator (the excursion leader).

The excursion is a method for learning by observing and feeling, learning by experiencing (Flyvbjerg, 2001; Forester, 1999) and learning by doers (inspired by learning by doing (Dewey, 1997)). Excursions in this research have been used both as ‘real life studios’ together with groups of students (Bruns et al., 2010), and as actions creating shared learning processes on specific landscapes like in the BRV and the green structure project in the municipality of Ronneby. In the BRV, a skilled excursion leader invited connoisseurs to describe their stories of the landscape in order to help them grasp the specific landscape values, including social, historical, ecological and political (economic) features (Mellqvist and Gustavsson, 2014). Thus, participants got a chance to practice perception and representations, apply knowledge of flora and fauna and analyse landforms.

Excursions could be summarized as outdoor lectures combined with movement in the landscape, where different groups can meet and learn from each other regarding sense of place, local traditions and the effects of including planning policies in a specific context.

5.2.4 Arrange meetings between students and local connoisseurs

Academic teaching varies between disciplines. Just like excursions, ‘real world studios’ (Bruns et al., 2010) are relevant for most landscape education and are used both in landscape architecture and planning programmes throughout Europe and beyond (ibid). In a ‘real world studio,’ as used in this thesis, the students participated together with the teachers. A learning environment was built in the local landscape with the potential to emphasize the importance of context, facilitating and helping the students to identify the ‘sense of place’ and how to make an anonymous place into something personal. Local citizens, landowners, municipal planners or other place-related actors acted as key players. For students, it is easier to understand the value of local connoisseurs’ knowledge while standing on their land or listening to their stories. The

Landscape Ambassador course (LAMB) is an example where the students are trained in methods to reach an understanding of a place in communication both with local actors and by the physical landscape. In parallel, they are trained in perception and representation; to see and understand what they see requires many excursions, reflecting on different kinds of landscapes.

Coming from the university, I have the possibility to arrange courses and use my research cases in teaching. This was included as a method described under each case in the following section.

5.2.5 Focus groups

Focus groups were only used in the municipality-wide green structure project in the municipality of Ronneby. Focus groups permit conversations around a chosen topic with a mix of competences present. The steering committee invited staff from the municipality and Cefur (’Center for Applied Research and Development within Sustainability and Cradle to Cradle in Ronneby’ (Ronneby, 2011)) to participate in focus groups discussing the main topics in the green structure plan: ecosystem services, recreation, biodiversity, and landscape identity. Four focus groups (4 x 7 people) were arranged to test ideas and make comments on the material and results collected so far. To work with repeated meetings was as important in focus groups as it is in other methods. The green structure project invited participants to the focus groups to cover architecture, biology, landscape architecture, environmental science, recreation, and public health. Kamberelis and Dimitriadis (2011) discuss the potential of focus groups to function as consciousness-raising groups, something that happened in the municipality of Ronneby. The four focus groups met three times each. It was challenging to achieve a creative discussion during the first meetings, but after the third meeting a large group of colleagues from different departments at the municipality were familiar with the green structure project and could support the planning process from their different positions. Wibeck (2010) brings up whether focus groups should go for depth or breadth. By meeting three times, the green structure project aimed for both.

5.2.6 Participant observation

Participant observation was used to follow local actions and was often followed up with interviews (particularly in the BRV). The intention was not to map an entire community but to detect which activities worked

well and attracted people's attention. Spradley (2016) describes how participant observations for ethnographic purposes, as far as possible, should discover *both* questions and answers 'in the social situation being studied' (ibid p.32). By observing engaged people in meetings and other actions, I studied the relationship between people and their everyday landscape, e.g. to understand how the communication worked during the meetings and what the local associations' learning processes looked like.

5.3 Six cases, six places

The six cases are all used for testing, discovering and developing methods for collaborative landscape planning with local connoisseurs and other stakeholders participating. My participation in the six cases has lasted for 10 years. They are all rich and full of smaller and bigger events. The following descriptions go through the aims of the individual cases with a short description of the context, landscape character, participating actors, and methods used to gather information in the different cases. A shared driving force for the individual cases has been to identify or awaken a local commitment for improving local landscape planning. The six descriptions don't claim to give a full picture of the cases but raise important pieces that have contributed to the development of an elaborated participatory method. 'The research team' mentioned in the cases is Roland Gustavsson and myself.

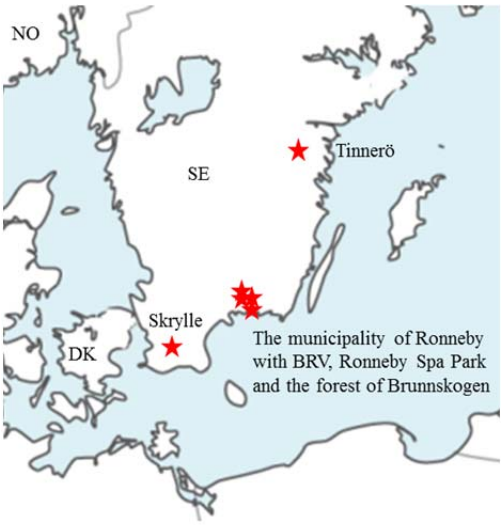


Figure 8. The six cases studies' geographic location in Sweden. (©OpenStreetMapsbidragsgivare. Available at: http://all-free-download.com/free-vector/download/europe_map_vector_48067.html)

5.3.1 The Bräkne river valley case

Size: The river is 80 km long; the river basin is 460 km^2 and hosts six nature reserves, while the county administrative board has suggested creating even more.
No. of inhabitants: 9,000 in the river basin.
Ownership**:** Mostly privately owned land
Initiated by: Initiated and run by Bygd i samverkan (BiS) and other local actors (partly in collaboration with Roland Gustavsson, SLU)

The landscape: The BRV is located in the transition zone of the middle-European and Scandinavian landscapes. The peri-urban features are the smaller villages along the river and the proximity to bigger cities. It has been recognized as being of national and European interest for nature conservation, cultural heritage, tourism, outdoor recreation, and fishing.

Aim and case description: The aim was to gain insight into the patterns of communication among local connoisseurs and official planners in order to improve local landscape planning. The main activities were to create meetings between actors, invite students to participate in excursions meeting the local landscape and local connoisseurs, and to follow a local association's struggle to raise interest on their local landscape development. My master thesis dealt with landscape changes in the BRV (See Fig. 9 and Mellqvist, 2005). I have followed the activities of a local association, BiS, brought groups of students to the valley, made interviews of long term managers in the valley, of the students and the teachers in the LAMB-course and have participated in meetings and actions.

This case is about finding situations where ideas were born, where I had the opportunity to understand how collaboration could have a chance to work through repeated meetings, interviews and different activities. A great local interest for landscape changes combined with an increasing number of nature reserves made me curious about the futures of peri-urban landscapes like the BRV.

Actors involved: Participants in BiS, individual land owners and managers and a range of officials at the municipality, the county administrative board, and the research team. A number of students have also visited the BRV over the years together with the researcher team.
Methods used: Interviews, excursions, arranged meetings between students and local actors and participation in activities arranged by BiS.
Collected material: Written summaries from interviews and meetings, student projects, lectures, minutes from BiS meetings, photos and maps, students' illustrated visions.

Figure 9. Two photos from the series of repeated photographing (Mellqvist, 2005). The pictures are from Strömmahejan and are taken with 20 years in between, the photo at the left was taken in 1975 and at the right in 1995. I learned about landscape changes in the BRV through photos combined with interviews with local stakeholders. Photos: Roland Gustavsson 1975 and Mattis Gustavsson 1995.

Figure 10. The model of actors in the BRV illustrates the SLU's involvement in the patterns of communication between the local society and the local government. The research team from the SLU, coming from outside, can facilitate and strengthen communication between the local experts and the municipality. The very weak arrow from municipal planner to local expert can grow stronger with this collaboration.

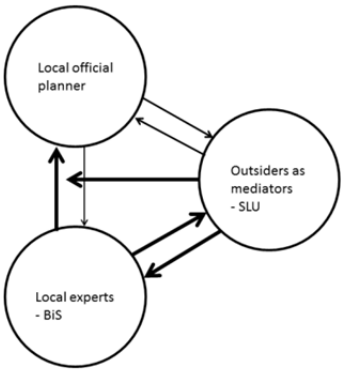


Figure 11. The former mayor in Ronneby comments on the LAMB students' first ideas of potential development of the landscape in the BRV. Politicians are an important group to involve and learn how to collaborate with. On the right the Periscape group organizing the LAMB course climbed on a characteristic stone in Näckahallen, the Bräkne river, on a pre-excursion in the BRV, getting to know the landscape and planning the course in the field.

5.3.2 The Ronneby Spa Park case

Size: 1000 ha.
Ownership: Mixed between the municipality of Ronneby, and private landowners.
No of inhabitants: No inhabitants but more than 800,000 visitors per year; 2002–2005.
Initiated by: The municipality of Ronneby and the research team, supported by NeighbourWoods. Project run by the research team.

The landscape: The park, including the forested parts, has a 300-year history and half of the park is managed as an ornamental classic park with lawns and plantations with references to the English landscape style while the other half is "a kind of wilderness, with "Trollsjön" (The lake of the trolls), wooded hills with paths winding up the granite rocks with exotic trees and other colourful features.

Aim and case description: The concept of connoisseurs was tested as an operational model for the first time in Ronneby Spa Park. The park was at the time to be turned into a culture reserve, a new conservation instrument stressing cultural values corresponding to the concept of a nature reserve where nature and biological values are in focus. The connoisseur method was used to increase engagement and to implement a communicative design in the management of the recreation area of Ronneby Spa Park.

This case was part of the European NeighbourWoods research project in collaboration with the municipality of Ronneby. NeigbourWoods is aimed at developing a sustainable approach to urban woodland conservation, management and development. In close collaboration with local stakeholders, a toolbox to support urban woodland planning, design and management was developed and tested in 6 cities in different parts of Europe (Konijnendijk and Schipperijn, 2004).

Actors involved: Connoisseurs representing organized outdoor recreation, sport associations, teachers, and so on, who use the spa park regularly, the park manager with personnel, officials and experts of insects etc. from the municipality and the county administrative board. Finally, the research team with two colleagues from the SLU.
Methods used: Walk-and-talk interviews, social mapping, use of collages and excursions.
Collected material: Recorded walk-and-talk interviews, transcribed and written summaries from interviews and meetings, the connoisseurs' maps with their marks and comments, notes from observations made during the walk-and-talks, and notes of meetings and field walks with managers.

Figure 12. Villa Vera in Ronneby Spa Park, built in the Swiss style, which is characteristic for this spa and neighbouring housing areas. On the right is Johnny, who has been the park manager there for many years.

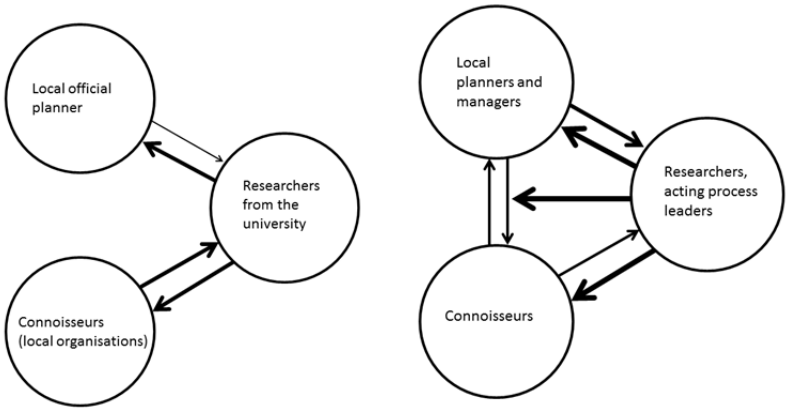


Figure 13. The two planning models illustrate the planning process in Ronneby Spa Park, whereby the model on the left shows the dialogue during the introductory phase with the walk-and-talks and social mapping. On the right, the model shows the second phase of the project: the follow-up meetings. The flow of information is more on equal terms, the thick arrows illustrate how the university still acts as a mediator and coordinator in the process while the communication between university and planners and managers on the strategic, operational and tactic levels grows stronger while they learn from each other.

5.3.3 The Skrylle recreation forest case

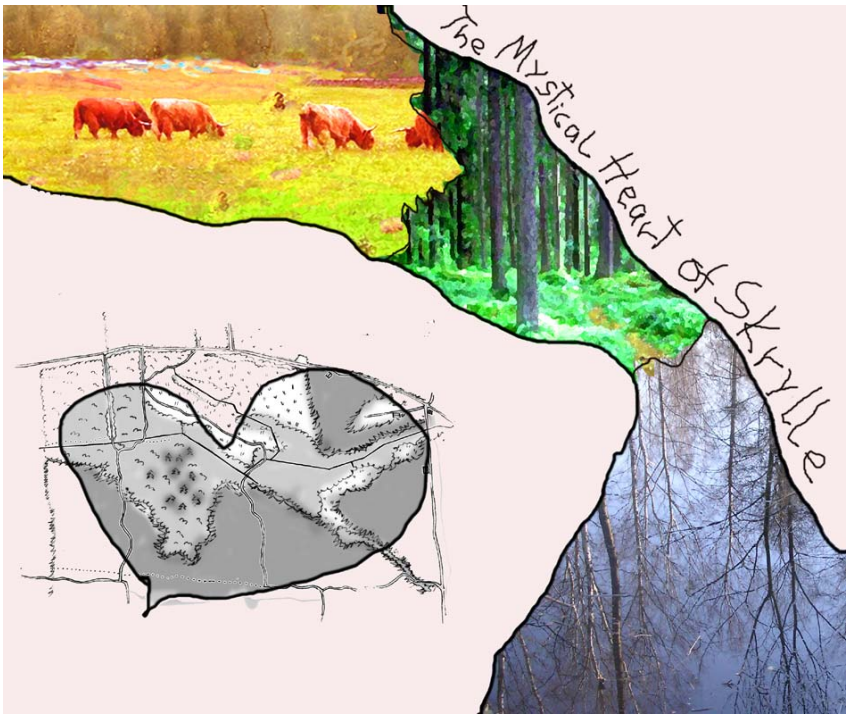
Size: 1000 ha.
Ownership: Mixed between the municipality of Lund, the state and private landowners.
No of inhabitants: No inhabitants but more than 800,000 visitors per year; 2002–2005.

The landscape: Skrylle is one of the largest green spaces in the municipality of Lund, situated in the north-western part of the Romeleåsen ridge. It is also the main recreational forest of the region, situated 10 km from Lund and 20 km from Malmö. This forested land is mostly planted but also includes old deciduous stands as well as a varying landscape with ponds, open grazed heath land and a quarry. Skrylle has been a nature reserve since 1993 and has footpaths and running tracks, some of which are lit and some are accessible for wheelchairs.

Aim and case description: The Skrylle case (Åkerlund and Gustavsson, 2004) was carried out because of an urgent need to find new management concepts after a severe storm damaged the area in 1999. The case was part of the European NeighbourWoods research project. The case was incorporated into a master course 'Integrated Landscape Management' at the SLU, Alnarp in 2003 and had two purposes. In Skrylle we studied how the concept of connoisseurs would function in an operational model involving students. One purpose was how students, as potential future managers, could communicate with connoisseurs and integrate their values and wishes into a management plan. The second purpose was to use an active participatory approach, creating a management plan influenced by connoisseurs and representing a broad spectrum of organized and unorganized users, to influence decision makers.

Actors involved: Keypersons from a range of associations using Skrylle, 35 students, the research team and 2 colleagues from the SLU.
Methods used: Plan and carry out a course, interviews and observations.
Collected material: Observations from the students' meetings with connoisseurs (notes and photos), student proposals for a revised management plan.

Figure 14. Students meet connoisseurs in Skrylle. The photo illustrates the second meeting, in which each group presented their ideas to the connoisseur to get input and responses before finalizing their project. Below: The main concept of one of the student groups. The concept for the management of the central wetlands of Skrylle, visualised through maps and collage. This kind of illustration was appreciated by the connoisseurs as well as by the professionals from the Lund municipality and National Board of Forestry (Åkerlund and Gustavsson, 2004). Source: Mellqvist 2003 and below students from SLU 2003)



5.3.4 The Tinnerö case

Size: Size: 687 ha. Nature reserve since 2006.
Ownership: The municipality of Linköping.
No of inhabitants: No inhabitants but 100,000 visitors per year (2006).
Initiated by: Myself, supported by HagmarksMistra, project run by myself.

The landscape: The former military field is a pastoral landscape of mixed grazed forests and open land located at the southern city edge. Oak pastures are characteristic for this part of Sweden and the care of these has been the unifying concept of landscape management (see Fig 15). The area is valuable as a recreation area and was designated as a Natura 2000 area in which ecological values are prioritized.

Aim and case description: The study was designed to test the connoisseur method in practice with an emphasis on multi-functionality and increased accessibility. Connoisseurs were identified to cover a range of interests. The Tinnerö study was part of a large research programme about semi-natural grasslands and their biological, cultural and social values. It also focused on an urban–rural fringe situation and the planning process for a former military area (Mellqvist, 2008).

Being a part of a bigger research project governed by the University of Göteborg, the case in Tinnerö was not aiming for a long-term communication but was rather conducted to test the first steps of the methods.

Actors involved: Keypersons from organized and non-organized users, a range of officials at the municipality, the county administrative board, and myself.
Methods used: Walk-and-talk interviews, social mapping, participation in meetings.
Collected material: Recorded interview from walk-and-talk interviews, written summaries from interviews and meetings. Photos and the connoisseurs' maps.

Figure 15. Two landscape types, very typical for Tinnerö, at the left. The map on the right illustrate social mapping in Tinnerö, analysis of the walk and talks together with the maps sent in resulted in this mapping of power and a feeling of belonging in the landscape.

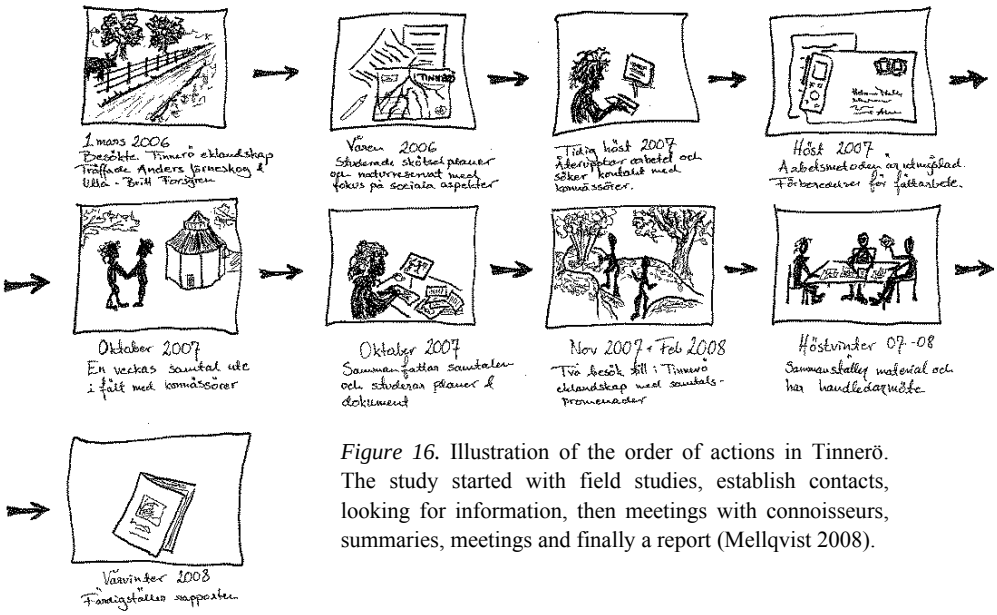


Figure 16. Illustration of the order of actions in Tinnerö. The study started with field studies, establish contacts, looking for information, then meetings with connoisseurs, summaries, meetings and finally a report (Mellqvist 2008).

5.3.5 The forest of Brunnsskogen case

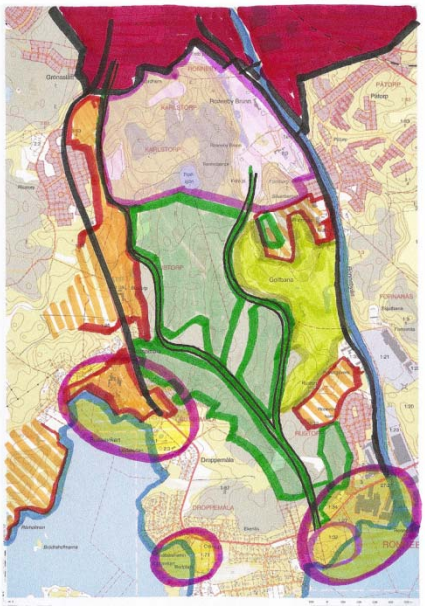
Size: 157 ha. Nature reserve since 2010 (*Södra Brunnsskogen* in Swedish).
Ownership: The municipality of Ronneby.
No of inhabitants: No inhabitants but 100 000 visitors/ year (2006).
Initiated by: The municipality of Ronneby and run by the municipality and the research team.

The landscape: The forest is essentially natural and has not been heavily influenced by forestry. The forested area varies with hills and small wetlands and is dominated by pine but also mixed with spruce, pine, oak and beech growing together. Patches of deciduous forest occur frequently and within the reserve boundaries there are also continually grazed pastures (Ronneby, 2010). Part of the area is a golf course, with a separating forest edge zone of interest.

Case description: The aim was to involve organized interest in the planning of a recreation area and to reach a collaborative process formulating a management plan. The project was initiated by the municipality of Ronneby and carried out by municipal planners together with the research team, as a follow-up from a previous project in a neighbouring area (Ronneby Spa Park).

This case illustrates how the municipality shoulders the responsibility of bringing users into the process of developing a nature reserve initiated and owned mainly by the community of Ronneby, and formulating the management plan. It was a complex planning situation with public participation, including the many restrictions placed on nature reserves.

Actors involved: Organised groups using the area or with potential interest in using the area, officials at the municipality, the county administrative board and the research team.
Methods used: Walk-and-talk interviews, excursions, meetings with the steering committee
Collected material: Written summaries and pictures from walk-and-talk interviews, notes from meetings, Gustavsson's inventories and Calluna's inventories (see Fig. 17).



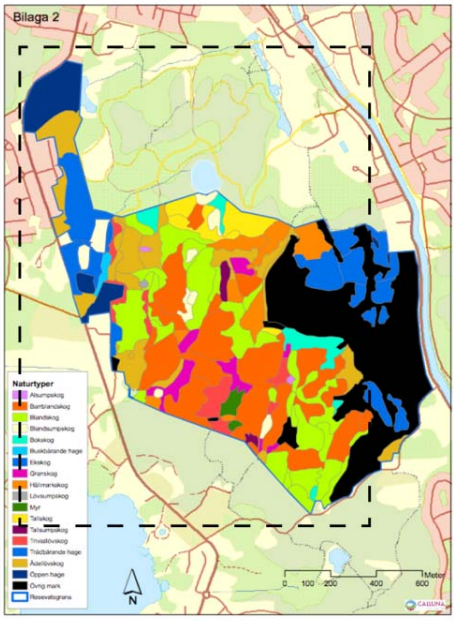


Figure 17. Inventories of the forest of Brunnsskogen. Gustavsson prepared the two maps at the top, combining identified landscape values and different zones to use in dialogue with connoisseurs. The green dots illustrate places identified to have special importance and how they can be connected in a pattern of circuits of places. The map on the right identifies where we can find core areas, boundaries, primary paths and entrances. The purple rings show the green area meeting the coast and the Baltic sea. The map below is produced by Calluna, consultants hired to finalize the management plan. Nature types are marked with formulated management goals for each management area. The lake of the Trolls (mentioned in Ronneby Spa Park) is the blue circle, detectable in the northern part of all 3 inventories.

Source: Roland Gustavsson and Calluna 2009.

5.3.6 The municipality of Ronneby case

Size: 861,83 km^2.
Ownership: Approximately 75% of the entire area is owned by private landowners (average in Sweden is 60%).
No of inhabitants: 28,856 (at of the end of June, 2016).
Initiated by: The municipality of Ronneby in cooperation with the Swedish University of Agricultural sciences as a partnership project, and run by the municipality and the research team.

The landscape: The municipality stretches from the Baltic coast, containing a coast area with an archipelago and wide arable fields in the south, a mixed mosaic landscape in the middle with thousands of lakes and widespread coniferous forests in the northern part.

Aim and case description: This case is about a green structure planning process for the entire municipality of Ronneby, launched in 2014 by a steering committee in partnership between the SLU and the municipality but initiated by the municipality. The development of a green structure plan was tested as an instrument for urban-rural integration and the connoisseur method was tested in a highly participatory working process guided by the steering committee but also by the settled municipal timeline (including statutory consultations etc.). The politicians considered the project as important to test the dialogue approach and engage the entire municipality, with the aim to influence future planning processes. The dialogue-planning phase was carefully prepared with different kinds of meetings among associations and other stakeholders on repeated occasions. The connoisseur method also helped to explore whether a green infrastructure-planning instrument could contribute to a sense of belonging (strengthening the peri-urban citizens' sense of place).

Actors involved: Local associations, schools, pre-schools, sheltered accommodations and other stakeholders, a range of officials at the municipality, the steering committee (two officials from the municipality and the research team from the SLU) and politicians.
Methods used: Interviews, excursions, follow-up meetings, focus groups, social mapping, participation in meetings.
Collected material: Written summaries from field walks and meetings, minutes from the steering committee meetings, maps with notes from follow-up meetings, photos, describing texts of all villages, the city of Ronneby and important landscape areas, the steering committees' summaries of political hearings, focus groups and so on, in which I did not participate but which were a part of the case.

Figure 18. Walk-and-talk interviews with the local associations in Belganet (showing an ancient monument and characteristic stonewalls) and Eringsboda (on the beach at one of the popular bathing sites) at Nättrabyån in the northern part of the municipality. To the right: Växjö, a neighbouring municipality about four times larger, visit the steering group eager to learn from the green structure project.

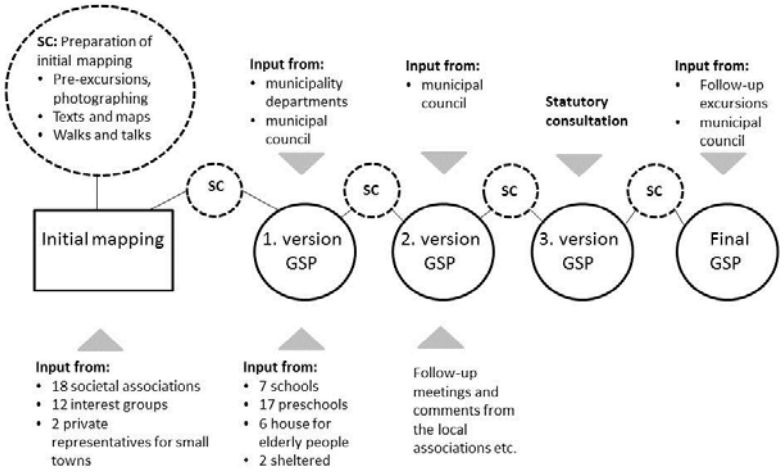


Figure 19. Illustration of the planning process and the different actors (SC=Steering Committee, GSP = Green Structure Plan). The steering committee acted mediator in this collaborative planning process, preparing material to get a dialogue going on in the process, analysing, formulating the basic descriptions, stimulating discussions and writing the actual green structure plan.
Source: Søderkvist Kristensen 2016, published in paper IV.

6 Results

Developing and testing the connoisseur method expose how the connoisseur method answers to the overall objective. Parallel the method did also show another partly expected outcome. First the method contributes with a sustainable planning process, answering to new societal demands to work with the identity of a place from a long-term perspective, while also taking into account the interests of different stakeholders. Secondly it gathers people around a local landscape and strengthen their feeling of belonging and meaning through a number of activities related to adult education.

The key aim of this thesis work was to develop and assess a method for landscape planning and management that includes a wide range of interests of different stakeholders. The connoisseur method has been developed through three exploratory cases designing and investigating potentials for the method and three cases to test and refine the method. This study has shown that the connoisseur method is an addition to the traditional landscape oriented, participatory methods, as connoisseurs contribute to a sustainable process by illuminating a wide range of place-related aspects and expertise in municipal, long term landscape planning. Primarily, the connoisseurs assist in pinpointing new perspectives on 'well-known' places and identifying important places that were not included in the official management plans or planning strategies. Overall, it can be concluded that the connoisseur method can contribute with many aspects needed for local planners to achieve a more sustainable landscape planning (as explained in e.g. BRV and the green structure project, see Paper III and IV).

Below, the results are presented by a description of the main components of the method, followed by a comparison of results from the

six cases and finalized with an overview of the most important characteristics of the connoisseur method.

Given that the connoisseur method involves a skilled process leader collaborating with an engaged project coordinator, the method can engage all actors in Fig. 5 and help to keep the web of contacts active over time. Those cases embedded in current municipal planning, turned into longer planning processes, while the shorter cases showed how project-oriented ways of planning not necessarily support collaborative planning. The *cases* are referred to as 'BRV,' 'Ronneby Spa Park,' etc.

6.1 Presentation of the connoisseur method

Based on the six case studies carried out during the last 10 years, it can be concluded that the connoisseur method *combines direct connoisseur involvement with planners and academics* in the planning processes. The method combines the three types of actors while highlighting the local connoisseur, who has place-dependent and experience-based knowledge (see Fig 5. and Arler and Mellqvist, 2015; Mellqvist et al., 2013). The working process is synonymous with the course of actions where the basis is *repeated meetings with connoisseurs*.

The connoisseur method is as much an *ethical approach to landscape planning* as it is a *long-term* landscape planning approach to improve and capture local engagement over time. The method contains a *range of complementary approaches* used to strengthen the *dialogue* with local stakeholders and to *gain information* on their knowledge of, and their use of their everyday landscapes.

The connoisseur method is an *action-oriented* mode for collecting information, creating links between user groups, manager teams, local politicians, and administrators, and via the creation of interest, it may achieve a more sustainable planning process. Central to the connoisseur method is the insistence on 'real meetings' between people and places and not focusing on one aspect at the time, such as biological diversity or cultural heritage. Examples of meeting approaches are walk-and-talk interviews, social mapping, and excursions.

6.1.1 Who are the connoisseurs?

Paper I describes the connoisseurs as 'local people, planners and experts' (p.211), which has been further elaborated in paper II-IV. From this broad definition, the connoisseur has been narrowed down to only focus on the everyday users of a landscape: local residents, summerhouse owners,

people working there, or people passing through on a regular basis. Compared to traditional planning and involvement practices, the connoisseur method invites stakeholders who are believed to have a strong, embodied relation to and use of the place, not just 'everybody.' Just like the method, the concept of 'connoisseur' has evolved and been further developed in the 6 involved cases.

6.1.2 Goals, characteristics and phases

Using Arler's (2000) concept of 'connoisseurs' as inspiration, a practical method has been developed to include three main goals to be fulfilled:

1) to collect local place dependent points of view, preferably outside (paper I-IV),
2) to empower groups of connoisseurs which leads to encouraged and engaged official planners (Paper I-IV) and
3) to share and exchange the connoisseurs' knowledge with responsible planners (paper I-IV).

This study shows how the connoisseur method can be summarized by three main characteristics:

1. The connoisseur method stresses the importance of being outdoors, involving connoisseurs and/or planners while being outdoors (paper I-IV).
2. The method aims to create relationships between people, including a variety of actions, during the planning process (paper I-IV).
3. The method uses repeated meetings (paper I and IV).

The connoisseur method is, and will probably always be initiated by the local municipal planner (the project coordinator) but be guided by a process leader as Fig. 5 and 20 indicate. Because the method is meant to extend over time, it can be divided into three overlapping phases (Arler and Mellqvist, 2015):

1) focuses on gathering information about how a specific landscape is perceived and used by its users (paper I-IV),
2) is the deliberative phase, when participating connoisseurs' experiences and opinions are shared and challenged (paper I, III and IV) and
3) involves the process of developing actual planning solutions (paper I and IV).

Table 2 shows the interactions between the Connoisseur methods goals, main characteristics and primary phases. In the table, there is a distinction between 'experience' and 'knowledge'. Experience is considered to be the immediate, embodied feeling of a place while knowledge is an elaborated experience, formulated during the deliberative involvement process. The presence of academia is not included in Table 2 as it is not considered as decisive for the connoisseur method. However, academics are included in the assessment of the methodology as researchers and students have been important actors in the case studies.

Table 2. *The table summarize the important steps and ingredients in the connoisseur method.*

Goals	**Phase 1** **Gathering of info**	**Phase 2** **Sharing of experiences**	**Phase 3** **Development of plans**
To collect local points of view	Process leader takes advantage of the connoisseur's networks.	Creating relationships between people. To collect local views and refine them in deliberative discussions.	Greater interest for future development strategies. Gain new information on places and connoisseurs' use of those.
To empower groups of users	Being outdoors together and involving connoisseurs, gain attention, and/or planners while walking in the field.	Deliberation on sight, facilitating later steps of the process, sharing connoisseurs' views with planners/ managers.	To identify places of importance, find connections between connoisseurs' needs and the municipalities' visions.
To share the connoisseurs' knowledge	Using repeated meetings. To build trust in the process as well as among connoisseurs.	The sense of the place can be identified through the connoisseurs' contribution.	To receive fewer and less complex comments on the final version of a more sustainable plan where the connoisseurs recognize themselves.

6.2 Long-term participation guided by the connoisseur method

The following sections compare and evaluate the results from the six cases and from the matrix of goals, phases and characteristics in Table 2. The long-term effects are dependent of actors involved and how the planning processes are a part of official planning processes. The connoisseurs influence on the process, and how they experience themselves as a part of it is decisive for the outcome of the method.

6.2.1 Impact of the connoisseur method

The outcome of the six cases depends strongly on how the cases relate to current municipal planning and the political agenda. In general, it takes time to create an equal communication platform and to create trust among different and new actors. Studies of the method embedded in formal planning exposed both strengths and weaknesses within the connoisseur method.

Ronneby Spa Park, the forest of Brunnsskogen and the municipality of Ronneby were all part of formal planning processes, developing management plans and a green structure plan. Positive effects derived from the *attention* that naturally follows a formal planning process; the city council and the local media, as well as a formal framework of regulations supporting the planning process. This attention turned out to be important for encouraging connoisseurs to continue participation in the planned series of follow-up meetings which were missing in the explorative cases. Tinnerö and Skrylle, two exploratory cases that were weakly anchored within the formal planning process illustrate two interesting working processes but the method did not have any impact on actual municipal planning. The municipality of Ronneby case demonstrates how connoisseurs, municipal planners, and politicians were ‘brave and farsighted when they decided to opt for participatory planning and for trying out the connoisseur method in their green structure plan’ (Paper IV, p. 39). Thanks to the support of the politicians, the steering committee were comfortable and could easily identify connoisseurs or even attract further funding for the project.

The project leader will always play a central role in the planning process. An unclear distribution of roles in the forest of Brunnsskogen meant that no process leader where appointed and nobody took responsibility for the contact with connoisseurs. In the Tinnerö case, there was great interest from both the policy makers and the connoisseurs, but the responsible municipal planner did not see the need for user

involvement in the planning process and did not join the process as project coordinator. In both cases, the unclear distribution of responsibility is believed to be the main reason for not optimal influence of the connoisseurs on the actual management plans. In the forest of Brunnsskogen case the deadlines for the planned nature reserve appeared to be more important than securing the participation of connoisseurs. If the project coordinator and process leader are two different persons or the same is not of importance; however, the division of responsibility must be clear to all participants.

The many projects in the BRV case were always related to the formal municipal planning agenda. However, the local association 'Bygd i samverkan' (BiS) did regularly struggle to gain the attention of the local politicians. Successes and failures seemed to strengthen their energy to continue. This indicates the importance of a long term time perspective, if grass root organizations' should be acknowledged by municipal planners and welcomed to influence official planning.

6.2.2 Impact of the individual stakeholder

When working with collaboration there are a range of actors to consider. It is about participating connoisseurs as well as non-participants, politicians, official planners, local citizens and all kind of experts claiming their right to certain planning questions. The cases included in this thesis also enhance academia as an important actor. Students' presence in BRV and Skrylle and to some extent the municipality of Ronneby has affected the planning process as well as the process has affected them. The researchers had a different role, to drive the process forward and also evaluate, which will be elaborated in the Discussion. *The research team* in this study has been presented, where Gustavsson has been closely involved in the processes, inspiring and encouraging the process while I had a more distant role following, participating and analysing. The case in the municipality of Ronneby also exposes how important the politicians are in the connoisseur method. Everything is related.

The connoisseurs

Involving connoisseurs turned out to be of great value for the municipal planners due to a variety and specificity of the place-related knowledge deliberations. The connoisseurs' narratives in Tinnerö, Ronneby Spa Park and Skrylle provided knowledge on and understanding for user groups sharing the different landscapes. In BRV the connoisseurs' narratives

contributed with an understanding for their grassroots engagement and their methods for building up an engagement in the river valley. For the connoisseurs the research team noticed in Ronneby Spa Park and in Tinnerö how flattered connoisseurs were to be called 'connoisseurs' and in the municipality of Ronneby also flattered to be invited to participate and contribute. The connoisseurs' main contribution to planning and management of the actual landscapes is to raise interest and thereby concern for the planning projects.

The long time span and the repeated meetings were important for raising awareness for visionary green structure plans. Both municipal planners and local connoisseurs reached thereby phase 3, in the cases where the process included all three phases (all but Tinnerö, BRV and partly in Skrylle). In the municipality of Ronneby it was obvious how participating connoisseurs searched for their contribution in the analysis at the follow-up meetings (see Paper IV).

The process leader and the project coordinator

The *process* leader guides the connoisseur method within a planning project, while the *project* coordinator (an official planner) has a different role of being responsible for the planning process, leading to a result, which is usually an official plan. The process leaders result is the collaborative process, built up for reaching a sustainable and shared result. To run and balance the participatory process is the process leader's responsibility while the project coordinator is responsible for the actual outcome (i.e. a published plan). The position of the process leader in the municipality of Ronneby was Gustavsson in the 'research team', shouldering the role by using experience from many previous projects in the municipality. The process leader does not have to be a local person but must be curious, knowledgeable and have the intention to improve the collaborative planning process, bringing in connoisseurs with new landscape perspectives. With a clear distribution of responsibility a process leader can bridge potential gaps between isolated projects and the long-term planning processes.

The process leader (acting mediator) had a very important role in picking up the connoisseurs' stories to nurture the conversation, to contribute with personal knowledge, and to both register and maintain the participants' interest. Both the cases of the BRV, the municipality of Ronneby and the forest of Brunnsskogen showed how connoisseurs and other stakeholders contacted the process leader regularly to clarify questions or just to discuss new issues that had emerged.

The process leader enabled a partnership between the municipality, the county administrative board, and the SLU (in the forest of Brunnsskogen, the municipality of Ronneby and to some extent BRV). This ensured that the students' passage in the BRV was noticed by a broad range of actors and the possible implementation of student proposals were discussed in a series of workshops with the municipality (described in Paper II). The partnership assured a long-term collaboration between the three partners even though time was limited within the agreement (see paper IV).

An unclear distribution of responsibility between project coordinator and process leader led to a weaker input from the connoisseurs in the forest of Brunnsskogen. In Tinnerö I was the process leader but the case suffered from lack of a project coordinator. The Ronneby Spa Park case was thoroughly designed and Gustavsson was process leader and shared the role of being project leader together with responsible park manager.

The students

The contribution of the students' participation is twofold. Primarily their participation offers them understanding and knowledge on a reference landscape, contributing to their education (Bruns et al., 2010, Gustavsson 1997). Secondly they do contribute to the planning process with their presence. The students' passage in the BRV showed how connoisseurs grew into the role of thinking about and identifying new possibilities when meeting students in their home landscape. The students' creative and sometimes innovative ideas were presented and discussed in a series of meetings within the town hall and with NGOs by the process leader and project coordinator together.

In the BRV the research team introduced place-based situations for learning specifically designed for students. These turned out to be just as important for the students as for the local connoisseurs and local decision makers, because they offered an arena for meeting and creating shared learning. The students are trained to balance the expert-oriented planning of today with a stronger focus on places, people, and potential values in specific landscape situations. The young age of the international students also appeared to have a positive influence on the deliberations in the BRV. The connoisseurs felt that it was a powerful mutual learning experience to work with an age group (20 to 25 years) that is hard to reach except through the education system; the connoisseurs learned to see their home landscape as something special from an European perspective.

The case in Skrylle experienced great interest from both politicians and planners, but the short time frame of the project, only allowed for a brief introduction of students, and the ideas of the student groups were not drawn further into the municipal planning indicating the relevance for long term projects, also seen in a student involvement perspective. The student projects (see one example in Fig. 14) in the Skrylle case, illustrates how the student picked up the connoisseurs narratives and combined their information with analysis of maps and observations. They did create innovative proposals but did also empower participating connoisseurs, just as in Ronneby Spa Park, Tinnerö and more (see paper I). The short time frame is normal for students following their education but could have been picked up differently by planners.

6.2.3 Empowerment

To build trust requires time. Enough time allows participating connoisseurs to be invited to get feedback and participate in follow-up meetings. Repeated meetings have been mentioned as important and reconnecting to connoisseurs should not be forgotten. When trust is created it is possible to reach the flow of communication in Fig. 5 with exchange of knowledge on landscape values through e.g. place based narratives and social mapping. Keeping in mind that the connoisseur method answer to two parallel goals, empowerment is most relevant to 'strengthening the feeling of belonging and meaning'.

In the municipality of Ronneby (the forest of Brunnsskogen and Ronneby Spa Park) a result was reached without insurmountable conflicts which strengthened the connoisseurs' sense of belonging to a place. This is partly due to the many varying knowledge contributors involved, and the different interests of connoisseurs sharing their analyses of important places as indicated by phase 2 in Table 2. Paper I describe how connoisseurs representing users in the recreation areas (Ronneby Spa Park, Tinnerö, Skrylle, and later the forest of Brunnsparken) had initially difficulties in understanding the potential for future development of the area. The connoisseurs in Ronneby Spa Park could formulate their feelings for the area, but only express the risk of lost values in the landscape through their personal experience of the place, together (guided by) with the process leader during the walk-and-talk. In a follow-up meeting together with responsible mangers from the municipality they were well prepared strengthened by the explorative walk-and-talks, and could learn a lot from each other. The deliberative learning process in Fig. 5 and Table 2 illustrates this phenomenon: how the various actors

learned from each other by sharing goals or common interests while being outside in the landscape combined with repeated meetings and thereby reaching a deeper understanding for each other's' perspective. The strongest impact on the actual products, the planning documents, was thus rather late in the process. The follow-up meetings in the green-structure project are an illustrative example described in paper IV.

Repeated meetings

Effective follow-up meetings to continue and to assess collected material were documented in Ronneby Spa Park, partly in the forest of Brunnsskogen and very much in the municipality of Ronneby. The project coordinator and the process leader got a chance to refine collected information, and for the connoisseurs it highlighted the value of participation by reaching for deeper understanding of the planning process as well as moving toward possible strategies for their everyday landscape.

Tinnerö did not offer follow-up meetings, while Skrylle did, within strict time frames, between connoisseurs and students (together with teachers), but also with a final exhibition. The two main reasons for the weak impact on the municipal planning in Skrylle was the short timeframe combined with low interest from municipal planners, probably because of their many previous relations with the third parties, represented by universities, students, and researchers. The four cases in the municipality of Ronneby (see overview in Fig. 6) did benefit from an opposite reaction, whereby the presence of academia was considered rather exotic and flattering. This was shown by the attention of local media, by connoisseurs autonomously coming forward to meet the research team, but above all was demonstrated in the interest from municipal authorities to continue with the connoisseurs' material in the following phases of the planning process.

Follow-up meetings from the students' passage in the BRV were different. Because of a partnership, municipal planners and administrators were bound to participate in discussing the students' material in a series of workshops. The material was also presented to NGOs and interested organizations in the region. Going through the students ideas with different audiences proved to be an effective way of prolonging the students' stay in the actual case.

The six cases showed clear differences between series of follow-up meetings (in Ronneby Spa Park, the forest of Brunnskogen, the green structure project in the municipality of Ronneby and BRV) and cases

where no follow-up meetings were held (in Tinnerö and partly Skrylle). Where follow-up meetings were held actual plans or development strategies were always formulated (see Table 2). Enough time for repeated meetings is the key to reach a positive outcome like trust, awareness raising and deeper understanding. A planning project is also needed to gather around.

Trust and awareness raising

The relaxed atmosphere in the walk-and-talks helped to build trust between connoisseur and the process leader, which proved to be necessary in order to reach a sustainable result. Trust was further developed in follow-up meetings, preferably with other local connoisseurs or municipal planners, transferring thoughts and ideas whilst the participants met. Through the follow-up meetings, connoisseurs could see how their contribution was utilized and thus a deeper discussion about landscape development was possible. Follow-up meetings in the green-structure project did for example pick up disappointed connoisseurs looking for their house in the draft-plans and lift a discussion of scales, belonging and the sense of a place (paper IV).

In Ronneby Spa Park, participating connoisseurs were invited to take part in a session called ‘results so far’ to pick up their contribution and discuss possible effects on other proposals and ideas in the project. This clearly created trust in the process. The green structure project in the municipality of Ronneby was a longer full-scale project where the municipal planning agenda guided the process, and here it was clear how participation, including follow-up meetings and statutory consultations, resulted in fewer and less complicated commentary on the final version of the green structure plan.

In the BRV it was discovered how important it is ‘to be seen’ for the individual landowner or manager, to show their land and projects to neighbours but also to responsible decision makers at the municipal or regional level. Trust is developed when learning processes on landscape development are shared, and preferably on site. This was illustrated in the BRV but also the green structure project in the municipality of Ronneby, and to some extent in the forest of Brunnsskogen where the long time-span permitted the participatory processes to accelerate after a decline in engagement. The planning model in Fig. 20 illustrates the flow of communication in the green structure project in Ronneby. The steering committee is present in two circles but is also participating in the dotted circle ‘village council’ supporting the process by reminding of the

importance for local connoisseurs to participate and answering questions from the local associations (described in paper IV).

All four cases situated in the municipality of Ronneby got an idealistic start because of the process leader's contacts in the municipality (within the town hall as well as in local associations and other citizens). The scepticism from for example the northern part of the river valley in BRV was possible to handle because the sceptic connoisseurs joined meetings and arranged actions to assure they were not included in something they did not approve of. A certain trust in the planning process was thereby developed despite a wish to stay outside.

The collaborative planning process in the green structure project (the municipality of Ronneby case) helped the project coordinator (assisted by the process leader) to establish a network of connoisseurs throughout the entire municipality, but also a group of colleagues within the town hall familiar with the project. One example is how one municipal planner in the green structure project's focus group meetings volunteered to formulate one part of the actual green structure plan. The knowledge contributor is part of learning processes illustrated by the park manager who commented in a focus group how this project made him understand what green structure planning actually is about. Another example is the creative atmosphere of 'working-meetings' that emerged during the follow-up meetings, where connoisseurs continued to refine the steering committee's summaries together (described in Paper IV).

6.2.4 Important components of the connoisseur method

The working methods used, facilitated discussions on future landscape development and assisted the connoisseur in putting words on her relationship with her everyday landscape. The contribution of the more important building blocks in the connoisseur method is presented below. To be outside facilitated discussions on landscape development because of the relaxed setting and that the landscape continually reminded participants of their experiences and opinions.

To hold an interview outdoors allows one to be continually reminded of the places within the surrounding landscape. In all cases except Skrylle it was experienced how *the sense of place* turned out to be easier to communicate when the process leader mediated and thus experienced the place together with the connoisseurs. The connoisseur's history of the place and the place related values grow out of the conversation. Despite the lack of experience in discussing landscape and planning issues (as experienced in the Spa Park of Ronneby), the study in Tinnerö illustrates

how the landscape did engage people, which constitute a good foundation for deliberation and collaborative planning. While passing by landscape features the connoisseurs showed places where user groups like endure riders and shooting activities were not welcome anymore and discussed suitable spots for more passages through the massive fence surrounding the grazing land.

If it is not possible to spend time outside, two alternative strategies have been tested within the study. During my Master's thesis (Mellqvist 2005), I worked with repeated photographs that visualized landscape changes in the BRV and enabled a discussion (indoors) around those with connoisseurs who were familiar with the landscapes (see Fig.9). Another example is from Skrylle, the shortest case, which did not offer enough time for shared walk-and-talks. The meetings between connoisseurs and students were therefore planned indoors, expecting that both students and connoisseurs had a personal knowledge of the landscape. The landscape was brought inside through maps, and the students' sketches were important in assisting the discussions and bringing in new ideas. It worked fine in that moment, but did not leave any long-lasting impact.

Walk-and-talk interviews

Walk-and-talk offered an intimate meeting between process leader and the connoisseur, alone or in groups (like in the green structure project). The spoken word has been important to capture what is happening and to evaluate what has just happened. Different forms of interviews as well as participatory observations have helped to construct an understanding of how the connoisseur method can be implemented in current peri-urban landscape planning methods. Further, the relaxed conversation and sharing the experience of moving through the landscape together, to be outside, on site, is emphasized as valuable.

A walk-and-talk interview, preferably combined with social mapping, was successful in all cases to collect case-specific raw material and start deliberative planning processes. Total focus on the connoisseur (the interviewee) made them feel important and thus confidence – and trust was fostered, with the process leader and the connoisseurs learning from each other.

Ronneby Spa Park, Tinnerö, the forest of Brunnsskogen and the green structure-case in the municipality of Ronneby, all benefitted from a main focus on the physical landscape and the connoisseurs' relation to it, derived through walk-and-talks. In all cases walk-and-talks were without maps which would indicate borders. Here, focus was on the physical

landscape and the connoisseurs' relation to it, which raised awareness and shared learning was created, which contributed to trust in the process as well as a curiosity in the results.

Walk-and-talk interviews are important helping the connoisseurs to formulate their opinions on complex issues and the process leader to reach a situation for shared learning. All cases, except Skrylle, showed how a walk in the landscape enabled relaxed conversations where the connoisseurs could relate their stories to places and the landscape features while walking. The mutual trust created between connoisseurs, process leaders, and project coordinators initiated the way for present and potential future collaborative planning processes between the municipality and the connoisseurs.

Excursions

The four cases in the municipality of Ronneby showed how excursions as a form of outdoor lectures assisted ELC's intentions for public awareness. Excursion lift the importance of shared reference landscapes and the intimate face-to-face atmosphere in the walk-and-talk interviews are changed into broader learning processes involving many actors. Connoisseurs attending the excursion discussed challenges and characteristic features of their everyday landscape through neighbours, policymakers, and other groups of experts.

In the BRV, the excursions contributed to constructing a 'local awareness' surrounding local landscape features. Shared learning was created among groups of experts and local connoisseurs meeting on site and exchanging knowledge.

Based on the format used in the BRV, it is fair to conclude that the excursion leader needs to design the tour together with invited connoisseurs who assist the guidance. Shared responsibility makes the connoisseurs feel involved, and thus their confidence as well as pride benefits the process of shared learning. It was shown that this was the case even among participants who did not approve of the main goals of the BRV project. Pride of the local landscape was nurtured by the process leader and in the BRV and the green structure project it was transmitted to the other participants during excursions and other shared activities. The feeling of shared responsibility did lead to further discussions about alternative forms of co-management ('samförvaltning' in Swedish), which were discussed in the green structure project, Tinnerö, and tested in the BRV.

6.2.5 The connoisseur method from a planning and governance-perspective

Arts et al's (2006) policy and governance arrangement model was used in Paper IV (see Fig. 1. in paper IV) to analyse the green structure planning project in the municipality of Ronneby. Four dimensions are defined to situate the planning processes; resources, actors, discourses and rules of the game. An analysis of the connoisseur method through the policy arrangement model differs between the six cases but some general conclusions are possible to discuss.

From an actor perspective the process leader, the project coordinator, other involved municipal planners and the city council all play important roles. The local connoisseurs sharing their embodied and place related knowledge with each other and the other's. The connoisseurs gain awareness on current planning projects, how they will be affected and how they can influence the planning process. Actors from the municipality gain confidence in a more sustainable planning process involving connoisseurs. The connoisseur method has involved both individuals and organizations, all selected because of their relationship with the landscape.

Rules of the game differ on the six places in the six cases. Nature reserves are supervised and monitored by the regional council even if it is planned and managed by the municipality. Cases anchored in current municipal projects are supported by official rules like PBL ('Planning and Building Act', Swedish government, 2010) assuring statutory consultation. The municipality is responsible for land use planning in Sweden, which is complex in peri-urban landscapes where large parts are privately owned. The right of public access are statutory and well established in the connoisseurs' approach to the landscape. The county administrative board is responsible for national goals related to landscape development i.e. regional growth, cultural heritage, environmental protection and sustainable community planning.

Discourses; ELC (Council of Europe, 2000) in particular, but also the Aarhus convention and the Rio convention with Agenda 21 (United Nations, 1987, 1992) have been important landmarks for developing the connoisseur method. The wish to reach a more sustainable planning, is also supported by the Brundtland report from 1987 (World Commission on Environment and Development) but ELC with its focus on people's everyday landscape has been a good support dealing with the challenges posed by the democratization of planning processes.

Resources; all cases share the peri-urban landscape context. Land in the four nature reserves are to a higher degree owned by municipalities than in BRV and the municipality of Ronneby. Whether the case was explorative or a part of the current municipal planning system was decisive for supporting resources like the politicians and local media's attention, or the public sectors attention to discuss co-management and other forms of financial support. The presence of students was important in Skrylle and BRV while researchers and the presence of academia have been important in all cases. The university's presence is not decisive for the connoisseur method but was a great resource in the study.

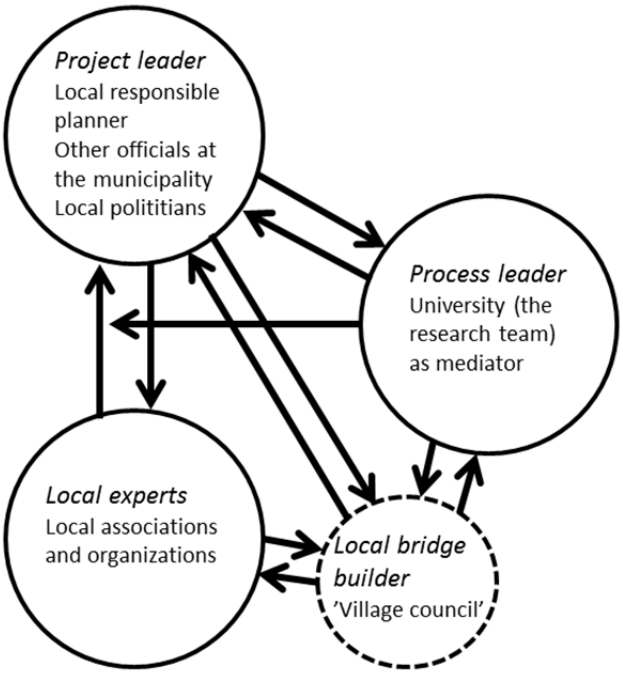


Figure 20. The planning model illustrates involved actors testing the connoisseur method in the green structure project, the municipality of Ronneby. The local bridge builder in this case was the village council, being a cooperation between different kinds of organized groups in the rural and peri-urban parts of the municipality (described in paper IV).

6.3 The essence of the method

Table 3. *Summary of the most important features of the connoisseur method, from the local planner's perspective.*

Summarized prerequisites framing the connoisseur method	Who
To establish contact with a suitable external process leader to guide and support the connoisseur method – to build engagement as well as trust within the municipality	Project coordinator
To identify connoisseurs is made by process leader and project coordinator together – contributes to shared responsibility for the collaborative planning process and for future results	Process leader/Project coordinator
To identify connoisseurs with embodied experience of the place – give access to organized and individual connoisseurs' established network of which the connoisseur method takes advantage.	Process leader/Project coordinator
To hold initial meetings on site in the local landscape, involving municipal planners and connoisseurs individually or in groups – creates a personal relationship between actors and the landscape	Process leader
To use a combination of methods for collecting data, i.e. walk-and-talks and social mapping, that constitute fruitful ground for deliberative planning processes of sharing information and opinions between participants – engages and contributes with meaning for the individual connoisseur and new information for planners	Process leader
To collect information on landscape and connoisseurs' perceptions – empowers connoisseurs in treating them as important due to their contribution with valuable information for planners	Process leader
To arrange follow-up meetings between planners, locals and if relevant researchers/students in groups – generates deliberative discussions formulating new ideas from collected raw data, strengthens trust and shared reasonability for the outcome	Process leader
To be clear and transparent on how the connoisseurs' contribution is affecting the planning process – generates understanding for the planning process and acceptance of the results	Process leader/Project coordinator
To allow several occasions for trust building between connoisseurs and planners – will lead to a lower amount of comments during the statutory consultation and greater interest for participating in future planning projects	Process leader
To collect and share material between planners, politicians, locals, and universities – generates broader understanding for complex issues like landscape planning	Process leader
Planners' established contacts with connoisseurs should be well cared for, for future collaboration just as collected material should be well cared for in aid of future projects – continued trust building between the municipality and the local society	Project coordinator

Table 3. lists the main features of the connoisseur method, seen from a local planners perspective. It is indicated who is responsible for each feature which also has a short comment related to it. The local planner acting project coordinator is aware of emerging projects in peri-urban landscape development in well-visited as well as more neglected sites where the users' interests should be included in the planning process. The same person is also responsible for keeping contact with connoisseur alive.

7 Concluding discussion

Yes, there is goal and meaning in our path -
but it's the way that is the labour's worth

Nog finns det mål och mening i vår färd -
men det är vägen, som är mödan värd.

(Karin Boye 1927, translated by David McDuff (http://www.karinboye.se/verk/dikter/dikter-mcduff/in-motion.shtml) (Boye 1927).

Megatrends like demographic shifts and accelerating urbanization is constantly challenging the landscape (Primdahl et al. 2013b; Vejre et al., 2002; Widgren, 2012). This study has used connoisseurs' personal relationship to their everyday landscape to contribute to the development of potential landscape changes. Preconditions to reach this are set within the design of the proposed method with an engaged and knowledgeable process leader supported from the local society, combined with 'presence over time'. A project coordinator is also part of the preconditions as a planning project anchored in the current municipal planning has showed to be a driving force for the involved actors (Fig. 5) in order to keep an interest in the process.

There has been a constant development of the connoisseur method during and in between the cases marked on the timelines in Fig. 1 and Fig. 6. Many factors affect the process, but above all, the participating connoisseurs, the present planners, researchers and/or other key players have influenced the current development of the methodology, the planning process and the landscape of concern. A successful planning process managed to build up empowerment and trust building.

All actors in the planning model in Fig. 5 and Fig. 20 share an interest for contributing to future sustainable landscapes. Initially the shared interest is individual striving in different directions, while the connoisseur method gradually makes it possible to formulate shared solutions for i.e. co-management.

The peri-urban landscapes where the connoisseur method has been tested are going through changes right now and the dimension of public outreach is important here too (Sarlöv Herlin, 2012; Stenseke, 2006). As the landscape is present all the time, and being the arena for meetings, was described by Ostrom (1990) and Putnam (1993) as crucial to succeed building up shared activities and thereby reach trust.

In the individual case studies, it makes sense to talk about management or planning, but on the strategic level, planning and management are thus considered so closely related that it makes no sense to separate the two (Jansson and Lindgren, 2012). In the study, management traditions related to land use changes were used to attract local connoisseurs' attention and raise awareness of local landscape values, but this was discussed from a planner's perspective.

7.1 Pros and cons with the connoisseur method

One purpose of the connoisseur method is to get a better and locally anchored material to analyse in the planning process, but also to engage, involve and increase awareness of local knowledge and local landscape values. The method was initially designed to stimulate municipal planners to establish a network of connoisseurs. Stephenson, (2007) describes this as making responsible planners and managers aware of who are the everyday users of a place. The connoisseur method developed into an empowerment of connoisseurs and the working methods used in all six cases, focus on the sense of place expressed through the connoisseur (Mellqvist et al., 2013). It appears that connoisseurs also learned a lot from participating, and the flow of communication between the concerned actors in Fig. 5 crystalized.

Whether the actual planning results influenced better plans or even better landscapes is possible to discuss from BRV and the green structure project. The green structure plan is a rich document with visionary strategies and deep description of villages, rivers and other landscape features (Ronneby 2016). The plan raised co-management solutions and one example of this is the recently constructed park in the main village in BRV. The municipality, a local garden association, BiS and SLU signed a

management agreement where the garden association is responsible for the daily maintenance (Gustavsson and Gustavsson 2016). The local commissioner in Ronneby describes the green structure projects collaborative process as the only way forward for a sustainable future (Taipale 2015). The project coordinator in the green structure project stated that the greatest result from the dialogue process was the web of contacts and the added value related to public health and strengthened relations between inhabitants on a social scale (and between people and their everyday landscape). A phone call from a forester awakened the project in the forest of Brunnsskogen and showed how the collaborative process did have impact even though it happened after finalised management plan of the forest (Arler and Mellqvist 2015). A valuable forest edge that was not an issue during the project did now get attention and acceptance from both connoisseurs and local planners.

The collaborative working process is more important for sustainable planning than the actual plan/programme (Healey, 1996). The process is the result, and to maintain the built-up networks for collaborative planning, alternative forms of planning and management are required. Flexible systems that make room for connoisseurs to assist in turn require political support (Loftus, 2015) and an honest desire to turn a top-down initiated system for public participation into more collaborative and inviting bottom-up initiatives (Metzger, 2016; Tahvilzadeh, 2015). The wanted society described by Dewey (1997) is a place where we continuously develop our knowledge through shared learning processes, both with each other and with our society.

Non-participation or local connoisseurs' dissatisfaction would be a threat towards a collaborative planning process. The connoisseur method rely on a positive attitude and aims for lifting the positive possibilities for development of a landscape; Lift local connoisseurs, strengthen municipal planners' knowledge on the connoisseurs' landscape and look for new unexpected solutions.

Collaborative planning, including the connoisseur method, offer the planner or the process leader an opportunity to reach phronesis (Bornemark, 2016; Flyvbjerg, 2001). Phronesis is developed by investigating place-specific characteristics and requires empathy, described by Bornemark (2016), as how the planner learns to *see with* the other person and not to be all caught up by them. Bornemark also mentions the paradox in creating a system for phronesis, but by ensuring that the individual planner has enough space for reflection and personal development, the municipal organisation could encourage the importance

of phronesis. The value of official planners *learning by doers* is beneficial for all citizens, which in itself is a reason for increased participation.

What is special with the connoisseur method is the chain of actions, bringing in material from one phase to the next in the planning process. The long time period dedicated to the connoisseur method constitutes the raising of awareness and empowers both connoisseurs as well as local planners. An honest and interested process leader must support involved groups of actors (connoisseurs, municipal planners and other administrators) and facilitate the planning process. I have focused on the activity, not the object (the landscape) (Gustavsson, 2001), and to make plans based on communication is to act. AR was therefore an important support in the organization of my active participation, combined with loops of reflection and redesign of the method to test again. This is the task of communicative planning.

The explorative study of the connoisseur method has benefitted from the presence of academia in the form of both students and researchers. The students' effect on the process and the process' effect on the students have been described. The researcher's role was different, driving the process forward and gaining information on participatory methods and collaborative planning. The researchers have the possibility to continue elaborating learning outcomes from the planning process in an ongoing evaluation. A part from acting process leader the researchers' contribution in the three practice-oriented planning processes has been to nurture the learning process, pick up new information to test in other planning situations in an ongoing evaluation. The actual planning product (i.e. the management plan or other document) is of smaller importance but the pathway going there that is the connoisseur methods result. Of course this is relative, for the project coordinator the actual plan is very important but the learning process is a bonus offered for the project leader and other involved. The catalytic effect universities can bring into processes of landscape planning could be a way to get around several of the obstacles that Ostrom mentions must be considered if we want to achieve collective action (Ostrom, 2014). Universities, including students, can play the role of mediator, as discussed by Davidoff (1965) and Brolund de Carvalho (2015). The ideal situation would be to build a process where both university and local bridge builders are present, supporting each other.

7.2 Learning processes

Almén (2011) proposes a combination of the Dreyfus and Dreyfus model and Kolb's classical model for learning (see Table 1 and Fig. 7. Kolb, 1984), changing the linear Dreyfus' model of learning to a cyclical one. The product is a useful model where we go from novice to advanced beginner and competent performer, but after that, we might jump to a new learning circle, as it is not in all domains that we develop expert skills. This spiralling model suits the various kinds of cases in the present study as well. The methods used include new groups of actors as experts and aimed to lift their phronesis as important. The next step in the action-oriented use of methods was to reflect on the planning situation and strengthen the official planner to trust this local expertise, without having to be experts themselves.

Compared to tried-and-tested participatory methods in landscape planning (Arler and Mellqvist, 2015), it has been shown that the connoisseur method can support deliberative democracy, promoting 'respect for arguments' (Arler, 2008; Arler and Mellqvist, 2015) and can identify places as well as important aspects in peri-urban landscape planning. Hagendijk and Irwin (2006) highlighted two forms of governance as suitable for the Swedish peri-urban context, the 'educational governance' and 'deliberative governance'. The latter relies on the assumption that open debates are one way of creating a 'satisfactory foundation in decision making' (ibid p.172) and the first on the shrinking number of active farmers in these landscapes (Sarlöv Herlin, 2012; Selman, 2004). This study described both forms of governance and both are believed to be important in future peri-urban landscape contexts.

The starting point for a discussion on landscape democracy in paper III is that the more attached to a place we get, the more significant part the landscape plays in our lives and the more likely it is this landscape become contested. ELC is formulated to stimulate public awareness, encourage public authorities to adopt policies to improve landscape qualities and to make decisions more democratic. Whether the connoisseur method has changed and improved the physical landscape is too early to say. The participatory working methods has however showed how the landscape is important for people and that citizens need projects to gather around in order to use and thereby strengthen the democracy. The method has a potential being used preventively to avoid contested landscapes which is worth exploring more in not only peri-urban but also urban context.

The first three steps in the Dreyfus' model (see Table 1) are of an analytical character, while the latter two steps include intuition, i.e. phronesis. The six case studies in this thesis have all used working methods fitting well into Bent Flyvbjerg's reasoning on the need for phronesis in social science (Flyvbjerg, 2001; Mellqvist and Gustavsson, 2014; Mellqvist et al., 2016); or rather in science more generally, as landscape science, including the interest for people and their activities as well as the physical-biological and social interest, is the interplay between natural science and social science. The relationship between people and the landscape is an important feature to bring into the social perspective in ecological planning. In 'Making social science matter', the meaning of phronesis is explained together with *episteme* (universal truth) and *techné* (technical know-how) (2001). The latter two would be knowledge that is recognized as 'true science' in the scientific society of today (Flyvbjerg et al., 2012). Flyvbjerg, amongst others, considers a huge part of the world to be absent in that way of making research. Motivated by peoples' actions, absent values, power and the importance of context, Flyvbjerg also describes phronesis as 'practical wisdom – that grows out of intimate familiarity with practice in contextualized setting' (ibid p.16), meaning that proficient people and experts must pass through an intimate acquaintance with contextualized practice.

The political support highlighted as a precondition for the success of collaborative planning, as described by Tahvilzadeh and Loftus (2015; 2015), was found in the study and had a great impact on the municipal planners and, moreover, on the entire planning process. The intuitive knowledge of local connoisseurs might be possible to reach and learn from in arranged learning situations like excursions. To learn by doers insists on meeting actors with local knowledge within a landscape. The participatory learning process is a key approach and this study has added 'reflect in action' to 'learning by doing' in an AR project, where the fundamental idea is that knowledge gained in the study will be used to improve the situation in the actual case study (Reason and Bradbury 2001). Traditional AR projects aim to act in order to change and research means to understand. Greenwood and Levin (2006) describe AR as a 'multi-method research', where its validity is tested in action. Due to the character of the project, this study required both working methods that were settled beforehand and methods developed during the process.

Lack of time and resources together with unclear leadership appear to be insurmountable obstacles for the connoisseur method. The presence of researchers and students was previously stated to support a *long-term*

engagement in landscape development. Partnership (Trencher et al., 2014) and alternative forms of collaborative solutions for shared responsibility (Mellqvist et al., 2016) offer solutions to rectify some of the above-mentioned shortcomings. Experience from the international LAMB seminar (Michelin et al., 2008) showed how both students and researchers acted as mediators parallel to their own learning process (Mellqvist and Gustavsson, 2014). Due to a partnership between the municipality of Ronneby and the SLU, the students' material was further discussed and elaborated in a series of meetings with planners and policymakers. Spreading information to new groups of actors can bridge gaps between local connoisseurs and policy makers (Pinto-Correia et al., 2006), but also prepare the ground for planners and policymakers to discuss Arnstein's (1969) ladder of participation in local and action-oriented cases.

Coming from the university, the research team (Gustavsson and myself) had the virtue of being optimistic and of not strictly focusing on the restrictions of political debates and resources, as colleagues from the municipality must do. This opens up the way for another type of mutual creative development, which is one reason for a successful mediatorship. A good process leader (or mediator) does not need to come from the university, but can belong to a think tank or similar organization. Gustavsson contributed with curiosity, knowledge, and a high degree of physical presence, which should be considered equally important if e.g., think tanks are to be included in future projects.

To govern governance requires knowledgeable and engaged process leaders. It might appear to be an overwhelming task but with some key points in mind it appears to be easy and, above all, very rewarding! The summary of characteristics in Table 2 is meant to raise awareness on what is needed to succeed with the connoisseur method. Once the essence of the connoisseur method is considered obvious, it should be easier for the process leader to evaluate in which key points they need assistance (from a local bridge builder, for example).

The connoisseur method has contributed to a situation in which local connoisseurs can better emphasize their local perspectives of a particular landscape in landscape planning. Arler argues that if we can reach 'concerned populations', we should reach democratic landscape assessment (2008). Furthermore, in the case of voluntary participation, significant for collaborative planning, participants need to trust that their neighbours will participate as well in order to join the process (Ostrom, 1990; Putnam et al., 1993).

While presenting and deliberating, a deeper understanding for place-related issues emerges together with a greater trust in your neighbour as well as in the system. Meaning is created for the local connoisseur, who is strengthened in their sense of place while process leaders and project coordinators gain new information, new contacts, and a deeper understanding of possible forms of local landscape development. Learning by doers is presented as an important foundation for participatory values in learning processes. Professional landscape planners in public as well as private sectors, working with collaborative planning, need well-considered methods and the method developed in this thesis is proposed as an option.

7.3 Reflection on future research

In future research on participatory methods and collaborative planning a stronger focus on the parallel learning processes should be emphasised. Based on actors' different learning process it would be important to see how the legal framework could deal with private interests (private ownership) versus national interests (environmental objectives, cultural environmental objectives, national interests), and how do *'the doers'* adapt these. Would it be possible and/or desirable to recreate new commons with shared care (Ostrom 2004) in the peri-urban landscapes, based on current sources of income, i.e. tourism?

This study has focused the municipal planner's perspective but there is also a need to continue research of the citizens' perspective. The study in BRV distinguishes itself from the others by being a grass root engagement which makes it very attractive to continue an ongoing evaluation here. Results have showed how the cases differ between longer and shorter studies, and the 4 cases in the municipality of Ronneby have indicated how awareness has emerged due to the longer time span. It would be fruitful to continue ongoing evaluation within the municipality of Ronneby but also to launch the connoisseur method in landscapes where there is neither habit of collaborative planning nor the presence of the university in a planning context.

What could be an important outcome of paper IV is to consider public health in relation to participation in planning and management of peri-urban landscapes. With policies protecting biological diversity and assuring a minimum of public service it should be important to initiate further projects and studies in hopefully a transdisciplinary manner with focus on the long-term effect with participating connoisseurs. I can see

several interesting topics to investigate, for example how the society can understand and engage “deeper causes of unsustainable practices that are related to human actions, institutional dynamics and behaviour” (Wallin 2017, p.94) through experiences from participatory processes contributing with meaning for the citizens.

Finally, the interplay between involved actors and the physical landscape is important to pick up and continue investigating. The municipality has a strong position in Sweden which is good in many ways, but too much responsibility can also limit the freedom of thought and creativity. Lacking in this study is reflections upon alternative distribution of power at the same time as democracy is to be preserved. It would be an important follow-up project to explore alternative forms of collaboration between the peri-urban citizens, the municipality and the region, supported by the university.

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