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Protected Landscapes

Summary Proceedings of an International Symposium
Lake District, United Kingdom
5 – 10 October 1987



Countryside
COMMISSION



PROTECTED LANDSCAPES

Summary Proceedings of an International Symposium

Lake District, United Kingdom

5-10 October 1987

Prepared by John Foster

for the

**International Union for Conservation of Nature and
Natural Resources**

Countryside Commission

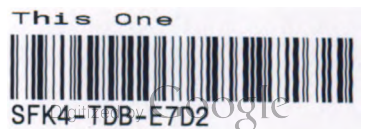
Countryside Commission for Scotland

**and the
Council of Europe**

with the support of

Shell U.K. Limited

January 1988



Published in 1988 as a contribution to the European Year of the Environment

and the Council of Europe's European Campaign for the Countryside



Countryside
COMMISSION



COUNTRYSIDE
COMMISSION
FOR
SCOTLAND

by the International Union for Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources, Countryside Commission and Countryside Commission for Scotland.

Prepared with the financial support of Shell U.K. Limited.



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ISBN: 2-88032-939-6
CCP: 248

Printed by: Avon Litho Ltd, Stratford-upon-Avon, U.K.

Cover photos: Northumberland National Park. John Foster
Kali Gandaki, Nepal. Leah Queensbury
Island north of Funen, Denmark. H.H.Holden-Jensen
Lake Batur, Bali, Indonesia. John Foster

This publication is a companion volume to *Protected Landscapes: The United Kingdom Experience* published by the Countryside Commission, and *Protected Landscapes: Experience around the World* published by IUCN with the support of British Petroleum.

Available from: IUCN Publications,
219c Huntingdon Rd, Cambridge, CB3 0DL, U.K., or
Countryside Commission Publications Despatch Dept.
19/23 Albert Rd, Manchester M19 2EQ, U.K.

Price £7.50

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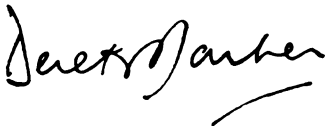
FOREWORD

Sir Derek Barber, Chairman of the Countryside Commission

This is a report of a unique event : an international gathering to look at 'protected landscapes' - the approach to conservation which is represented by the national parks of England and Wales. The Countryside Commission, which has overall responsibility for these national parks, convened the symposium not in order to trumpet our own national achievements - we have had painful setbacks as well as encouraging successes - but to offer our experience as a backcloth against which those from other parts of the world could exchange experience in the protection of landscapes.

The symposium was only possible because we were generously helped by other organisations. The Council of Europe, who joined us in convening the event, met the costs of translation and interpretation into French. The British Council helped to bring participants from developing countries and Eastern Europe. The International Union for Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (IUCN) gave freely of its intellectual help. Our colleagues in the Lake District National Park organised a splendid tour for participants. BP and Shell kindly helped meet the costs of the symposium publications. And finally, a special 'thank you' to the Symposium Secretary, John Foster, whose commonsense and patient good humour steered our deliberations to a successful conclusion.

In the closing session of the symposium the participants adopted the Lake District Declaration, which is reproduced here. It is a confident statement of the value of the protected landscapes approach to conservation. Along with the detailed information contained in this report, the Declaration provides a foundation for greater international co-operation in the field. In this, the Countryside Commission commits itself to playing a full part.



SIR DEREK BARBER
December 1987

THE SYMPOSIUM

Why it was convened - Who came - What was achieved

Protected Landscapes are internationally recognised as an important category of protected area and criteria for them have been defined by the International Union for Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (IUCN). Such landscapes show how man and nature can interact harmoniously to produce places of outstanding scenic quality, remarkable ecological diversity and great importance for their scientific, educational, recreational and cultural associations.

While the approach has been most often employed in European countries, IUCN has identified thirty-nine countries worldwide with recognised protected landscapes. The concept, however, has potential for much wider application, in developing as well as developed countries, and the protection of man-modified environments which best show how man and nature can coexist will undoubtedly become increasingly important in the future as more and more of the unaltered natural environments in the world are either irreversibly altered or effectively protected through national parks or nature reserves. In recent years more and more interest has been shown in the protected landscapes approach.

This was the background against which the International Symposium on Protected Landscapes was held at Grange-over-Sands in the Lake District, England, from 5-10 October 1987. Conceived and convened by the Countryside Commission, jointly with the Council of Europe, the aims of the symposium were :

1. to establish the concept of protected landscapes more clearly,
2. to raise their status as a means of improving links between conservation and development and,
3. to strengthen international co-operation through programmes such as training and staff exchange, especially those involving developing countries.

Attendance was by invitation to ensure that the symposium would be of manageable size and would have the most useful mix of experts, either with policy-making or advisory roles, from as wide a range of countries as possible. In the event, there were eighty-five active participants, of whom over two-thirds attended as individuals from overseas or as representatives of relevant international organisations. All the continents were represented, with participants from twenty-nine countries, European and North American participation being the strongest in terms of numbers. The countries participating were Australia, Austria, Canada, Republic of China, Colombia, Denmark, France, Federal Republic of Germany, Greece, Hong Kong, India, Indonesia, Ireland, Italy, Japan, Nepal, Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Papua New Guinea, Poland, Portugal, Spain, Tanzania, Thailand, United States of America, United Kingdom, Venezuela and Virgin Islands.

The international organisations present included IUCN (represented by, amongst others, its Director-General, who gave the keynote address,) UNESCO, UNEP, World Wildlife Fund, Council of Europe, European Federation of Nature and National Parks and the International Federation of Landscape Architects. From within the United Kingdom, in addition to the national conservation agencies (the two Countryside Commissions and the Nature Conservancy Council) and the central government environmental departments of the four constituent countries, there were representatives present from the British Council, the two National Trusts, the Council for National Parks, the Lake District and Peak District national park authorities and the Broads authority along with a number of independent experts. The names and particulars of all the participants and accompanying persons are listed at Annex I.

The Symposium was seen as being a key event in the EEC's European Year of the Environment and the Council of Europe made its joint convenorship with the Countryside Commission as a contribution to its Campaign for the Countryside.

The Countryside Commission was greatly assisted in organising the event by generous support from a wide range of international and other organisations. The Council of Europe kindly provided English/French translation and interpretation services and helped to meet the costs of travel of some European NGO participants. The British Council helpfully assisted a number of developing country and eastern bloc participants to attend and also organised an interesting post-symposium tour which visited three national parks in the north of England. IUCN recognised the symposium as important in its international conservation programme and gave valuable advice on the programme and suitable invitees. It also provided three important pre-symposium background papers directly relevant to the subject of protected landscapes. BP International Ltd and Shell UK Limited generously agreed to meet the costs, respectively, of preparing an international directory of protected landscapes and of publishing the symposium proceedings. The Lake District Special Planning Board organised the study tour, hosted the closing reception and dinner and provided useful advice and support both before and during the event. The Countryside Commission for Scotland funded the support services for the Symposium Secretary.

A copy of the symposium programme, as issued to all participants, is at Annex II. The proceedings opened with a reception and dinner hosted by the Countryside Commission. The Chairman of the Commission, Sir Derek Barber, welcomed the participants and introduced the Right Honourable Lord Belstead, Minister of State for the Environment, Countryside and Water, as the guest of honour. Next day, after the keynote address by the Director-General of IUCN, there followed a series of plenary sessions on protected landscapes around the world, covering the role of IUCN, other international programmes, a series of four selected national approaches in the widely differing circumstances of Australia, France, Poland and Venezuela, and ending with an account of the system within the United Kingdom. The next day was spent in a study tour in the Lake District National Park including sails on Lake Windermere and Derwentwater and a visit to the main Park Centre at Brockhole.

The following day and a half were taken up with four themes : Reconciling Conservation and Development; Working with People; Mechanisms - What and How; and International Opportunities. The scene for each theme was set by a series of case studies in plenary session, after each of which there were workshops each of about fifteen participants who discussed the theme in terms of a pre-circulated series of specific points for consideration and a number of suggested outputs. Rapporteurs in each workshop distilled the main points out of each theme and these were reported back for discussion and comment in the penultimate plenary session.

During the course of the week a draft Declaration (the Lake District Declaration) and a draft Resolution were prepared by Dr Duncan Poore and Dr Jeffrey McNeely respectively. These were circulated and comments sought on them from all participants. At the closing plenary session of the symposium the terms of the Declaration and the draft Resolution, amended to take account of the views received, were formally agreed. The Declaration was issued to the press a few days after the symposium and has been widely distributed through IUCN and other international organisations. The draft Resolution has been sent to IUCN for submission to its Seventeenth General Assembly to be held in Costa Rica in February 1988.

At an early stage in the proceedings a short paper was circulated outlining a project for an international seminar on protected landscapes in Europe, to be run as a

travelling seminar for about 30/35 professionals in the style of the long established seminar on national parks organised annually in USA/Canada. The lead organisation would be the Federation of Nature and National Parks of Europe, with a wide range of collaborators and sponsors, whose support, it was considered, would be readily forthcoming. Initially, the seminar would take place every two years, with its duration being of the order of three weeks. The proposal was discussed in the concluding session of the symposium and welcomed unanimously, with the proviso that the title be widened from 'protected landscapes' to 'protected areas'. The feasibility of the project is now being explored with the relevant international and national agencies and organisations.

From this brief account of the origin, organisation and programme of the Symposium it will be seen that there were a number of identifiable products from it which the Countryside Commission and the Council of Europe hope will be of practical value to governmental and non-governmental organisations, academics and individual experts worldwide who are concerned with promoting the concept of protected landscapes or who are responsible for establishing them and maintaining their essential character on the ground.

In addition to the Lake District Declaration, the draft Resolution on protected landscapes submitted to IUCN for adoption at the 1988 General Assembly and the project to establish an international seminar on protected areas in Europe there are three principal publications which directly contribute to the body of knowledge about protected landscapes. These are :

1. Protected Landscapes : Experience around the World - prepared by the IUCN Conservation Monitoring Centre for the International Symposium on Protected Landscapes.
2. Protected Landscapes : The UK Experience - prepared by Duncan and Judy Poore for the Countryside Commission, Countryside Commission for Scotland, Department of the Environment of Northern Ireland and IUCN.
3. Proceedings of the International Symposium on Protected Landscapes, Grange-over-Sands, England, 5-10 October 1987 - prepared by the Symposium Secretary, John Foster.



'Human beings are a part of nature: their spiritual and material wellbeing depends upon the wisdom applied to the protection and use of living resources' - 1982 Bali Declaration
(Bruce W Davis)

The Right Honourable Lord Belstead, Minister of State for the Environment, Countryside and Water, speaking at the opening dinner of the Symposium about protected areas in Britain, said :

"This is the first time so many experts worldwide have come together specifically to examine the future of protected landscapes. Certainly this is a timely conference. Pressure on the world's resources has never been greater. As populations increase and countries strive to raise living standards, the need to manage our resources for the sustainable benefit of all becomes ever more crucial.

"The expression sustainable development will be mentioned frequently during the discussions. True conservation - the achievement of economic growth based on sustaining our renewable resources - is the underlying message of the World Conservation Strategy. Within sustainable development we must retain protected areas for their beauty and the richness of wildlife they contain.

"The British countryside is already the product of a long period of sustainable development. The challenge before us is to find ways to allow that development to continue at a pace and rhythm which will keep our countryside beautiful and yet satisfy the social and economic needs of those who live there. For, make no mistake, not only is it impossible to turn the clock back, it is also fruitless to try to preserve everything as it presently exists.

"In Britain we have developed different kinds of protected landscapes, but our national parks in England and Wales are possibly the most relevant to this conference. There are ten of them. In one of them, the Lake District, two hundred years ago, one of Britain's greatest poets, William Wordsworth, made his home and in his 'Guide to the Lakes' he wrote, '... Persons of pure taste deem the district a sort of national property in which every man has a right and interest who has an eye to perceive and a heart to enjoy'.

"Like a number of other countries, we have been in the business of protected areas for quite a long time. I believe we have something useful to contribute on this subject, as well as much to learn from others. Conservation is an international concern: everyone present at this symposium brings his or her own experience. Whether you are from the United States, where the national park movement began; from our neighbours in Europe, with whom we are participating in the European Year of the Environment; or from developing countries, where conservation of natural resources is vital to sustainable development - in every case, I know that the symposium conveners look to you to make your own contribution so that the outcome is as international as the composition of its participants.

"The opportunities, worldwide, of carving new national parks out of pristine wilderness are few. More and more we will need to look at manmade landscapes as something worthy of protection in their own right. If this symposium can help to establish the concept of protected landscapes more clearly, to promote the importance of the approach - especially as a means of linking conservation and development - and to encourage international co-operation, it will have achieved a great deal. I wish you every success in this endeavour."

KEYNOTE ADDRESS

Dr Kenton R Miller, Director General, IUCN

The subject of protected landscapes is one which has been awaiting the systematic attention of natural resource managers for some time. It is a privilege to be in the United Kingdom, a nation which has gained a great deal of experience on how to manage nature in places where man has been present for a very long time, where options to preserve nature in its wild state no longer remain available, and where the maintenance of biological diversity can only be achieved with a mixed wild and domesticated landscape.

We have people here who are concerned with the management of natural resources, officers working at the policy level, field and community workers, and university teachers and researchers. We must explore together both the conceptual and the practical aspects of landscape management, open our minds to new thoughts, establish new theories and suggest new practices. We also need to develop further our professional perspectives as a socially responsible group concerned with the conservation of nature and the future of mankind.

In 1978, the Commission on National Parks & Protected Areas made a commitment to the Assembly of IUCN to analyse systematically the world's protected areas, to report on the status and trends of these areas, and to orientate the establishment of a global network of protected areas. This network was to be designed, among other things, to ensure that representative samples of nature would be maintained and passed along into the future, serving both today's peoples and those of the next century.

This commitment required the establishment of a biogeographical classification system of use for conservation purposes and the establishment of a systematic way to categorize the management of protected areas. A network of specialists was drawn from all continents consisting of colleagues from the sciences, resource management, academia, and private conservation organizations. Working sessions were held in each continent to enable local experts to examine specific problems and opportunities. From a regional perspective it was possible to deal with the fundamental issues. What are the gaps in the protected area system? What are the priorities?

Following a decade of work by the Commission, strategies have been developed which guide action, orientate investment and provide leadership to resource managers, economists, planners and conservation organizations. The conservation community now has a reasonable idea what must be done. Now, we must develop and employ tools to cover the various situations facing managers, and the gaps must be filled. In five short years, when this community gathers at the 4th World Congress on National Parks, in Panama in 1992, it should be prepared to respond on progress and accomplishments.

At the 3rd World Congress on National Parks, in Bali in 1982, the central theme was to examine how parks and protected areas contributed to sustainable development - how they can and do support the long term stable flow of water, the continued production of fisheries, production of thatch, employment, tourism and the maintenance of biologically diverse ecosystems.

The proceedings from the Congress, the Bali Action Plan, the Bali Declaration, and the resulting manuals on managing protected areas in the tropics, and managing coastal and marine protected areas, again demonstrate how careful analysis by a professional network can address some of the principal questions facing nature conservation and human development.

The World Conservation Strategy calls for action to maintain Earth's diverse biological life, to ensure that ecological processes continue, and that, where living resources are to be utilized, this use be managed sustainably. To achieve these aims various different approaches to the management of natural resources are required. No single approach, such as the Yellowstone-type of national park, can address the entire set of aims.

The traditional set of categories for the management of wildlands features several key characteristics:

- a) some wild areas are managed to exclude human interaction, including roads, noise and other types of anthropomorphic disturbances (strict nature reserves);
- b) other areas are managed to promote such limited uses as recreation, scientific research, monitoring, and education (national parks); and,
- c) still others are designed to organize a broad set of uses which include the compatible physical exploitation of renewable resources (multiple-use areas), while remaining generally free of human settlement.

Each category requires some level of development to accomplish the objectives of management. Even the strict nature reserve will need infrastructure to protect boundaries and to provide for personnel and communications.

Thus, protected areas are territories where uses by people are promoted, yet limited to achieve particular objectives. For example, particular species or communities of species are to be protected, scenery is to be maintained, recreation promoted, wood produced, scientific research and education supported and hunting and fishing permitted. Each of these objectives requires associated developments. The package of objectives and corresponding developments and management prescriptions needed to meet those objectives provides the framework for the management plan for each area.

With the emergence of recent science from population genetics and the new field of conservation biology, conservation managers have begun to ask serious biologically-orientated questions which challenge much previous work. For example, are existing protected areas of adequate size and appropriate shape to contain sufficient numbers and diversity of species and habitats? A small wild area can become a biological island. Over time, extinction rates can so increase that such areas can remain scenically beautiful yet become impoverished of the very species which the reserve was established to protect. These areas, over the long haul, may provide recreation resources and scenery, but contribute little to the maintenance of biological diversity.

Alternatively, a protected area may remain biologically significant by retaining important and diverse wild plant and animal species and habitat. Yet, such an area may not be scenically interesting or of value for recreation. In fact, many man-modified landscapes may be of extreme value for the conservation of nature. Examples include sites featuring wild cultivars of crop plants and many birds.

So, as professionals, the task is one of designing and applying the best tool for the job to be done. Each category of management - a package of consistent objectives and means - can serve a particular purpose. The New Delhi definition of national park in the image of Yellowstone, provides a model entirely relevant for the purpose of managing large wild ecosystems with a minimum of anthropomorphic disturbance, while promoting carefully controlled recreation, education, research and monitoring.

The protected landscape is a model for nature management applied in the United Kingdom, elsewhere in Europe, and in some limited cases further afield. A key question is whether the protected landscape is a true category of management?

Should it be recognized as a tool in the resource manager's tool box along with the strict nature reserve, national park and national forest, among others? Perhaps four characteristics can serve to put this choice into perspective:

- a) Does the protected landscape, as a defined area, receive orderly management under a plan which prescribes goals and means? Protected landscapes in the UK, and elsewhere, have management plans comparable in technical terms to those employed for other categories.
- b) Are protected landscapes defined by systematically derived typologies? Protected landscapes have been selected to provide representative samples of predetermined landscape types.
- c) Is there universal support for use of the protected landscape approach to management? The IUCN survey prepared for this Symposium shows use of the category in 39 countries.
- d) Does the category contribute to the aims of the World Conservation Strategy? It is entirely possible for such areas to be designed and managed to maintain biological diversity, ecological processes and sustainability.

Protected landscapes are particularly useful, from a biological point of view, where:

- a) options for wild area management are no longer available in a particular biotic region;
- b) the natural community requires man modification;
- c) the remaining wild area is small and, to retain maximum biological diversity, it must be surrounded by a zone made up of rehabilitated man-modified landscape to achieve an effectively larger size.

Protected landscapes are also useful from the cultural point of view to retain human practices and the resulting scenery, and to study the impacts of these practices on long term productivity and diversity.

I suggest that the Symposium focus upon four specific tasks:

- a) to prepare a conceptual framework for the protected landscape as a category of management, defining its role in the family of categories already recognized, and clarify when and how the category is to be applied;
- b) to examine the status and trends in the application of protected areas around the world;
- c) should it be concluded that the protected landscape is indeed a legitimate category of management, to prepare a message to the 17th General Assembly of IUCN, accordingly; and,
- d) to advise IUCN, Unesco, UNEP, FAO, and other organizations which work on protected area management on ways and means to promote and implement the protected landscape category to further the aims of the World Conservation Strategy.

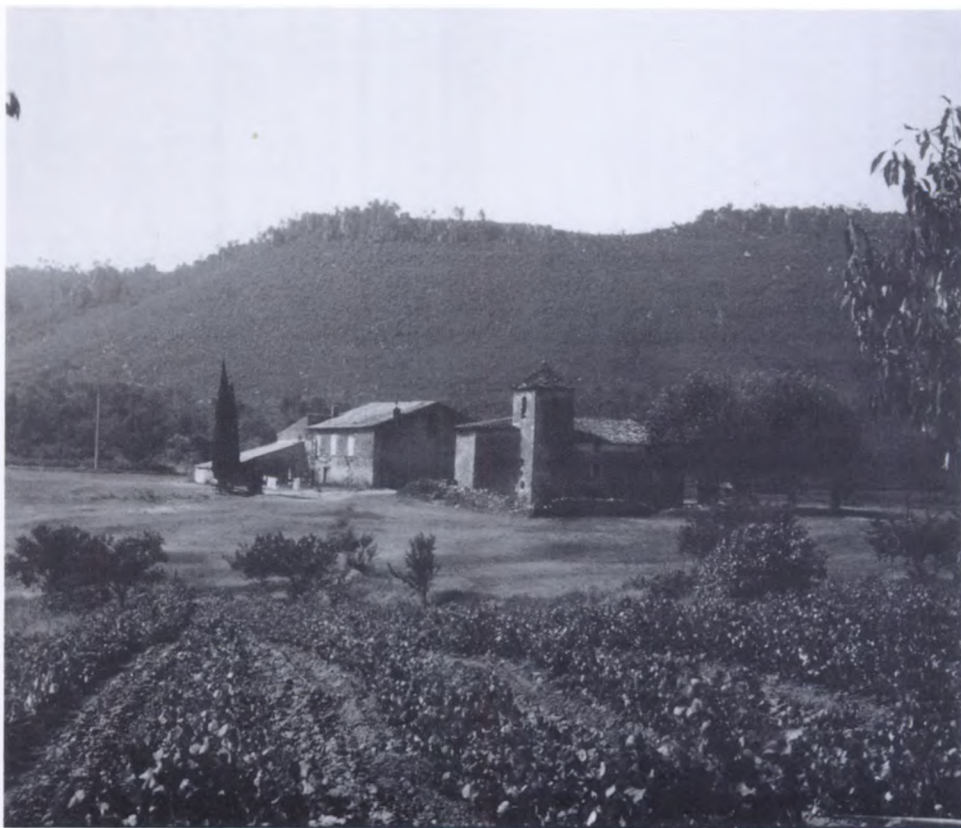
Allow me to offer some specific suggestions for deliberation:

- seek to provide management tools for landscapes in areas featuring centuries old human history, in areas where small wild sites need effective extension to gain required size and buffering and in areas where intervention is required to maintain species or habitats;
- keep biological considerations foremost, to meet the aims of the World Conservation Strategy;
- be rigorous with terminology and nomenclature;
- set institutional and professional turf and tradition aside and focus on the objectives and means of management;

- beware of the political danger that protected landscapes can be used as the 'easy way out' by governments rather than deal with the more complex and painful choices involved in setting up strict nature reserves or national parks where such are possible and technically desirable to meet conservation and development goals;
- and, above all, drop once and for all the perception of a hierarchy among categories of management; that the national park is the 'best' or the 'highest'; that the protected landscape is 'second class'.

The protected landscape is a different means to meet a particular end. It is a different job which the national park tool is not designed to handle. It offers a way to blend conservation and development and to maintain the use of land in a particular form. Ultimately, it can provide the nucleus for the management of the overall, non-protected, rural territory. These areas provide tools to local levels of government which give them the means to contribute both to local needs and global priorities.

Having stressed the biological requirements of conservation management, it is important that we do not forget our love of beauty and harmony in the countryside, and the deep-rooted need we all share in spending time on that land to regenerate our minds, our bodies and our humanity.



In a protected landscape buildings and other artefacts should sit comfortably in their surroundings with a strong sense of belonging there. (John Foster)

THE ROLE OF IUCN

Three important papers were distributed to all participants in advance of the Symposium. These had been prepared by the Commission on National Parks & Protected Areas (CNPPA), the Conservation Monitoring Centre (CMC) and the Environmental Law Commission (ELC) respectively in order to provide background material relevant to the principal matters to be considered at the Symposium and which would be of practical value to participants in preparing themselves for the various workshop sessions.

Illustrated presentations on the subjects of these three foundation papers were made by representatives of CNPPA, CMC and ELC at an early plenary session to draw out the key points from the papers. What now follows are extended summaries of the three presentations.



Where it all began - Yellowstone National Park, established in 1872. The concept of protected landscapes has added a new dimension to the conservation scene potentially of great value as the twenty-first century approaches. (John Foster)

Protected Landscapes : Contributing to Conservation

**P H C Lucas, Deputy Chairman and Dr J W Thorsell, Executive Officer,
IUCN Commission on National Parks and Protected Areas**

The protected landscape concept developed first in Europe where large populations in small land areas make protection of extensive tracts of wild nature impossible. However, it is a concept of increasing relevance to younger countries where the increasing rate of development has brought dramatic changes and has left little that is natural. Today, with growing antagonism to the economic, social and political cost of transferring land from private to public ownership, protected landscapes provide a means of sharing stewardship between public organisations and private landowners.

Through its Commission on National Parks and Protected Areas (CNPPA), IUCN has been collecting information on protected areas for some thirty years. Initially, national parks of the Yellowstone model were listed, along with strict nature reserves. However, in 1978 CNPPA members reviewed and expanded the categories of conservation lands, recognising the wide range of means by which conservation goals can be achieved.

The new approach retained the goal of establishing national parks according to the definition adopted by the IUCN general assembly at New Delhi in 1969, but identified national parks as one of eight categories contributing to conservation. Of these eight categories, CNPPA collects data on five and publishes information on them in the United Nations List of National Parks and Protected Areas.

The five categories are :

- I. **Strict Nature Reserve ...** where nature is protected with minimum human interference.
- II. **National Park ...** a large area of wild land where resource use is generally prohibited, but with provision for appropriate public use and enjoyment.
- III. **Natural Monument or Landmark ...** an area with similar qualities and protection as a national park, but with less diversity.
- IV. **Managed Nature Reserve ...** a protected area where habitat may be manipulated to achieve conservation goals.
- V. **Protected Landscape or Seascape ...** defined as first, an area with landscapes with special aesthetic qualities resulting from human interaction with land and, secondly, an area that is primarily natural, but is managed intensively for recreation and tourism.

Three further categories were identified as :

- VI. **Resource Reserve ...** an area of wild land awaiting evaluation as to its potential for production and/or protection.
- VII. **Anthropological Reserve ...** a predominantly natural area where inhabitants maintain traditional ways of life.
- VIII. **Multiple Use Management Area ...** an area managed on a sustained yield basis for production and recreation.

(These eight categories are at present being refined by CNPPA, and a revised system will be put forward in 1988.)

**IUCN Definition of Category V Protected Landscapes and Seascapes
(from the 1985 United Nations List of National Parks & Protected Areas)**

The scope of areas that fall within this category is necessarily broad because of the wide variety of semi-natural and cultural landscapes that occur within various nations. This may be reflected in two types of areas:

- those whose landscapes possess special aesthetic qualities which are a result of the interaction of man and land, and
- those that are primarily natural areas managed intensively by man for recreational and tourism uses.

In the former case, these landscapes may demonstrate certain cultural manifestations such as customs, beliefs, social organization, or material traits as reflected in land use patterns. These landscapes are characterized by either scenically attractive or aesthetically unique patterns of human settlement. Traditional land use practices associated with agricultural, grazing, and fishing are dominant. The area is large enough to ensure the integrity of the landscape pattern.

The latter case often includes natural or scenic areas found along coastlines and lake shores, in hilly or mountainous terrain, or along the shores of rivers, often adjacent to tourist highways or population centres, many will have the potential to be developed for a variety of outdoor recreational uses with national significance.

In some cases, the area may be privately held and the use of either central or delegated planning control would be necessary to ensure the perpetuation of both the land use and the life style. Means of government assistance might be required to improve the standard of living while maintaining the natural quality of the site through appropriate management practices. In other instances, the areas are established and managed under public ownership, or a combination of public and private ownership.

The United Nations List has two other categories stemming from UNESCO initiatives which form part of international programmes and may include areas already listed under other headings. They are :

- IX. Biosphere Reserves ... these are designed to provide a flow of research information from areas of diversity covering the spectrum from protection to human use. An example is China's Wolong Nature Reserve which includes farming activities of ethnic minorities, a habitat of the giant Panda and a major research centre.
- X. World Heritage Sites ... these are natural or mixed natural and cultural sites designated and listed under the World Heritage Convention. Examples include the Category II national Parks of Westland/Mount Cook in New Zealand designated as a natural site and the Macchu Picchu historic sanctuary in Peru designated as a mixed natural and cultural site.

The key factors present in protected landscapes are nature, people and protection, with protection generally achieved through statutory planning powers. There are aesthetically pleasing landscapes in many different situations. The rice terraces of Bali in Indonesia are one example; the wheatfields of Nepal's Kathmandu Valley are another. However, in both cases there is relatively little nature present, nor is there legal protection to retain the intrinsic character of the areas.

The World Bank, in an interesting policy statement on wildlands, defines Category V protected landscapes more briefly than the IUCN definition in this way : 'Protected landscapes are areas ... often significantly modified by people, but which still contain important wildland resources. Traditional land uses are often permitted to accommodate the needs and interests of local populations. Land use control is often at the local government level'. The Council of Europe and the European Community also have definitions of areas which are similar to protected landscapes.

Among the variety of protected areas recognised by IUCN, protected landscapes are important complementing, as they do the other categories. Their main distinctiveness is that they are not so much a tool to preserve biological diversity and representative ecosystems as to conserve landscapes with biological, aesthetic and cultural values.

Category V should not be seen as an easy option for reclassifying a Category II national park which is largely unmodified, but is subject to some resource pressure. Nepal's Sagarmatha National Park is both a World Heritage Site and a Category II national park. Physically inside, but legally excluded from the boundaries are a number of villages with a total population of some three thousand people. There is some cultivation near the villages, grazing around and beyond them and both authorised removal of forest produce and reforestation with local species. However, the impact of all of this is small in the context of a large spectacular national park and it remains predominantly natural as a Category II area.

It is important to remember the request of the Tenth General Assembly of IUCN that the term 'national park', be not used for areas that do not fit the Category II definition. However, this recommendation is more honoured in the breach than in the observance. For example the Hoge Veluwe National Park in the Netherlands is listed as a Category IV managed nature reserve, while the Peak District, like other national parks in the United Kingdom, is a Category V protected landscape.

There are already many Category V protected landscapes worldwide and the number is increasing. It is therefore timely to review and give a greater focus to the concept and an even greater recognition and use of it in the future. Among Category V areas there are a variety of landscapes and approaches to protection and a wide range of management problems.

Dartmoor is an example from the United Kingdom. The area typifies what has been described as '... the challenge to develop conservation policies in a relatively small densely populated country with very little unaltered natural environment, but where there is a strong demand for conservation action'. Dartmoor has experienced human occupation since the Bronze Age and there are remains from that time through to the farming activities and settlements of today. Most of the land is in private ownership and protection is achieved through planning controls. Pressures within the area include a trend towards more intensive farming, converting moorland into developed pasture, the use of land for military exercises and a substantial visitor presence. Nevertheless, while Dartmoor is not a national park in the Yellowstone model, it is a landscape where significant natural cultural values exist and are being protected.

Austria has a protected landscape with a national park title - Hohe Tauern. In this case, the lengthy debate leading to protected landscape status identifies, in addition to the development/preservation tension, the problem posed by different governmental jurisdictions under a federal system. Efforts to establish a national park began almost eighty years ago and over the years voluntary organisations purchased land for protection and recreation and nature reserves were established. Three state governments are involved and in 1983 the Karnten Government legally established the Hohe Tauern National Park. The state of Salzburg followed suit with the land under its jurisdiction and excellent progress is now being made in establishing effective management, although the state of Tyrol has yet to complete the legal process. Much of the land is in private ownership and effective conservation relies on planning mechanisms and landowner co-operation. Parts of the area are used for sheep and cattle grazing; there are attractive alpine villages which draw many visitors to the area for recreation and to study nature.



Dartmoor National Park, in south west England, is a highly distinctive upland landscape of moorland and granite tors. It has experienced human occupation since the Bronze Age and today is protected against pressure from recreation, increased farming activity and military use. (P H C Lucas)



Mount Taishan in China is a place of great religious significance. Its vegetation, much modified by centuries of visitation, has been restored by careful planting to its earlier natural character. (P H C Lucas)

Taishan is a different type of area - the Mount Taishan Scenic Beauty and Historic Interest Zone, in the Shandong Province of the People's Republic of China is an area of immense cultural value to the world's most populous nation. Taishan's cultural significance stems from its natural character. It is first among China's sacred mountains, revered by Taoists, Buddhists and Confucians alike. Today, there are three million visitors to Taishan every year and the presence of this large number of people creates management problems. Although Taishan has only a few villages on its boundaries, officials were appointed to protect the mountain from 770 B.C., but thousands of years of use modified the vegetation greatly and planting, using species occurring naturally, has restored a natural quality to much of the protection zone which is enjoyed by many visitors for its recreated natural beauty. Central government laws and local regulations now control activities and a coordinating administrative committee draws together the various arms of government to achieve the sometimes conflicting goals of protection and public use.

Another Asian example where the title of national park is used for a protected landscape is Japan's Fuji-Hakone-Izu National Park. This area includes Fuji and other volcanic mountains, Lake Hakone and other lakes, the Izu Peninsula and an island chain. It contains both public and private land and there is a large resident population and an intense pressure from tourism, including school children on organised visits. Administration is shared between central and local government, and in spite of the pressures, nature protection is achieved along the shores of Lake Hakone, for example, and on Fujiyama itself, once the visitor gets beyond the end of the road.

The Midmar Public Resort Nature Reserve in South Africa is a different type of protected landscape. All government-owned and managed by the Natal Parks Board, Midmar includes a major reservoir and its gathering ground. Facilities include a museum and accommodation units and tours enable visitors to view wildlife, most of it introduced to the veldt area of mixed grassland.

Recreation and conservation areas around major reservoirs account for a number of National Recreational Areas in the United States which are classed as Category V areas, along with National Seashores, Lakeshores, Scenic Rivers and the Scenic Corridor of the Appalachian Trail.

Cape Cod National Seashore is a particularly good example of an American protected landscape. Its cultural values include Indian sites and links with the arrival of the Pilgrims before their settlement at Plymouth, Massachusetts, some three hundred and sixty years ago. The protected area covers 18,000 hectares, almost 7,000 of them tidal. Cape Cod has many natural values in its coastal ecosystems and interpretation of these to some of the five million visitors a year is an important task of the US National Parks Service. Some of these visitors enjoy environmentally compatible recreation; others come with off-road vehicles, needing constraint to protect the fragile ecosystems. Ninety percent of the National Seashore is federally owned.

In contrast, most of the land in England's Heritage Coasts is private, with key areas given special protection by organisations such as the Nature Conservancy Council and the National Trust. On the other side of the world New Zealand's Queen Elizabeth II National Trust for Open Space is facilitating the protection of natural values through voluntary covenants given in perpetuity by landowners. Where these have been negotiated over adjoining properties and are backed by local government planning controls the areas are being protected and natural values with them to the extent that some may well deserve listing under Category V.

A quite different New Zealand situation which could also merit listing is a government owned reserve complex known as Te Paki Farm Park. This is a large area at the northern tip of the country, purchased by the New Zealand Government from its private owners in 1967 to protect its natural values and to develop it for farming and the settlement of landless farmers. Realisation of its range of values led to a decision to retain it in public ownership and it is now managed by the Department of Conservation as a demonstration that farming can be compatible with recreation and with the preservation of natural and cultural values.

Potentially Category V areas can be seascapes as well as landscapes as, for example, Australia's Great Barrier Reef Marine Park. The management authority puts this in Category VIII as a multiple use area containing within it '...the full spectrum of the levels of protection ranging from Category I through to Category VII'. The area has a management and planning structure that provides this range of protection and use and which incorporates the concept of a protected seascape. It is clearly a region where the inter-relationship of land and sea and the natural life they support is very marked, with planning mechanisms used to control use and achieve protection - a feature in common with many protected landscapes.

As these examples of protected landscapes show, there are many problems in their establishment and effective management stemming from different jurisdictions, ownerships and the problems of co-ordination and achieving between conflicting aspirations and uses. However, looking to the future, they will undoubtedly have an increasingly important role in providing a bridge between people and nature. The Bali Declaration at the 1982 World Parks Congress said '...People are a part of nature. Their spiritual and material wellbeing depends on the wisdom applied to the protection and use of living resources...!'



Te Paki Farm Park in New Zealand is a government owned and managed reserve successfully demonstrating compatibility between farming, recreation and natural coastal landscape. (P H C Lucas)

Protected Landscapes - Facts and Figures *

Dr Jeremy Harrison and Dr Zbigniew Karpowicz
Protected Areas Data Unit, IUCN Conservation Monitoring Centre

IUCN has been collecting information on protected areas for many years, for use in programme planning and development, and for increasing the level of awareness of protected area developments through preparation of publications. Information is collected from a wide range of sources and managed in three ways. Basic information on each area is stored in a computer database. This is closely linked to information sheets, managed as word-processing documents, for both individual sites and protected area systems. Further back-up is provided by extensive files of books, papers and reports.

This accumulated information was used to investigate the application of the protected landscape category around the world. As a part of its contribution to the symposium, the Protected Areas Data Unit prepared a paper reviewing the global distribution of protected landscapes (including a draft list of sites). The present paper is a summary of that review. In addition the unit produced a directory, *Protected Landscapes: Experience around the World* (funded by the British Petroleum Company plc), and worked with the Countryside Commission (assisted by the Countryside Commission for Scotland and the Department of the Environment - Northern Ireland) to produce *Protected Landscapes: The United Kingdom Experience*. Both books were seen as information documents to help symposium participants.

The synthesis of information and the results discussed here are only a reflection of the information actually held in the database. It should be noted, therefore, that information held for some categories of protected area is much better than for others. The database contains much better information on national parks and nature reserves, and even natural monuments, than on areas such as forest reserves and game management areas. Moreover, information on areas protected by the 'highest competent authority' is rather more complete than that on areas protected at provincial and state levels, or privately owned sites. Also, the mechanisms for protection of landscapes may differ from those applying to national parks; and these areas may be less 'clear cut' administratively and legally, more controlled by landuse planning legislation than natural resource protection legislation.

It is, therefore, unlikely that the picture emerging from the data is either complete, or totally accurate, and the present analysis should be treated with caution. The information can, however, be used to give an overview and to draw out significant features of the protected landscape designation as it is applied around the world, and this we have attempted to do.

Table 1 provides comparison of the data for protected landscapes for various regions around the world (the Palaearctic is subdivided into European and non-European, with the USSR falling within the latter subdivision). The Palaearctic has by far the greatest number of sites designated as protected landscapes, and the greatest total area covered. Even within this region there are differences, however, with many more areas and a greater area protected within the European countries than elsewhere within the realm. This pattern would be the same if one compared one European country with another (say France and Norway), and clearly demonstrates the variability in use of the category around the world.

* The full version of this paper, as presented to the symposium, is available from the authors at the IUCN Conservation Monitoring Centre. The paper was prepared with financial assistance from the British Petroleum Company plc.

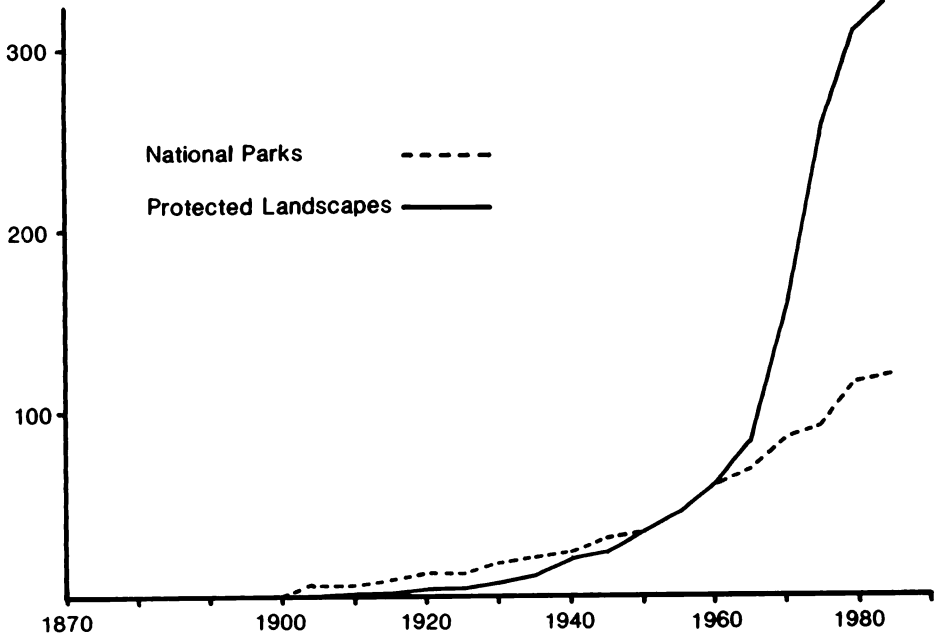


Figure 1 Comparison of rates of growth in number of protected landscapes and national parks in Europe

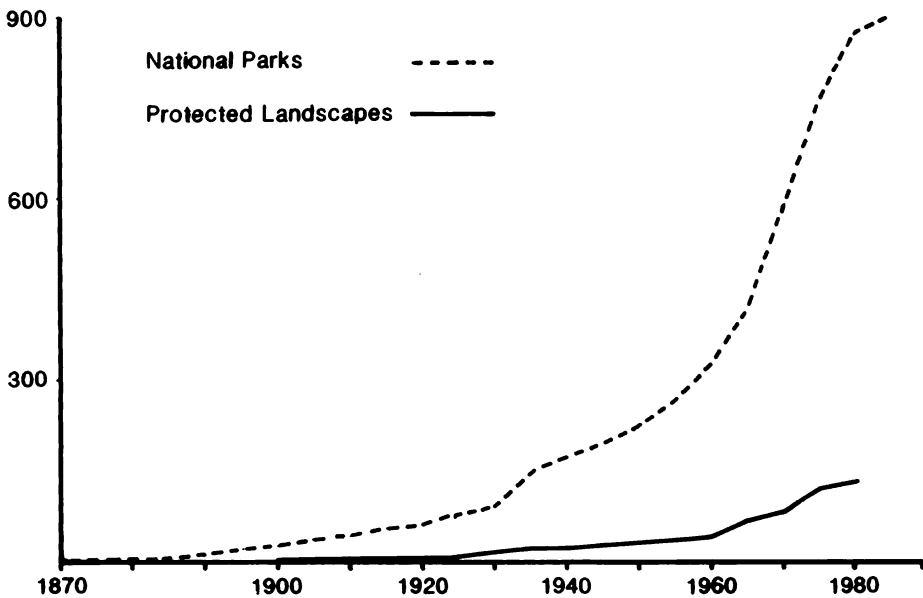


Figure 2 Comparison of rates of growth in numbers of protected landscapes and national parks outside Europe

	Number	%	area (sq.km)	%	Mean size (sq.km)
Nearctic	36	7.0	80,326	29.3	2,231
Palearctic	383	74.5	165,058	60.3	431
- Europe	(339)	(66.0)	(136,981)	(50.0)	404
- Non-Europe	(44)	(8.5)	(28,077)	(10.3)	638
Afrotropical	9	1.8	469	0.2	52
Indomalayan	30	5.8	3,174	1.2	106
Oceanian	1	0.2	61	-	61
Australian	40	7.8	3,735	1.4	93
Antarctic	-	-	-	-	-
Neotropical	15	2.9	20,813	7.6	1,388
Total	514	100	273,636	100	532

Table 1 Number and area of protected landscapes over 1000 ha by biogeographical realm

Despite having a much greater number of protected landscapes, which cover a much greater area, it should be noted that the Palearctic still contains only just over 60% of the total area of protected landscape in the world, and that a very significant area (nearly 30%) is also protected in this manner in the Nearctic. In fact, the average size of protected landscapes in Europe is rather less than, not only those of the Nearctic, but also those in the non-European countries of the Palearctic and in the Neotropical realm. Also, particularly apparent from Table 1 is the almost complete lack of designated protected landscape in Africa, and the relatively low numbers right across the developing world.

Figures 1 and 2 illustrate the rates of growth in numbers of protected landscapes in Europe and elsewhere. This rate of growth is compared to that of national parks (in the internationally accepted sense). Not only does comparison highlight the differences in proportions of areas established as national parks and as protected landscapes in the two 'regions', but it also shows how those proportions have changed with time (particularly in Europe), and how establishment 'strategies' differ. In the rest of the world establishment of national parks began earlier and has generally accelerated faster, while in Europe protected landscapes show a much greater rate of increase (similar to the curve for national parks for the rest of the world). Note that in both regions national parks were established before growth in the networks of protected landscapes began, but that in Europe growth in numbers of protected landscapes outstripped that of national parks in the 1940s.

It is clear that the concept of protected landscape varies considerably around the world, although its application is most advanced within Europe and a few other countries such as Japan. In these countries protected landscapes are generally defined within national (or federal) legislation, and extensive national systems of such areas exist. These sites often reflect both the **landscape protection** and **landscape recreation** functions of protected landscapes. Elsewhere, the sites most readily apparent as protected landscapes are those natural areas set aside either for recreation or protected in some way because of their recreation potential, and not areas set up to conserve areas of man/nature interaction. This is essentially because the areas set up for recreation are managed as federal or state systems, while areas set up chiefly to protect the man/nature interaction fit less well within the systems of these countries, unlike the situation in Europe. This is not to say that protected landscapes set up for a **landscape protection** function do not exist in these countries, but that there is no national or federal system of such areas in many cases.

The tremendous range of types of site should also be noted. Although world statistics indicate that biogeographical coverage is by no means complete (there is no real need for it to be so), protected landscapes have been established in a very wide range of habitat types, and in areas with varying human use and intensity of use. Compare, for example, the mountains of the Japanese National Parks with the man-made landscapes of some of the Czechoslovakian Protected Landscape Areas, the high level tourism in Hong Kong Country Parks with the traditional farming in French Regional Nature Parks, and so on.

The existence of various classifications of protected areas, and current attempts at new classifications, clearly illustrates that, in spite of international efforts to promote definitions, each country continues to establish its own system which reflects its particular requirements. Globally, we are currently aware of 46 individual designations which are included under the umbrella definition of protected landscape. The term national park is used in 16 countries, nature reserve in 10, nature park and park in seven and landscape protected area in five. Of the remainder, a further 33 designations appear in only one country. Surprisingly, in Europe only 16 designations are employed, with national park used in eight countries, landscape protected area in six, nature park in six and nature reserve in six.

In a number of countries existing protected landscape areas often contain within them (or have associated with them) a range of other protected natural areas. For example, national parks in the United Kingdom have within them national nature reserves, sites of special scientific interest and other planning designations, and often abut onto areas of outstanding natural beauty and heritage coasts. In Poland, landscape parks can, and do, have within them national parks, nature reserves and natural monuments and are often surrounded by areas designated as 'regions of protected landscape' (multiple-use areas).

This spectrum of protection categories often associated with the designated protected landscapes is similar in concept to the idealised situation proposed for biosphere reserves, with their core areas, buffer zones and transition zones. A major problem identified for biosphere reserve management is the fact that the administration of the transition zone, in particular, is split among an array of private and public organisations with little or no overall coordination. However, in most cases, particularly in Europe, this overall coordination of planning and development is the primary function of protected landscapes. It is not surprising, therefore, that some of the best developed biosphere reserves are also protected landscapes, good examples being the Cevennes National Park in France, and the Palava Protected Landscape Area of Czechoslovakia.

Although there are many examples of protected landscape around the world it is in Europe that the category is most intensively used, the areas so established forming part of clear protected area systems in most countries. Also, a much higher proportion of European countries' protected areas are designated as protected landscapes. Furthermore, in much of the rest of the world protected landscape systems are just evolving. It therefore seems likely that the experience of Europe may be particularly appropriate to the further development of this category around the world. Each experience is, nonetheless, valuable and we hope that this contribution, and the data from which it was developed, have been useful in indicating where that experience might lie.

Protected Landscapes : Legislative Background

Dr Malcolm J Forster, Commission on Environmental Policy, Law and Administration

Legal approaches to the question of protected landscapes differ somewhat from those adopted by landscape managers and natural scientists. The latter tend, on the whole, to seek to define with a considerable degree of detail and specificity the types and features of landscape which they wish to bring within each of the categories of protected areas established by CNPPA. They thus try to achieve a classification of some precision with careful differentiation between the component groups.

Lawyers, particularly legislative draftsmen, have traditionally approached the question from an almost diametrically opposite point. Their anxiety has been to ensure that statutory language which confers the legislative authority for the establishing of a protected areas system is sufficiently broad and liberal to enable those administering the system to include within it all potential classes of area. The temptation for the legislative draftsman, therefore, when faced with a choice, is to err on the side of greater flexibility, rather than greater specificity, of language.

This tends to obscure the task of teasing out from protected areas legislation generally those provisions which are of particular relevance to protected landscapes. That class of protected area suffers from the legal approach referred to above, even though it is in many senses the most human-oriented of the CNPPA classes, with its direct reference to the interaction between man and nature and to the management of the area with a view to tourism or recreation.

Many international conventions have recognised the importance of retaining areas in their natural state for the purposes of tourism, although in many cases this is not referred to in so many words, but represented by a reference to aesthetic or scenic value or to the benefit or enjoyment of the general public. Many other international agreements also have the incidental effect of preserving the aesthetic or scenic qualities of an area, even though their primary purpose is, e.g., the protection of certain species or ecosystems. Many such conventions also refer to the cultural, social or recreational value of the matter with which they are principally concerned.

National laws are often more explicit about the declaration of protected areas for the purposes of tourism or recreation. Some even prescribe that such areas should be sited in close proximity to centres of population and should be easy of access. Other national laws refer expressly to the spiritual or emotional welfare of the people as an objective for the declaration of protected landscapes, while some also recognise that these values are not simply to be enjoyed by the present generation, but should be preserved for posterity.

A number of national laws have developed extremely detailed and sophisticated legal regimes governing the management of such areas and regulations may extend to such matters as the removal of individual trees or bushes.

International conventions relating to the harmonious interaction between man and nature are rather less extensive, at least outside those treaties which are largely concerned with the cultural or archaeological heritage. There are, however, a number of national laws which set out to protect examples of such areas, particularly those establishing the 'nature parks' to be found in Northern Europe. Here, careful controls exist over land-use, including agricultural operations.

Examination of international and national laws specifically relating to protected areas, however, only tells half the story. In practice, landscape values are effectively protected by other parts of the general law. Of these, the most prominent is land-use planning and control. Land-use planning law varies widely from jurisdiction to jurisdiction, from rigid controls over most forms of development activity to systems of indicative 'zoning' which does not apply an individual consent requirement to each and every act of development. Although such systems are widespread, in developing countries they tend to be largely confined to urban areas. Furthermore, the more highly developed the system the greater is the danger that, in focussing on each individual development, the larger picture becomes obscured and that major projects are, paradoxically, addressed less efficiently than small ones.

In some countries, attempts have been made to control agricultural practices, although in most jurisdictions these remain outside planning controls. In sensitive areas, such as uplands and wetlands, some European countries have begun to impose controls over intensity and methods of farming. Similarly, forestry operations are also becoming subject to controls aimed at improving or maintaining aesthetic quality.

Laws exist in a number of jurisdictions to protect particular elements of landscape. These include wetlands, beaches and the foreshore, rivers and wilderness areas.

Some private law doctrines from the law of property (such as the value of private contracts and scenic easements for landscape protection) and even from the fiscal law have real, and largely unexploited, potential as vehicles of landscape protection.

It is perhaps these fields of the law not specifically related to protected areas which are most important for landscape protection, for they are of general application throughout the whole of the countryside and are not confined within the borders of protected areas. In many industrialised countries, unless such mechanisms are employed effectively, there is a danger that conservation law will fail to take proper account of the economic and social effects on rural areas of the recent revolution in public support for agriculture, with its concentration upon de-intensification and diversification in the rural economy. Whereas the former may be dealt with easily enough, the latter is much more difficult, because its entire purpose is undermined if land-use controls and conservation law have the effect of smothering economic development in the countryside. This is not merely a developed world problem, for it appears (albeit in a slightly different form) in many countries where indigenous peoples and their customary laws (which represent not only a legitimate concern, but also a considerable resource for continuing management of landscape on a sustainable basis) are increasingly coming under pressure.

Thus, the real challenge for practical conservation law in the sphere of landscape protection is to appreciate that sustainable development, if it is not to remain merely a slogan, must be seen to consist of two elements, and that there is little future in concentrating on sustainability to the exclusion of development. In managing the latter in such a manner as protected landscape (as well as other conservation) values, it may be that the traditional laws relating specifically to protected areas and to those areas alone are not going to prove the most effective or appropriate tools.



Kathmandu Valley in Nepal is an area where traditional terraced cultivation, still widely practiced, has produced a landscape of great beauty. Since 1979 it has been protected as a World Heritage Site.
(John Foster)



Ngorongoro Crater in Tanzania is a World Heritage Site and a Biosphere Reserve, of international importance both for the conservation of its wildlife and its unique landscape character.
(John Foster)

OTHER INTERNATIONAL PROGRAMMES

The Work of UNESCO related to Protected Landscapes

Jane Robertson Vernhes, Division of Ecological Science, UNESCO

BIOSPHERE RESERVES AND THE MAN AND THE BIOSPHERE PROGRAMME

The Man and the Biosphere Programme (MAB) is an international programme of scientific research and training aimed at providing the scientific basis and the trained personnel required to use and conserve the natural resources of the biosphere rationally. It was launched in 1971 and over the years has covered a variety of topics, ranging from basic ecological studies through improving understanding of the impact of man's activities in relatively undisturbed ecosystems to more artificial 'human use systems' created by agriculture, forestry and human settlements. The project on biosphere reserves is one of the first MAB project areas aiming at the conservation of natural areas and of the genetic material they contain. Essentially, a biosphere reserve has three main concerns:

- a **conservation concern** i.e. the need to reinforce the conservation of genetic resources and ecosystems and the maintenance of biological diversity;
- a **logistic concern** i.e. the need to set up a well identified international network of areas directly related to MAB field research and monitoring activities, including the accompanying training and information exchange;
- a **development concern** i.e. the need to associate environmental protection and land resource development as a governing principle for research and education activities of the MAB programme.

The emphasis on combining multiple functions within a single given site and on linking these sites into an international network based on a common understanding of scientific purpose made the biosphere reserve concept different from other more traditional means of establishing protected areas. In order to combine these multiple interests a three-part zonation system has been designed, as follows :

1. A **core area**, consisting of examples of minimally disturbed ecosystems characteristic of one of the world's terrestrial or coastal/marine regions. A core area has secure legal protection, e.g. as a strict nature reserve. Only activities that do not adversely affect natural ecosystem processes are allowed, although in sub-climax ecosystems, human intervention, such as subscribed fire or controlled grazing, may be needed to maintain the natural characteristics.
2. A **buffer zone** adjoining or surrounding the core area. Its limits are legally set out and usually correspond with the outer limits of a protected area, such as a national park. Here, the activities are diverse and are so co-ordinated that they help to buffer the core from any harmful outside disturbance. They serve the multiple objectives of the biosphere reserve and can include basic and applied research, environmental monitoring, traditional land use, recreation and tourism, general environmental education and specialist training.
3. Beyond these, a **transition zone** which is not demarcated, but corresponds to a dynamic, ever expanding co-operation zone where the work of the biosphere reserve is applied directly to the needs of the local communities. Thus the transition zone may contain settlements, fields and forests and other economic activities which are in harmony with the natural environment and the biosphere reserve. This zone of co-operation is particularly useful in helping the biosphere reserve to integrate into the planning process of its surrounding region.

After the biosphere reserve concept was introduced in 1974, MAB National Committees were invited to propose sites for recognition. The first sites were designated in 1976: as of mid-1987 there are 266 biosphere reserves in 70 countries

around the world, covering a very wide variety of ecosystems and a whole range of ways in which the biosphere reserve concept has been applied in practice.

Undoubtedly the biosphere reserve concept is highly suited to conserving landscapes, particularly in that these latter can be considered as being representative examples of man's harmonious interaction with nature. The reasons for this are as follows:

1. biosphere reserves can offer a 'humanistic' approach to nature where man is considered as a positive key factor in maintaining biological diversity;
2. biosphere reserves can cover protected landscapes which are representative of certain types of land use which have evolved in equilibrium with the biotic and abiotic environment. As such, these sites offer microcosms of sustainable development as defined by the World Conservation Strategy. Also, they can be seen as a type of nonconventional protected area in which to test out alternative sustainable land use systems which could subsequently be applied to the land outside protected areas;
3. biosphere reserves which cover protected landscapes can allow for the maintenance of land uses which have elsewhere been abandoned, and hence can provide living, genetic reservoirs for traditional crop varieties and old breeds of livestock, as well as the associated ruderal species;
4. biosphere reserves are areas built upon the cultural identity of resident populations and hence serve to maintain local cultural heritage;
5. biosphere reserves offer opportunities for dialogue and co-operation at the local and international levels which endow these sites with longer term security beyond legal enforcement. Indeed, the best biosphere reserves are those where local landowners and resident populations are active in the day to day running and management. The concept has an added advantage in that individual sites together form an international network which provides a framework for information exchange and for co-operation between sites with similar conditions and/or land use problems.

THE WORLD HERITAGE CONVENTION

The Convention concerning the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage was adopted by the Unesco General Conference in 1971. It aims essentially to identify and to protect the cultural and natural properties of outstanding universal value for the benefit of all mankind. The Convention has been operational since 1978. Today, 98 countries have joined the Convention, thus making it one of the most successful international treaties in the field of conservation.

It is important to consider how the Convention operates in order to understand better its relationship to protected landscapes. It is the countries, or States Parties to the Convention, which prepare and submit nominations of cultural and natural properties for inclusion in the World Heritage List. These nominations are evaluated by non-governmental organisations having non-partial expertise in either culture or nature: the Convention names the International Council for Monuments and Sites (ICOMOS) to evaluate cultural nominations and the International Union for Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (IUCN) for natural nominations. It is the World Heritage Committee, made up of 21 States and whose membership changes on a rotational basis, which makes decisions on whether or not a site is to be included on the World Heritage List and on requests for support from the World Heritage Fund. This latter Fund is made up essentially from the contributions of State Parties. The Committee also draws up the 'Operational Guidelines for the Implementation of the World Heritage Convention' containing the criteria against which nominations are evaluated.

The question of protected landscapes first arose in 1984 when the World Heritage Committee recognised the difficulty of densely populated countries with a long history of human occupation in identifying truly 'natural' sites. The Committee

asked that a Task Force look further into the question of rural landscapes and how they related to the Convention and to the criteria for cultural and natural properties, i.e. where they have both natural and cultural attributes which offer something which is unique and possibly of World Heritage value.

Although the Convention nominally brings together culture and heritage, there is inconsistency as to whether it can marry them together. The Task Force noted that the definition of cultural heritage in Article 1 of the Convention makes reference to the natural environment of a cultural property. Article 2, defining natural heritage, makes no reference to culture except from the aesthetic point of view of natural beauty. But what is meant here by 'natural'? The criteria of the Operational Guidelines are not consistent with these definitions and, in particular, it is under the criteria for natural heritage that one finds reference to 'areas of exceptional natural beauty or exceptional combinations of natural and cultural elements'. The idea of mixed cultural/natural properties seems, however, to have been in the minds of those who drafted the Convention and the Guidelines since specific mention is made in paragraph 15 of the latter, in which State Parties are invited '... to include in their submissions properties which derive their outstanding universal value from a particularly significant combination of cultural and natural features'.

The Task Force concluded that landscapes could be considered under the Convention and that, since the Convention itself cannot be altered, some concession could be made to them in the Guidelines. The Task Force recommended the following conditions so that only the best sites could be considered for World Heritage Listing:

- Control of the rate and the scale of change of developments and land use practices in a landscape. The Convention cannot be used to fix a landscape and convert it into a static museum piece. Rather, care should be taken to conserve the harmony of a landscape in a dynamic, evolutive context.
- Assurance of the long term integrity of a landscape. A landscape must have some form of security under protective legislation, coupled with effective management. Adding this clause would cut down the possibility of nominating any rural landscape without legal protection.

The World Heritage Committee and its Bureau did not adopt the recommendations of the Task Force, which may have been premature. Indeed, the world-wide perception of landscapes as a valid form of nature protection is a relatively recent phenomenon. Some members of the Committee considered that it might devalue the work of the Convention to include properties where the picture had been modified by man, although ecologists realise that almost all ecosystems of the planet have been altered to some degree by human activities. The Committee left the question open, but asked ICOMOS and IUCN to use the recommendations of the Task Force if a protected landscape was nominated to the World Heritage List. This was the case in 1987 with the Lake District National Park in the United Kingdom.

The Symposium on Protected Landscapes is therefore most timely and particularly useful for the work of the Convention for the following two reasons:

- The Lake District Declaration has been drawn up by an international group of experts in the field of nature conservation and recognises the importance of protected landscapes in conserving natural heritage. It will serve to reassure the World Heritage Committee on the value of such sites, some of which may perhaps be considered as possessing qualities of 'outstanding universal value'.
- The Symposium has given international exposure to the concept of protected landscapes, which should be widely promoted as a consequence. This increase in interest in protected landscapes will encourage State Parties in densely populated countries to consider landscapes when drawing up their indicative lists of properties which they intend to nominate to the World Heritage List.

Work of The Council of Europe related to Protected Landscapes

Mme Marie-Aude L'Hyver, Council of Europe

The Council of Europe is a forum for 21 European democracies, a 'thinking laboratory' set up to serve the said democracies; its mission is to promote a more unified Europe, to improve the quality of life of each European and to defend European human rights in all forms. Its Environment Conservation and Management Division has now been working for 25 years in four main fields.

The first one is **the conservation of species of flora and fauna** and hence protection and management of their habitats. This includes periodic surveys of natural European biocenoses. The outcome of this work was the drawing up of the Convention for the Conservation of European Wildlife and Natural Habitats (Bern Convention) which covers all aspects of the protection of species and natural habitats and has, since 1979, commissioned several specific studies.

The second field of activity is the **management of our natural environment** and this has led to such important results as the European Soil Charter and the Ecological Charter for mountain regions. A series of booklets on the management of major biotopes is now being developed.

The third field is **the development of networks of protected areas**, aimed at promoting the conservation of representative examples of sites or species which are typical, rare or endangered in Europe. Two complementary networks are being developed simultaneously: sites holding the European Diploma and the European network of biogenetic reserves.

The fourth field of activity focuses on **information and education**. Most of the work involved here is done by the European Information Centre for Nature Conservation and the Environment and its national agencies in the 21 member States. In addition, a whole series of activities tries to encourage a more respectful and understanding attitude to the environment among decision makers and elected officials, teachers and school children, farmers and hunters and so on.

In view of the scope of this seminar, I will concentrate here on our activities concerning protected areas.

THE EUROPEAN DIPLOMA

This is a 'quality label' awarded to sites of European interest, a value added to protected areas, an argument to help ensure their long-term protection when decisions must be taken. It was created in 1975 and its aims are:

- to arouse, or effectively promote, a sense of responsibility for the preservation of the natural environment in Europe;
- to acknowledge successful examples of the protection and care of landscapes and sites of European significance;
- to help save natural features of recognised European importance which are threatened by economic or technical projects.

The award of the Diploma is subject to an on-the-spot appraisal carried out by an independent consultant in the presence of a representative of the Council of Europe. The Diploma is awarded for five years, and annual reports must be provided

by the managing authorities of each site. Renewal of the Diploma is preceded by another on-the-spot appraisal so as to ensure that the assessment criteria used for the original award are still satisfied. The threat of withdrawal of the Diploma at any time the site risks degradation, has many times proved extremely useful, and has led to the abandoning of touristic or economic developments projects in or near the Diploma-holding site.

The European Diploma is awarded to sites or natural features of European interest because of their scientific, cultural, aesthetic and/or recreative value, and which are adequately protected. They range from huge Swedish national parks, almost untouched by human interference, to areas such as the Peak District (United Kingdom), where secular human activity contributes to the cultural and recreative richness of the site. Three categories can be distinguished :

CATEGORY A has the strictest protection requirements. The motivation of the site is the protection of flora and fauna species that are endemic, threatened or are remarkable examples of the natural ecosystems of Europe. Sites in this category must not be permanently inhabited nor support any exploitation of natural resources. Public access is forbidden or strictly controlled and canalised.

CATEGORY B sites aim at the protection of landscapes or natural features of particular aesthetic or cultural value or of an imposing nature. The motivation here is to preserve witnesses to the history of Europe's rural or wooded areas or to preserve significant examples of geological or other natural processes. The protection of the site must be adequate for maintaining it as it is. Public access is permitted, or controlled, and reception centres compatible with the landscape may be installed.

CATEGORY C concerns sites that combine social and recreational functions with the maintenance of their biological or aesthetic characteristics. The planning of such areas reconciles agriculture, forestry and tourism with landscape protection, often by means of careful zoning.

Areas in categories B and C are therefore really protected landscapes. Up to the present, 26 areas in 12 member States hold the European Diploma (17 in Category A, 3 in B and 6 in C). This network is growing rapidly and constitutes an original and very efficient tool for the conservation of our natural heritage.

THE EUROPEAN NETWORK OF BIOGENETIC RESERVES

This network has a complementary role, as it aims at the conservation of representative examples of flora, fauna and natural ecosystems, so as to maintain the biological balance and the survival of our natural genetic heritage. Furthermore, biogenetic reserves have a scientific vocation and an educational role to play, by arousing interest and permitting training of the public in environmental matters insofar as this is compatible with the objectives of nature protection.

A biogenetic reserve must on the one hand be of European interest for nature conservation, for example as a refuge for a rare, unique, typical or endangered species or biotope and on the other, enjoy adequate protection. Only governments may designate sites to be included in the network. They can do this either spontaneously, or within a framework laying down a common European policy, which has so far given priority to heathlands, maquis, wetlands, loci typici of the vegetation map, dry grasslands, alluvial forests and peatlands.

The network now comprises 170 reserves totalling 1,820,000 ha and covers 14 different European ecosystems of various sizes and protection status. They range

from strict nature reserves to directed areas intended for controlled leisure activities. They may thus also be classed as protected landscapes.

With regard to the theme of this symposium, mention should also be made of the 1987/88 COUNTRYSIDE CAMPAIGN organised by the Council of Europe. It is the forum for multidisciplinary reflection on the serious threats which, in the present economic situation, face the rural world today. Its theme is 'Let's make the most of our countryside, and what kind of management of the environment in rural areas should we aim for'. Its motto is 'Conservation with change and development with preservation'.

The Council of Europe has therefore always been of the opinion that the conservation of our natural heritage cannot be ensured solely through the creation of parks and nature reserves. All farmland, forest and marginal land needs to be properly managed, so as to preserve its potential for future generations.

With this in mind, the concept of protected landscape deserves careful study if we are to grasp fully the important role of this new tool for environmental conservation. It is therefore with great pleasure that, in the name of the Council of Europe, co-organiser with the Countryside Commission of this symposium, that I welcome all the participants here, coming as they do from all parts of the world to contribute their knowledge to our common preoccupation : protected landscapes, where and how?



Fair Isle, situated between the Orkney and Shetland Islands, is a remote community of 70 people. It was awarded a Council of Europe Diploma in 1986 for its scenic beauty, its cultural traditions and its scientific interest as an important staging post in Europe for migratory birds. (National Trust for Scotland)

NATIONAL PROGRAMMES

Four National Approaches to Landscape Protection

Four presentations were made, demonstrating widely contrasting national approaches to landscape protection in different parts of the world.

Australia

This presentation was given by **Dr Bruce W Davis**, Professor of Public Policy at Murdoch University in Western Australia and Chairman of the Australian Heritage Commission. He first described briefly the diverse character of the terrain, climate and biota of the sub-continent, contrasting the arid and often hostile nature of the interior with the highly urbanised character of some parts of the coastal edge, and dismissed the impression that the relative sparsity of settlement negated the need for landscape protection. Much of the landscape in fact was modified by earlier aboriginal inhabitants and two hundred years of European settlement has led to considerable impact on terrain and vegetation through agriculture, mining and forestry operations, water resource management and urbanisation.

With Australia's federal system of government there is no clarity as to whether the Commonwealth, state or local government should have jurisdiction over landscape protection. In practice all three levels have adopted a variety of measures, without there being a consistent methodology for evaluating sites or degrees of protection afforded. Until recently there has been a significant preoccupation with wilderness conservation, with long-standing areas designated as national parks and nature reserves. Other kinds of protection exist in some areas. These include :

- * vegetation retention (a major control over land use in South Australia)
- * roadside reserves, skyline reserves and river corridors
- * near-urban parklands
- * water storage areas and rehabilitated mining, quarrying and industrial areas
- * coastal and estuarine/wetland areas
- * island protection through management plans
- * hillside suburb and associated coastal scarp protection through development controls

The situation is now changing and new measures are likely soon specifically for landscape protection, although it is anticipated that developers and private landowners, who are less used to development control than such interests in Europe, may resist some of what will be proposed.

Ecological, aesthetic and cultural criteria for the selection and management of protected landscapes are currently being examined by the Australian Heritage Commission and the National Trust of Victoria. However, it may be that uniform measures over the whole of a large sub-continent with such highly diverse natural characteristics as Australia may not be entirely appropriate and local variations in the criteria for protection may be a practical way forward.

France

The next presentation was given by **Francois Letourneux**, Director for Nature Protection, Ministry of the Environment and Quality of Life, Paris, who emphasised at the outset that France everywhere bears the stamp of man's presence and that human activity has shaped most of its 'natural' landscape, although this is richer

and more varied than in other more densely populated countries. Because this is so, ever since there has been a policy for the protection of nature, the need for compatibility between nature and human activities has been taken into account.

However, the origins of nature conservation policy are relatively recent and, until 1960, the law of France only protected places of outstanding beauty (under an Act of 1930) and wildlife reserves, the latter generally at the instigation and for the benefit of hunters, rarely for naturalists (Camargue 1927).

The six national parks established since 1960 had all long been used by man. For example, the mountain parks supported stock-farming which, over the centuries, has shaped and maintained the variety of the flora of the alpine grasslands. Port-Cros and the Cevennes were even permanently inhabited when they became national parks. Similarly, the nature reserves, redefined by the Nature Protection Act of 1976 and now numbering eighty-four, also bear the stamp of human activity. Although the primary purpose of all these areas is to protect nature, the rules governing their management allows scope for human activity, according to local conditions; eg. the maintenance (and even encouragement) of stock-farming, the removal (and even sometimes the culling) of surplus animals, the practice of fishing, etc.

As long ago as 1968, however, the need for more integrated management of the balance between nature and human activity was recognised and regional nature parks were established as a consequence. There are now twenty-four of these, covering 7% of the area of France. These parks are now the responsibility of the regional authorities, with limited financial support from the State (about 20%).

The purpose of these nature parks is to protect and manage the natural and cultural heritage and to contribute to the economic and social development of the countryside, while paying regard to environmental considerations. Each park is run by a board made up entirely of representatives of the local public authorities (there is no State representation) and each has precise boundaries, a work programme in the form of a 'charter' and a twenty-strong team of helpers.

The nature park boards have no regulatory powers of their own; their role is to provide impetus, co-ordination and moral authority. At the request of the boards, the status of regional nature park is awarded, and if necessary withdrawn, by the State. Relying on the support and commitment of the local population and their managers, orientated towards the future of their regions and protection as an important factor of development, the regional nature parks have proved an effective and dynamic mechanism and have achieved excellent results.

At a more fundamental level, these parks are making a crucial contribution to a debate which much exercises French scientific circles who are asking pertinent questions about what nature should be protected and for whom. Should it be the mythical nature of the pre-Stone Age or the balanced nature of the 18th century? Should conservationists aim at climactic nature or should pioneer phases, often richer in more rare species, be maintained?

From this debate so far one virtually unanimous conclusion has emerged. Just as an animal 'imprinted' by man and abandoned, dies or becomes dangerous, so too nature that has been the subject of the influence of man cannot be left to itself. 'Back to nature' more often means the impoverishment than the enrichment of habitats. The management of nature and the techniques involved in it constitute an important new field of technology, that of 'ecological engineering'.

Poland

Dr Eng. Czeslaw Okolow from the Bialowieza National Park made the next presentation, describing first the character of the fourteen existing national parks in Poland, created under the Nature Protection Act of 1949. These are the most important form of landscape protection in the country and range from coastal and island parks on the Baltic through remnants of lowland primeval forests (as in the Bialowieza National Park) to a variety of high mountain parks in the south adjoining the border with Czechoslovakia.

Complementary to the national parks are landscape parks established under local country planning powers by Provincial People's Representative Councils. The main purpose of these parks is the conservation of nature and landscape. Limited recreational activity is permitted for walking, cycling, canoeing and yachting. The parks contain wide silence zones and the development of industry, town sites and tourist centres is prohibited, all tourist facilities being situated in marginal zones. Each park has its own administration, with a management plan which provides for revaluation and adaptation of the environment to take account of any significant changes. There are thirty-five landscape parks covering 4.5% of the total area of Poland.

In addition to national and landscape parks there are landscape protection zones and several landscape nature reserves. Generally, the landscape parks and landscape protection zones act as buffers to give added protection to national parks. Some landscape parks have been established in areas earmarked for designation as national parks in the future.

Although the landscape protection system in Poland is extensive, there is not yet an adequate coverage of all significant natural landscape types. In 1976 the State Council of Nature Protection and other relevant authorities accepted a programme of landscape protection for Poland prepared by the Committee of Nature Protection of the Polish Academy of Science. This programme envisages increasing the number of national parks to twenty and of landscape parks to fifty, along with several further landscape protection zones. The whole system would be linked by ecological corridors, mainly river valleys.

Very recently a new idea was proposed by the Polish Tourist and Countrylovers Society and the League of Nature Protection under the title, *The Green Lungs of Poland*. This project covers about one sixth of the country, in the north eastern part adjoining the boundary with the Soviet Union. The area is not urbanised or industrialised and with three new national parks, several landscape parks and landscape protection zones, would serve as an extensive recreational area for the urban populations of Silesia and South Poland.

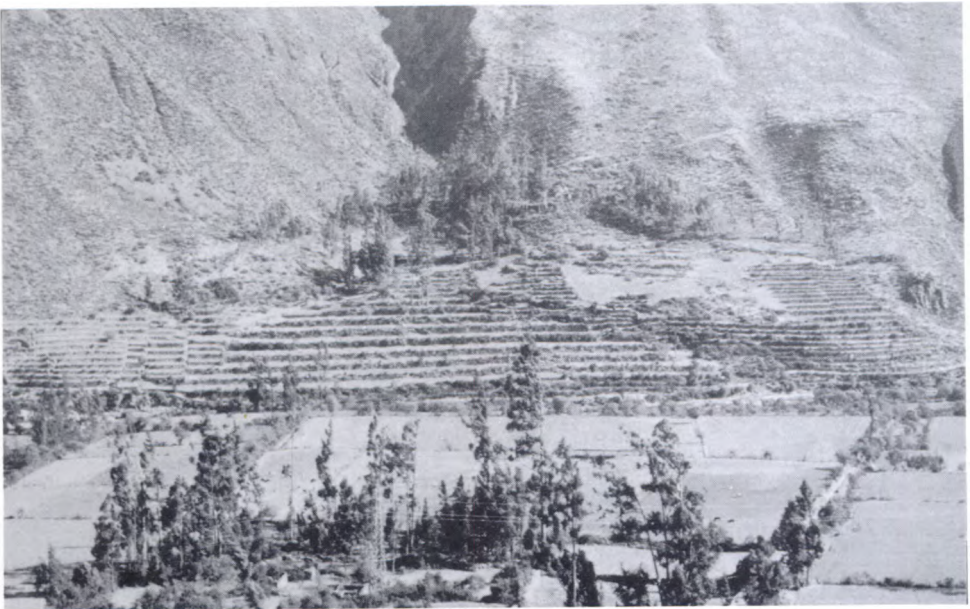
Venezuela

The final presentation in this series was given by **Professor Pedro Jose Salinas** of the University of the Andes in Merida. He began with a short review of the main characteristics of the Neotropical Realm, comprising South America, Central America, the Caribbean and the tropical parts of Mexico and the USA, thereafter focussing down on Venezuela as a typical neotropical country within the realm.

There is a remarkable variety of landscape types in Venezuela. The most important are : the Caribbean coast and islands; the Andean mountains, including cloud forests, tundra-like zones and permanent snow peaks; the Llanos or flat lands with savanna vegetation and many rivers and lagoons; the arid zones, in some cases true deserts; and the Guyanan Shield in the Amazonian region, characterised by plateau mountains



Pieniny National Park in Poland has a landscape of mountains and densely forested gorges, with longstanding cultural associations as in Niedzica Castle above the River Dunajec. (Czeslaw Okolow)



The Imperial Valley in Peru was cultivated by the Incas to provide food for the city of Cuzco. Terraced cultivation has been practiced for a millennium, producing a dramatic landscape contrast with the steep mountainsides above. (Pedro J Salinas)

covered with rain forests, the Amazonian forest and the Great Savanna, a typical grassland on top of an extensive plateau.

This variety of landscape types is reflected in the range of the established national parks, from the Sierra Nevada National Park, a high mountain park in the Andes containing cloud forests, humid and dry plateaux, high mountain lagoons and permanent snow zones, through a variety of other national parks to the Medanus de Coro National Park on the south west coast which comprises a desert of moving sand dunes with almost no vegetation and the Morrocoy Marine National Park of silver sand beaches and submarine seascapes.

The constitution of the Republic of Venezuela gives to the Public Power (Establishment) the role of conserving the whole spectrum of national resources for the well-being of the Venezuelan population. There are also the Organic (ie. General) Law of the Environment and the Organic Law for Land Use Planning and Management which define and provide general (not specific) powers in respect of most of the protected areas of the country. In the international field there is the Approbatory Law of the Convention for the Protection of the Flora, Fauna and the Natural Scenic Beauty of the Countries of America which sets out definitions for national parks, natural monuments and Virgin Region reserves.

In addition to these general and international powers the following legislation operates within Venezuela and provides a wide range of conservation opportunity :

- * the Wildlife Protection Law ... which defines wildlife reserves, refuges and sanctuaries
- * the Forestry, Soils and Waters Law ... which is specific to a number of natural protected areas including national parks, national monuments and forest reserves
- * the Law of the National Institute of Parks ... which rules on the management of national parks, natural monuments and recreation parks
- * the Law of Tourism ... which defines zones of tourist interest
- * the Law of Cultural, Artistic and Archaeological National Heritage ... which defines sites of historic, cultural and archaeological heritage.

These various laws are given effect through executive decrees whereby protected areas, including those for protection of landscape quality, are declared. Finally, urban and suburban landscapes are controlled through local ordinances.

The range of opportunity for conservation in Venezuela is wide and most of the legislation referred to above provides an opportunity for protecting important landscape qualities, either in their own right or in support of other relevant aspects of conservation.

Statutory Nature Conservation in Great Britain and its Relationship to Landscape Protection

Richard C Steele, Director General, The Nature Conservancy Council

The National Parks and Access to the Countryside Act of 1949 gave rise to both the Nature Conservancy (later the Nature Conservancy Council) and the National Parks Commission (later the Countryside Commission).

The Royal Charter granted to the Nature Conservancy in 1949 defined its functions as : -

'to provide scientific advice on the conservation and control of the natural flora and fauna of Great Britain; to establish, maintain and manage nature reserves in Great Britain, including the maintenance of physical features of scientific interest; and to organise and develop the research and scientific services related thereto.'

The functions of the National Parks Commission were defined under the 1949 Act as : -

- a. for the preservation and enhancement of natural beauty in England and Wales, and particularly in areas designated under this Act as National Parks or as areas of outstanding natural beauty.
- b. for encouraging the provision or improvement, for persons resorting to National Parks, of facilities for the enjoyment thereof and for the enjoyment of the opportunities for open air recreation and the study of nature afforded thereby.'

Under the 1949 Act it was stated that 'references in this Act to the preservation of the natural beauty of the area shall be construed as including references to the preservation of the characteristic natural features, flora and fauna thereof'.

The Countryside Act of 1968 shifted the emphasis and substituted conservation for preservation. It directed that 'references in this Act to conservation of the natural beauty of an area shall be construed as including references to the conservation of its flora, fauna and geological and physiographical features.'

The Countryside Commission thus have an explicit responsibility for the conservation of plants, animals and physical features which is also the prime responsibility of the Nature Conservancy Council (NCC). The responsibility of the latter for preserving and enhancing natural beauty is not explicit, but it is inconceivable that in the execution of its functions, for example, establishing, maintaining and managing nature reserves, the NCC is not also preserving natural beauty. Why then are there two separate bodies with such overlapping functions?

The original outlook of the Nature Conservancy gave special emphasis to science within a holistic conception of the conservation of natural resources, which also included recognition of the need for the enjoyment of nature. While geological conservation has remained mainly identified with scientific purposes, biological conservation is now also popularly associated with nature enjoyment. But at the same time as public understanding was broadening the remit of NCC and its resource limitations caused a narrowing of its activities and hence of the holistic view of conservation.

The National Parks Commission was envisaged as having an overlapping responsibility for nature conservation, but the role of that body (and later the Countryside

Commission) became limited to the development of countryside use as a recreational activity and the maintenance of the aesthetic quality of rural areas. 'Nature' was regarded as an integral part of the natural beauty of scenery and landscape, and thus as a medium for public enjoyment and appreciation.

There is an essential continuity between 'scientific' and 'amenity' perceptions of nature. The complex of land-forms and their mantles of vegetation with assemblages of animals which is the study material of the scientist and naturalist is also the substance of scenery and landscape. The differences in perception are related often to differences in scale and levels of abstraction. Scientists and naturalists (insofar as they differ) are concerned with the detailed attributes of nature - the fine structure of physical features, the character of biological communities and the species or even individuals of plants and animals. The admirers of scenic beauty are concerned with the sensory qualities of these same elements on the larger scale - the general appearance of topography and vegetation, their colour and visual texture, the association of living creatures, and the variety and pattern of all these things, conveyed as well by sound and smell.

The sense of enjoyment itself represents a continuum. The ecologist who tries to find the underlying reason for pattern in an area of vegetation; the field botanist who enjoys seeing, recording or photographing the wild flowers in this same vegetation; the archaeologist, historian or geographer who seeks to discern the story of human impact; the lover of scenery who admires the area for its contribution to a larger landscape; and even those who see associations with art and literature are all ultimately experiencing much the same thing. Their viewpoints differ, as do the values they register in their minds but they all feel a common sense of mental satisfaction and reward.

Over the past two decades the work of the NCC and the two Countryside Commissions has drawn closer together for three main reasons: legal, conceptual and practical. The Countryside Act of 1968 which replaced the National Parks Commission with the Countryside Commission directed that 'references in the Act to conservation of the natural beauty of an area shall be construed as including references to the conservation of its flora, fauna and geological and physiographical features' (compare with the 1973 Act setting up the NCC). This Act also required that 'in the exercise of their functions relating to land under any enactment every Minister, Government department and public body shall have regard to the desirability of conserving the natural beauty and amenity of the countryside' and further stated that 'in the exercise of their functions under the Act and the Act of 1949 it shall be the duty of every Minister and of the (Countryside) Commission, the Natural Environment Research Council (which was then the parent-body for the Nature Conservancy) and local authorities to have due regard to the needs of agriculture and forestry and to the economic and social interests of rural areas'.

Similar provisions were made for the Countryside Commission for Scotland under the Countryside (Scotland) Act of 1967. The 1967 and 1968 Acts thus began a process of convergence between the conservation of nature and landscape and the social and economic interests of rural areas which has been further developed in later Acts of Parliament.

The second factor bringing about the convergence between nature conservation and landscape activities has been an increasing public awareness of the issues involved. What affects landscape also affects nature conservation and vice versa and the general public see little reason for a rigid demarcation between the two interests, even if they accept that these interests are best served by different organisations.

The third and most recent factor is the changes in the countryside which are taking place and will continue as a result of agricultural over-production. Agriculture is the victim of its own success and the industrialisation of agriculture, which has resulted in so much damage to nature conservation and landscape, has also meant that production has outstripped demand, a situation which increasingly requires corrective action. The production of many agricultural commodities has to be curtailed. The curtailment of production gives scope for other land-uses, such as forestry, and also provides opportunities for nature conservation and landscape improvement. The NCC and the Countryside Commissions have worked closely together in advising Government on the conservation possibilities, and the convergence of nature conservation and landscape interests is particularly well demonstrated in the recent development of Environmentally Sensitive Areas.



Beinn Eighe, in the north west Highlands of Scotland, was the first National Nature Reserve to be declared in Britain, in 1951. Recently it was awarded the Diploma of the Council of Europe. (William B Prior)

Protected Landscapes in the United Kingdom*

Adrian Phillips, Director, Countryside Commission

The United Kingdom has considerable experience in the protection of landscapes. It is easy to see why. Ours is amongst the most densely populated countries in the world. Most of the natural fauna and flora of these islands was modified by man thousands of years ago and several species of large mammals eradicated. Since very little of the land surface of Britain is unaltered, truly natural environment is hard to find. We lost the opportunity to establish extensive national parks on the United States model several hundred years before Yellowstone was created; even in the wildest parts of Scotland, the creation of such parks today would be difficult.

So the natural heritage for the British people is not one of great wilderness areas inhabited by large mammals but of a natural environment long modified by man. The result is evident in the landscapes of Britain, the best of which have been identified for specific measures of protection.

Landscape in the United Kingdom means much more than mere scenery, important as that may be; rather it is the sum of the visible attributes of the rural environment, along with its associations. So it includes the physical land form, the wildlife and vegetation, and the impact which man has made upon the scene. Landscape is thus about both nature and man, and its conservation is justified on scientific, historic, cultural, aesthetic, recreational and economic grounds.

Since the landscape of the United Kingdom was, and is being shaped by man, landscape protection cannot mean 'preservation'; rather it is 'the management of change'. Management is focussed not so much on the landscape as such, as upon the human processes which have an impact upon it. The purpose is not to resist change but to guide it so that the qualities of the landscape are conserved for future generations.

The finest landscapes in the United Kingdom have been identified and designated for the purposes of landscape protection; but recreation and access are often important aims too. Indeed, running through the UK rationale for landscape protection is a parallel conviction that people should have the opportunity to enjoy the landscape which is conserved.

All our protected landscapes contain a resident population. For example, the total population of the ten national parks of England and Wales (which are, of course, Category V areas) is nearly a quarter of a million. Thus, when we speak of protected landscapes, we include living communities, with economies, which share the social and economic aspirations of the rest of the society. It is obviously difficult to meet these needs if the landscape is to be protected at the same time; but there are also economic benefits to be derived from landscape protection - notably through tourism - but in other ways too.

Not only do protected landscapes contain resident populations, but by far the greater part of the land surface within them is in some form of economic use: mainly farming, but forestry and many other uses too. The challenge is to find ways of sustaining those legitimate uses of the countryside so that they contribute to the

* For a fuller explanation, see *Protected Landscapes, the United Kingdom Experience*, by Duncan & Judy Poore, Published by IUCN for the Symposium.

objectives of landscape protection. We have developed some guiding principles to integrate conservation and development within protected landscapes, especially within the national parks.

There are many thousands of individual private owners of land within protected landscapes, as well as public agencies. There are also voluntary organisations, such as the National Trusts, which acquire and manage land for purposes which coincide with those of designation. The rights of ownership are not directly affected by designation.

Rather, the impact of designation is mainly felt through two systems of public policy. First, there is the control of development by the Town and Country Planning laws, under which all development - that is building, engineering, mining or other operations, or a material change of use of buildings or land - is subject to control relating to location, design and so on. This is a very effective tool for landscape protection, but it is essentially restrictive in its impact and must be complemented by a second system comprising positive measures of management. In our national parks in particular, fairly sophisticated systems of land management for conservation have been developed, many of which encourage owners of land in the parks to adopt conservation policies. Management policies of this kind are all the more important because farming and forestry operations are very likely outside the scope of planning control.

Generally, day-to-day administration of protected landscapes rests with local government. However, it incurs certain duties arising out of designation - a national responsibility locally discharged. Some central government help may be available to local government to fulfil its responsibilities; three-quarters of the net costs of running the national parks are met by an annual central government grant, now running at about £10m.

The responsibility for designating protected landscapes, and for overseeing their subsequent care by local government, is given to national agencies. In England and Wales, the Countryside Commission; in Scotland, the Countryside Commission for Scotland; in Northern Ireland, its Department of the Environment.

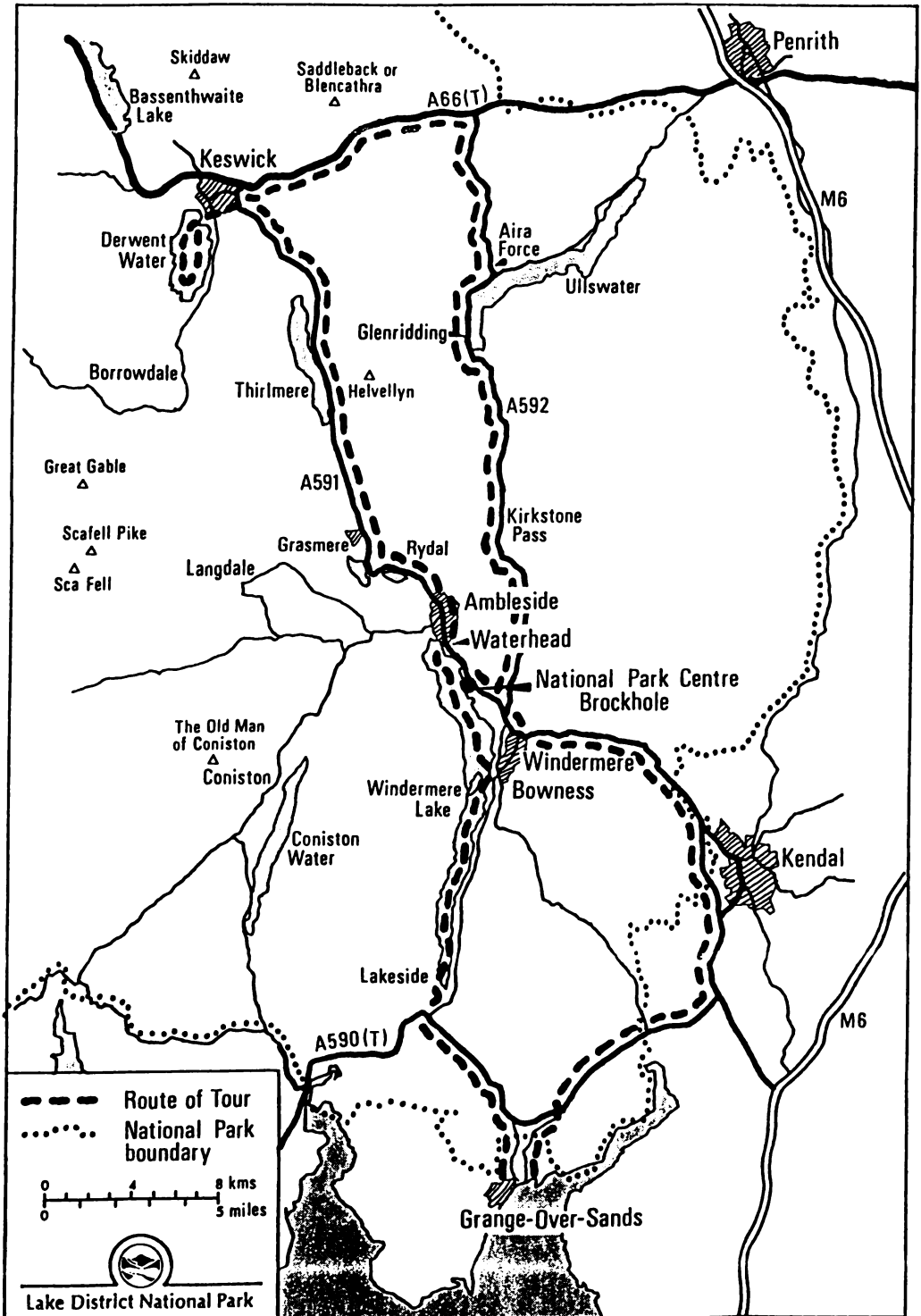
Which leads to a final point. There are different kinds of protected landscapes in different parts of the United Kingdom, and the methods of landscape conservation vary between them. In England and Wales there are four major categories of protected landscapes: the National Parks, (and with them two special areas, the Broads and the New Forest); Areas of Outstanding Natural Beauty; Heritage Coasts; and Environmentally Sensitive Areas (or ESAs). Scotland has National Scenic Areas and ESAs. Northern Ireland has its own network of Areas of Outstanding Natural Beauty and ESAs. The accompanying summary table explains the arrangements in place for the conservation and management of each of these categories.

Measures to ensure Conservation of Protected Landscapes in the UK

	England and Wales				Scotland			Northern Ireland	
	New Forest	AONBs	Heritage Coasts	ESAs	National Scenic Areas	ESAs	AONBs	ESAs	ESAs
<u>Selected by</u>	CC	CC	CC	CC/NCC	CCS	CCS/NCC	DOE/NI	DOE/NI	
<u>Designated by</u>	CC	In Legislation	CC	MAFF/WOARD	SO/SS	DAFS	DOE/NI	DOE/NI	Dept Agric NI
<u>Special administering authority</u>	Yes	Yes	Optional	No	No	No	Yes	No	No
<u>Management plans required</u>	Yes	Yes	Optional	No	No	No	No	No	No
<u>Special funding arrangements</u>	Yes	Yes	Some grants	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
<u>Additional planning powers, arrangements and/or policy</u>	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	No
<u>Additional management arrangements and/or policy</u>	Yes	Yes	Limited	Yes	Optional	Yes	Limited	Yes	Yes
<u>Designated staff to administer</u>	Yes	Yes	Optional	No	No	No	Yes	DOE/NI	No

1. AONRs = Areas of Outstanding Natural Beauty
2. ESA = Environmentally Sensitive Areas
3. CC = Countryside Commission
4. CCS = Countryside Commission for Scotland
5. NCC = Nature Conservancy Council
6. DOE/NI = Department of Environment, N Ireland
7. MAFF = Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food
8. WOARD = Welsh Office Agriculture Department
9. DAFS = Department of Agriculture and Fisheries for Scotland
10. SO/SS = Secretary of State for Scotland

Tour of part of Lake District National Park



Study Tour of the Lake District National Park

John Toothill, National Park Officer

The Study Tour which took place on Wednesday 7 October, was designed to achieve three aims :

- (a) to show participants a variety of scenery in the National Park;
- (b) to demonstrate the co-operation between the National Park Authority and other bodies who work in the National Park;
- (c) to give illustrations of the conference themes.

The National Park covers 2280 sq km, and so it was not possible in one day to see it all. The tour concentrated on lake scenery, with one high pass of 450 metres, Kirkstone. Participants had boat journeys on Windermere and Derwentwater, and passed Ullswater, Thirlmere, Rydal Water and Grasmere lakes. Some high mountains were visible through clouds - notably Helvellyn and Skiddaw, both above 950 m.

Participants were impressed by the mixture of mountain scenery, lakes, woodland, stone walls and vernacular architecture. A productive agricultural landscape had maintained its attraction for the 14 million visitors who came every year and, despite the pressure of visitors, a balance had been maintained between visitor provision and the wilderness aspects of the National Park.

The boat journeys also showed the way in which it was possible to mix nature conservation with the provision of housing and other facilities for the local population of 40,000. Development is not permitted on lake shores, which remain heavily wooded with areas of importance for breeding of birds.

The authority which controls development inside the National Park is the Lake District Special Planning Board, a local government body of 30 members, 20 of whom are local councillors, and 10 of whom are appointed by the Secretary of State for the Environment. The National Park Authority, as it is known, has a staff of 110 who provide visitor information and guidance, maintain the extensive footpath network of over 1800 miles, repair visitor damage, and protect the National Park against undesirable afforestation. The Authority also owns woodlands, moorland and lakes and manages these for the benefit of the local people and visitors.

But by far the largest landowner in the National Park is the National Trust, who own over a quarter of the Park, most of it in the most sensitive central area. During the tour participants met the Regional Director of the Trust, who explained the Trust's status as a charity which relies on public support. The Trust manage over 80 farms in the Lake District, and their benevolent ownership is crucial to the well-being of the area.

Another influential body is the Nature Conservancy Council, who have established over 68 Sites of Special Scientific Interest in the National Park, as well as 4 National Nature Reserves. The nature conservation work was explained to members on Derwentwater.

The theme of the tour was co-operation between many bodies, each with its own particular speciality, but working together for the good of the Lake District. Participants were impressed by the results achieved through co-operation rather than through formal controls. The Lake District represents the British National Park concept at its best.



**Lake Windermere is the largest lake in the National Park. It is much used for water based recreation under the surveillance of the park authority.
(Lake District National Park Authority)**



**Symposium participants, on tour in the Lake District National Park, enjoy a short cruise on Lake Windermere.
(John Foster)**

Ce n'est pas un pays de lumière éclatante
Ce n'est pas un pays que la lumière dévore
comme elle dévore les paysages méditerranéens.
C'est au contraire un pays que la lumière,
sans cesse changeante, révèle sous un jour
sans cesse inattendu. Comme dit le poète
"a revelation infinite it seems".
Et ce que la lumière fait pour le Lake District,
le Lake District le rend à la lumière :
car il n'existe sans doute pas beaucoup d'endroits
au monde où la lumière soit mieux chez elle qu'ici,
où la palette de ses couleurs soit mieux mise en valeur
par les paysages.

Ce n'est pas un pays dont la grandeur sauvage
écrase le visiteur ; ce n'est pas non plus Versailles.
Mais c'est, à la fin, un des coins de notre planète
les plus finement, les plus intelligemment humanisés,
avec, en même temps, quelques kilomètres plus loin seulement,
des horizons de landes et d'eaux où il semble que
l'homme n'ait rien de mieux à faire que de ne rien
toucher et d'admirer.

Ce soir, après cette journée, nous, visiteurs,
comprendons mieux pourquoi des hommes peuvent aimer
ce pays avec l'intensité d'attachement que nous
sentons chez nos hôtes, le directeur du parc et
ses collaborateurs.

Avec patience et intelligence, ils ont pris le risque
de nous faire partager leur attachement.
Je crois pouvoir leur dire, en notre nom à tous,
qu'ils ont eu raison de prendre ce risque
et que c'est avec émotion que nous leur disons merci.

Réflexion sur le Lake District
Claude HENRY
7 octobre 1987



Cape Cod National Seashore in the United States is an area of fine coastal scenery with strong historical links. It is under heavy recreational pressure and special routes are provided for off-road vehicles to protect fragile ecosystems.

(John Foster)



The Broads in south-east England is a wetland landscape of unique character and appeal deriving from long established drainage and farming practices. Today its heritage qualities are protected under legislation for the benefit of future generations.

(Richard Denyer)

CASE STUDIES AND WORKSHOPS

Reconciling Conservation and Development

Objectives

1. To determine what are the key qualities which must be safeguarded in protected landscapes, having regard to the diverse local economies from which they have evolved, various cultural roots and characteristics of local populations and the need for a realistic balance between conservation and development.
2. To identify the various kinds of pressure which can put protected landscapes at risk.
3. To examine some existing methods of reconciling conservation and development in protected landscapes and establish how far these have been successful.

Case Studies

The first case study was given by **Dr Osamu Ikenouye**, Vice President of the National Parks Association of Japan. Today the majority of landscapes in Japan are semi-natural or man-made and the philosophy that natural beauty should be considered a kind of public property, regardless of ownership, is widely promoted. National Parks are classified into Specially Protected Areas, set aside to provide strict preservation for the few areas of wilderness now remaining; Special Areas, designated to protect scenic beauty within semi-natural landscapes; and Ordinary Areas, where most traditional agricultural activities and visitor facilities are permitted. Certain duties are imposed on the public and legislation provides power to restrict the number of visitors to national parks because of the pressure of private land ownership within them. General support for conservation is broadly based among the citizens of Japan as well as within the committed conservation organisations.

The next presentation was made by **Dr Edward Towle**, President of the Island Resources Foundation, who first described the activities of his organisation in the Caribbean. The Foundation acquires and manages land with protected areas status and undertakes, on its own and in collaboration with others, a wide range of investigations, environmental assessments and educational programmes, either by funding these itself or using other international funding sources. The islands are under increasing pressure for tourist development and the Foundation plays an important part in reconciling the economic aspirations of the island communities with the need to conserve unique natural resources.

The penultimate presentation, given by **Glenn Eugster** of the United States National Park Service, described how the service in recent years has moved from the protection of large natural areas, like Yellowstone National Park, by ownership and management to protection where these responsibilities are largely assumed by other public and private interests, such as in the Pinelands National Reserve in New Jersey State. This has provided a significantly greater flexibility, using a variety of approaches which, in the case of Pinelands, involves seven counties, fifty-two municipalities and various land holdings of the state and three major federal agencies. Nearly 400,000 people live permanently in the area and there is a considerable range of economic land uses requiring different management regimes in the interests of conservation. The landscape protection approach now adopted by the National Park Service offers all interests an opportunity to guide future decisions which have an impact on resource values, the quality of people's lives and local economic interests.

The final case study, Experimental Management and Landscape Protection in Broadland, was given by **M Aitken Clark**, Chief Executive of the Broadland Authority in England. The Broads today is an intricate mosaic of shallow lakes (broads), rivers and drainage systems, undrained marshes, woodland and drained marshland, resulting from extensive medieval peat diggings which were flooded in the 14th century when the North Sea level rose. Today they provide a unique landscape urgently requiring protection of its traditional character. The Authority has undertaken important experiments in improving degraded water quality arising from eutrophication. It also seeks to reconcile the economic interests of local farmers with the need to conserve the longstanding character of the highly fertile grazing marshes and achieves this by a system of cost-incentive payments to farmers in return for maintaining traditional marsh grazing management practices.

Workshops

The output on this subject from the workshops falls under five broad headings :

CONCEPTS AND DEFINITIONS

There was some feeling that 'protected landscape' was not the best label for such areas, giving the impression of concentrating on aesthetic values which might be imposed on an area without adequate regard to the rights of the local people. The alternative of 'protected resource area' was suggested. The need to distinguish between developed industrial countries and developing countries was seen as important because that which constitutes development can be viewed so differently in the two types of country. A further breakdown of the range of what constitutes protected landscapes was also thought desirable.

QUALITIES

Three groups of primary values essential for protected landscapes were identified :

- (a) Nature conservation values, arising both from ecological processes and those induced by man's activities.
- (b) Landscape values, including historical farming and settlement patterns and local vernacular building traditions.
- (c) Cultural values, such as life styles and social traditions.

A fourth quality was also considered important, namely the man-nature relationship, with quality being maintained by a slow and planned rate of change which carefully balances harmony and vitality between the two related elements of man and nature. It was seen as essential that these qualities be translated into management goals.

PRESSURES

The need to anticipate the nature of pressures for development was considered important, in order to be able to plan either to accept or reject specific proposals when they actually arise. Five groups of pressures were identified :

- (a) Population growth, with the consequent need for the reclamation and exploitation of land for building and other development.
- (b) General national needs, such as for transportation, mining and military activities.
- (c) Agriculture, particularly in the form of intensification of use.
- (d) Forestry, where this is of a commercial character alien to local tradition.
- (e) Recreation and tourism, especially in relation to major development of built facilities.

Two major factors giving rise to these various kinds of pressures were identified. First was the expectancy of the local population in terms of social and cultural aspirations. Secondly, was the need, as seen by local people, for a well founded economy to sustain the system in the long term. Landscape protection, it was even thought, could be a pressure in itself, with the risk in time of turning such protected areas into open air museums.

SOLUTIONS

Most of the time of the workshop groups was spent in considering solutions, including well tried examples, and setting down principles for reconciling conservation and development. Most of the conclusions reached were concerned with (a) the role of the local inhabitants and (b) the use of planning tools for controlling development.

The role of local people was stressed as crucial, both in developed and developing countries. The use of social survey methods was suggested as a practical means of learning about the preferences and attitudes of local populations. Much discussion revolved round the dilemma of, on the one hand, educating local inhabitants by improving their awareness of conservation values and increasing their pride in their land and, on the other hand, not patronising them in respect of their wishes and choices.

The use of planning as a positive tool in the management of protected areas was widely advocated. Ideas specifically identified included :

- (a) Using research techniques not only to gather information but also to test possibilities for innovation.
- (b) Ensuring that all the relevant facts about values, impacts and relationships are available before undertaking a plan for management.
- (c) Identifying the broad scope of options available so that there is a possibility of choice.
- (d) Utilising Environmental Impact Statements where appropriate.
- (e) Defining and thereafter keeping within limits of acceptable change.
- (f) Using zoning concepts where possible, with zones varying in strictness and in degrees of limitation on development.

With regard to tourism it was strongly felt that this should be resource orientated and organised and managed locally. Transportation should be limited as far as practicable to local requirements and traditional and low impact farming should be extensively promoted by means of financial incentives and management agreements.

GENERAL PRINCIPLES

Out of the discussions in all the workshops on the subject of reconciling conservation and development six general principles were identified :

1. Landscape protection is only possible when there is a vital and sound local economy with a positive perspective towards the future. It is equally true that the distinctive landscape qualities of an area are themselves an essential element of the resources which can make possible sustainable development. The management of protected landscapes is in fact the management of local economies and of change.
2. Landscape is only possible with support from and the involvement of the local inhabitants. Therefore the concept of protection must be made attractive to local people, using a mixture of education, financial incentives and local powers of decision. Local people must see that protection provides positive advantages to them.

3. The basic ecological features of the landscape must be recorded, examined and protected and a formal control mechanism available as a last resort protection for them should all else fail.
4. In planning for development and management there should be available an adequate analysis of values, goals, impacts and options which can be put forward in non-technical terms for discussion with all concerned and which can thereafter, in whatever form agreed, be used for ongoing decision-making.
5. The control tools used should be reasonably flexible and should respect the rights, needs and interests of local people, especially in developing countries.
6. Finally, there should be no illusion that a protected landscape can be managed as if it were an island either in ecological, economic, political or cultural terms. Its interests must be understood by and reconciled with those of the areas surrounding it.



In Dyrehavn State Forest in Denmark the parkland landscape and the wildlife are protected for the recreational enjoyment of the people of nearby Copenhagen.

(H Holden-Jensen)

Working with People

Objectives

1. To examine proven successful methods of securing and maintaining support and commitment from people, including both local communities living within and near protected landscapes and visitors coming to the areas for recreation and enjoyment, and to establish why these work well.
2. To develop some new ideas for achieving this kind of grass roots support.

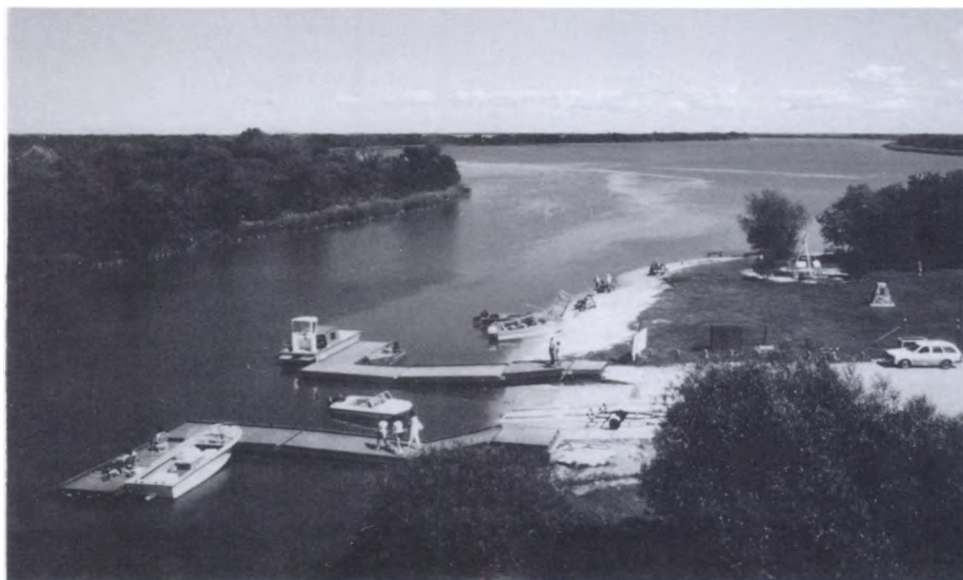
Case Studies

Mingma Norbu Sherpa gave the first case study, speaking as Project Director about problems and challenges within the 24,000 square kilometres of the Annapurna Conservation Area Project. This project is headed by the King Mehandra Trust for Nature Conservation, a non-governmental organisation of Nepal, and is aimed at striking a balance between nature conservation, tourism (with 25,000 trekkers annually) and the needs of the 40,000 people living in the area. The pressing problems to be resolved include deforestation, soil erosion, habitat destruction, waste management and uncontrolled development. The project is essentially a grass roots exercise which recognises that protection of critical habitats and species cannot be achieved without first improving the economic conditions of the villagers in the region. A pilot area under particular pressure has been selected and a field headquarters set up. Local collaboration has been good in responding to new techniques proposed for fuelwood conservation, forest management and various aspects of community development. At the heart of the programme is the need to enhance environmental consciousness through conservation education and public awareness campaigns, with environmental education in schools as an important element. Looking ahead, research is being undertaken to establish accurately the wildlife and soil resources and other critical environmental aspects of the area and local people are being trained in relevant technical skills.

The next presentation was made by **Hans Holden-Jensen**, Senior Adviser in the Danish National Forest and Nature Agency, who spoke about experience regarding protected landscapes in a small heavily populated country. While there are no protected landscapes as such in Denmark, there exists a mosaic of identified protected natural areas which is used as a basis for regional planning policies. Under the Nature Conservation Act the public are involved in conservation planning issues through county conservation boards and have a right to be heard at a public enquiry before any decision is taken on a conservation plan. Two NGOs, the Danish Society for Nature Preservation and the Open Air Council, have a particular place in the conservation pattern and contribute data and conduct consideration of proposals concerning conservation planning. A marginal land strategy has recently been developed for cases where changes in the structure of agriculture lead to the discontinuation of use of land for farming purposes. The strategy provides for the State, on a voluntary basis and with the payment of subsidies, to make agreements with landowners where particular methods of agriculture are desirable from a conservation and landscape point of view. The involvement of people in conservation has long been an important feature in Denmark and, increasingly, the motivating force is moving beyond persuasion and easing tension to demonstrating the positive advantages to the public arising from specific proposals. Three current pilot projects are being implemented to illustrate the advantages of nature parks in Denmark, not only to nature conservation and recreational interests, but also to the general benefit of the local population.



Ghandruk in Nepal is the headquarters of the Annapurna Conservation Area Project. A village clean-up campaign was initiated by the pupils of the local high school as a contribution to the project.
(Mingma Norbu Sherpa)



Netley Creek in Canada is the northern limit of the Red River conservation corridor. Here, adjoining Lake Winnipeg boat access, nature trails and other day use recreational facilities have been provided in keeping with the scenic character of the area.
(Environment Canada Parks, Prairie & Northern Region)

The problems raised in the third case study, given by **Juma Kayera**, Acting Conservator for the Ngorongoro Conservation Area Authority, bore considerable resemblance to those described earlier in Nepal, albeit in very different physical and climatic conditions. The Ngorongoro Conservation Area (NCA) occupies a region of 8,200 square kilometres in Northern Tanzania and is renowned both for its high scenic quality and the number and variety of its wildlife. Pastoralism is long established and at present 22,600 Maasai live in the area, together with about 275,000 head of livestock. Tourist numbers are currently of the order of 36,000, but are rising every year. The objectives of the NCA are : (i) the conservation and development of the area's natural resources; (ii) the promotion of tourism; and (iii) the safeguarding and promotion of the interests of the Maasai. Recently land use pressures have increased as the Maasai have become more settled, demanding modern housing, schools, clinics and other development, and as their numbers have increased, almost trebling over the past twenty years. Livestock populations have not kept pace with the growth in the number of pastoralists and, to the traditional diet of milk and meat, grain has been added as an important staple with the result that many illegal farms are now appearing. The Authority are tackling these problems by helping the Maasai to maintain a pastoralist regime, by evaluating different management options against baseline studies of ecological, vegetational, wildlife and climatic factors, and by involving the Maasai in ongoing participation on issues concerning both conservation and development.

The final case study in this group was presented by **W. Douglas Harper**, Director-General of the Prairie and Northern Region of Environment Canada - Parks. This concerned the development since 1972 of a new kind of heritage protection programme in Canada involving co-operation among the various levels of government and called Agreements for Recreation and Conservation - or ARC for short. This expanded the national parks mandate to allow for cooperative ventures with individual provinces to preserve and develop distinct regional heritage resources, linking them into a comprehensive regional landscape resources plan, to be implemented and managed on a basis of cost sharing between the various agencies involved. The Red River ARC Agreement between the national government and the province of Manitoba is one such cooperative effort which stretches approximately fifty miles along the shores of the Red River and through the city of Winnipeg. Eighteen projects were identified that would enhance the heritage value of this important historic corridor. These include a new road parkway, riverside walks, a major heritage centre on the site of a derelict railway marshalling yard, a heritage park portraying the transition from a native hunting camp to a French-speaking agricultural community, and the restoration of a number of historic buildings along the riverside. The work has been carried out by cooperation and funding from several levels of government and the private sector and has resulted in the identification, conservation and development of important heritage resources in a comprehensive manner which could not otherwise have been achieved.

Workshops

The workshops brought their thinking on this subject together under four broad headings.

A PHILOSOPHY

It was considered inappropriate - if not actually offensive - for authorities to go into an area from outside and tell the local population what should be their objectives. Local people must be given the opportunity at the outset to express their aspirations for their land and an effort then be made to work out a common set of objectives for the area. Representatives of statutory authorities should be able to articulate clearly to local communities what are the purposes of landscape protection and acceptable ways to achieve them in a climate of mutual understanding.

Beyond this basic philosophy there was also the need for an initial conceptual framework which could be reviewed jointly by the local communities concerned and the statutory authority. For instance, established local planning procedures might not be responsive to a 'parks' or 'landscape protection' concept, and what was administratively convenient for the statutory authority might not be socially convenient to a local community.

The need to establish trust between a statutory authority and local people was absolutely essential. If something was promised to a locality it must be delivered, but it was emphasised that local support could not simply be bought at any price. Rather, peripheral economic opportunities could be created and suitable types of tourism expanded to a scale which the resource could sustain and the landscape absorb comfortably. However, it was also important that the potential for economic benefits should never be oversold to local communities.

WHAT HAS WORKED WELL AND WHY

It was agreed that local people feel more comfortable if they are guiding visitors through their lands or advising them where to go and what to see. The example was given of the successful interpretive work which aboriginal people in Australia are doing with visitors to their areas.

Experts and consultants called into an area to be protected should always remember that they are there as servants of the local people. They should never try to work on their own and should have a local counterpart with whom they can consult. An expert should finish his work within an agreed time, say 3-5 years, and then leave the local counterpart to continue with the development of the programme.

Managers should also have roots in the local community or at least identifiable links with it and managers and staff should preferably have had practical experience in the locality rather than just have studied it from outside. The Annapurna Conservation Area was seen as a good example of this principle. Whatever the background of managers and staff, they should make use of the established local networks of communication for disseminating advice and ideas on topics of concern, particularly those involving social issues.

Although costly in time and money, it was nevertheless considered worthwhile to carry out a study bringing together (a) the physical and human resources of an area, ie the socio-economic background, and (b) the ethnic-biological resources, ie the natural resources of the area and how they have traditionally been used by local people. The local cultural and economic values of the systems of land use, eg agriculture, forestry, hunting, thus ascertained could then be incorporated into whatever planning and management programmes evolved. In some cases in the past this has resulted in a local community establishing its own development organisation.

The principle of integrated management was strongly supported, where one project officer is available to a local community to deal with the many layers of bureaucracy and the variety of sources of grant money available to undertake particular aspects of an overall management programme.

While the foregoing points are relevant in dealing with local communities, quite different problems arose, the workshops considered, in dealing with visitors. Although there were many techniques for managing large numbers of tourists and requiring them to behave in certain ways (eg permits for access to particularly sensitive areas, such areas periodically closed to visitors, direction signs, etc), the real need was strongly felt to be to educate tourist officers and control effectively tourism developers. Quite often visitors to an area could comprise

a significant constituency and influence the planning and management objectives and techniques employed. In such circumstances it was vitally important for the managing authority to maintain a fair balance between these pressures and the legitimate desires of local people, always bearing in mind that the latter maintain continuity and secure the character of an area in the long term.

WAYS OF MAKING LIVING WITHIN A PROTECTED AREA POSITIVELY ATTRACTIVE TO LOCAL PEOPLE

At the outset it was emphasised that local people do have to realise that to threaten the physical character of a protected landscape could be counter-productive to tourism which could be an important element of the local economy. To meet this point it was recommended that, where at all feasible, a local advisory board should be established with significant representation on it from landowners, farmers and local organisations within the community.

Experience in the Swiss and French Alpine regions was examined. There, farming and associated practices, while maintaining an attractive landscape for visitors, were antiquated and no longer producing adequate incomes for local people. The governments concerned were therefore now encouraging improved stock breeding and farming and forestry practices, whereby traditional products were marketed, not only for the local community, but also for tourists and neighbouring communities. In addition, farmers were paid to maintain traditional design in buildings rather than sell them off for incompatible uses. Maintaining tradition in this agri-tourism way had proved helpful to the local tourist industry.

A somewhat different, but equally relevant example was supported from Devon in England where there exists a Rural Skills Trust. This provides direct financial assistance, both to professionals and amateurs, to help maintain the skills that traditional landscapes have depended upon for centuries, eg thatching, slate quarrying, hedging, drystone walling and the like. Revival of furniture-making in the local style, using timber from local managed forests, was also being encouraged. Its use in local hotels and homes and its availability to tourists, besides instilling a renewed sense of the value of local tradition, provided a useful living to people in the locality.

There was support too for the concept of 'green' or 'outdoor adventure' tourism, encouraging people to visit natural places with local guides. This would move tourism patterns away from luxury hotels with their swimming pools and golf courses to smaller local hotels and inns, thus helping the immediate economy of the area.

What were described as 'free-fall projects' were considered useful. In these a statutory authority launches a project then leaves its development and completion to the local community. In time, the authority could return to help to evaluate the success of the project and either advise altering its direction or encourage it to develop further. In this connection there was seen to be merit in the implementation of a project with a local school or college, where appropriate, thereby allowing these well-rooted community institutions to work directly with local people.

Caution was voiced by participants from developing countries that, if efforts were too successful in providing facilities in a protected area, ie an excellent road system and abundant markets, it might be overwhelmed by people wanting to settle there, with the very real risk of a deterioration of the very resource which most needed protection.

ROLE OF NON-GOVERNMENTAL ORGANISATIONS (NGOs)

Conservation orientated NGOs were seen to have an important role in acting between statutory authorities and local people, with an ability to foster environmental

awareness among the latter more directly than could the statutory bodies. The establishment of local conservation NGOs to focus and build on community support was strongly recommended. NGOs should always endeavour to work together on key issues, deriving strength by presenting a common front on them.

Finally, it was considered that statutory authorities, NGOs and local communities should all be encouraged to take advantage of international guidance through the publications, mechanisms and programmes of such organisations as IUCN and UNESCO's Biosphere Reserve concept.



The Sierra Nevada de Santa Marta National Park in Colombia is also an Indian Reservation for the Kogui, Arhuaco and Arkanó groups who maintain their traditional way of life with little impact on the character of the park.

(Heliodoro Sanchez Paez)

Mechanisms - What and How

Objectives

1. To examine the various kinds of legislation adopted to protect landscapes, to assess how effectively they are in operation and to establish how the necessary finance is provided.
2. To consider how current mechanisms could be made more effective by developing a set of principles on which to base future legislation and amend existing.

Case Studies

The first case study, by **Masahiro Ohta**, Deputy Regional Representative for Asia and the Pacific, UNEP, began with a brief review of the history of the national park system in Japan since its inception in 1931, reminding participants of the hierarchy of protected areas already described by Dr Osamu Ikenouye in an earlier session. The situation has much similarity with that of the United Kingdom, there being large tracts of private land within the protected areas and a requirement that owners obtain prior permission from the park authority for any new construction, changes in the colour of buildings or tree felling. However, unlike the UK, when permission is refused either compensation has to be paid or the land purchased by the government. The Environment Agency is the central designating authority for national parks. Its Nature Conservation Bureau operates ten regional offices, each responsible for a number of parks through the local park managers and park authorities. The latter are required to prepare and publish a national parks scheme and works plan and thereafter manage the area in accordance with it. The decentralised character of management and the close working collaboration with voluntary organisations and academic institutions bear significant similarities with the UK system.

The next case study was presented by **Paul Pritchard**, President of the National Parks and Conservation Association, who reviewed the elements of the current national parks system in the United States and then described the concept of greenline parks, first promoted in a report by his Association in 1983. A greenline park is defined by the Association as '... a large scenic landscape area which is protected by law and regulation from being overtaken by unplanned development to the extent that it loses its natural, scenic or historic attributes ... the protections for such a landscape are cooperatively arranged and managed by citizens and agencies on the local, state and federal levels, usually through a joint commission'. Seventeen sites were proposed in the report of which Pinelands, described in an earlier case study, is an example which has become a reality. The initial concept, however, lacked focus and did not achieve the wide public support anticipated. A further criterion has therefore been added, namely that a greenline park must be so special to a group of people that they wish it to be protected as part of the National Register of Historic Places or the National Registers of Historic and Natural Landmarks. With this added focus the Association hope that the concept will gain public support and stimulate government action as a useful protective mechanism with a potential for use in many other countries of the world as well as the United States.

The third case study, on Papua New Guinea's Wildlife Management Areas, was given by **Dr Peter Eaton** of the University of Papua New Guinea. In Melanesia the most important factor in any conservation policy is the land tenure system. Shortage of state lands and public funds have restricted the development of conventional national parks and wildlife management areas have been established as an alternative. These are located on customary land and aim to reinforce traditional conservation practices. Under the Fauna (Protection and Control) Act rules for each area are drawn up in consultation with management committees containing representatives



The Tonda Wildlife Management Area in Papua New Guinea is one of twelve such areas now established under legislation. Located on customary land, they are dedicated to reinforcing the traditional conservation practices of local people.

(Peter Eaton)



The Hohe Tauern National Park in Austria demonstrates the legal complications which arise when a protected area involves more than one government. Two of the states involved have legally established their parts of the Park; the third is still in the process of doing so.

(John Foster)

of each village owning land in the area. The rules vary depending on local circumstances and what are perceived to be threats to wildlife and its habitat. In most areas hunting and fishing are restricted to customary landowners using traditional methods, with bans at certain times of year, commercial logging is forbidden and clearing and burning of vegetation is usually prohibited. Legislation is thus not seen as being imposed from above or by a distant government, and village people feel they are solving their own problems with the support of government and protecting their traditional rights against encroachment from outside. As a mechanism for protection, wildlife management areas offer a number of real advantages, particularly for developing countries where public funds are limited.

The concluding presentation, by **Dr Heliodoro Sanchez-Paez** on the subject of the organisation of landscape protection in Colombia, dealt first with the range and scope of existing legislation governing national parks and related categories of environmental management. This legislation contains an article stating that '... the community has the right to enjoy urban and rural landscapes which contribute to its physical and spiritual welfare'. Among the existing categories there exists one, Integrated Management Districts of Renewable Natural Resources, which is a model for the rational use of resources and the criteria which govern them could readily be adjusted to fit a protected landscape category. Colombia provides a useful example of a country where the protected landscape category, with suitable financial support, could very usefully plug a gap in a system which otherwise fits the country well. While the national park system is well established and running, a further mechanism is needed to secure a fully representative network of protected areas.

Workshops

The workshop groups on this subject were at one in the view that the principles involved in protected landscapes, to be successfully pursued, must have the approval of the communities concerned, reflect their values and be in harmony with those values as far as possible in order to ensure that the areas are integrated and controlled under the most favourable conditions. Thereafter, the basic objectives for conservation must be translated into action by vigorous and strong legislation. Four broad conclusions were reached.

The first was that legislation must fit the country, that which constitutes 'country' being the geographical and human unit which must be considered on a collective basis and which, as far as possible, must be capable of mobilising all the necessary facilities for conservation purposes. It was recognised that legislation for protection often flows from a gradual build-up of official consciousness which leads to a series of legislative steps. In these circumstances there should be some means whereby local people are able to bring together the often fragmented elements of legislation and the departments of government involved and moderate these to fit local needs. There should be an obligation on other departments of government than that specifically empowered to deal with protected landscapes to take into account the existence of these areas in their programmes and budgets. Often the monies flowing into protected areas through other arms of government (particularly those concerned with agriculture) were far greater than the monies available to the protecting department for its conservation purposes.

The second conclusion was that legislation, once passed, must be enforced if it was to maintain credibility. While recognising the need for legislation to be at national level to ensure national standards, the view was supported that, whatever framework was developed, points of integration should be sought and these should be focussed at administrative level to enable integrated management locally within the protected landscapes themselves. Provision should also be made to secure national, local and community involvement in determining aims and objectives for protected

landscapes and the designation of such areas should be based on local initiative as a means of ensuring grass roots support for the legislation.

The third conclusion was that legislation should state principles and objectives simply and positively. While many European and northern hemisphere countries had highly developed legislative mechanisms, this was not so in some developing countries and a key role was seen for IUCN, in these circumstances, to indicate those landscapes which should be protected. The countries could then, by presidential decree or otherwise, declare the areas to be protected landscapes and appoint an appropriate staff organisation to bridge the various central government departments and prepare an integrated management plan, again with guidance from IUCN.

The fourth conclusion was that legislation should include provisions for stable funding. When protected areas are established as being of national interest, they must be provided with direct financing arrangements at a national level as the local communities are often relatively poor and profit relatively less than visitors to the areas. It was also considered important that local authorities managing protected landscapes should have access simultaneously to several sources of finance to allow for differences in local attitude and temperament, with encouragement also to harness support from the private sector as a legitimate means of reducing calls on the public purse. The role of NGOs in this could be significant.

A number of other financial aspects were discussed. Funds generated by integrated rural management should be ploughed back into protected areas and further mechanisms devised to influence the ways in which finance flowing through other programmes could be spent in protected areas. An element of financial support for landscape protection should come from funds already set aside for agricultural production. The latter funds are frequently substantial and could help significantly to restore past conservation characteristics over the whole of the countryside, as well as within specifically protected landscapes. Environmentally Sensitive Areas (ESAs) were considered to be a step in the right direction and indeed the principle of redirecting finance in this way was seen as capable of being extended into social activities such as housing. Compensation for theoretical loss was not favoured; rather systems of support should be evolved related to the positive activities requiring to be undertaken in protected landscapes.

Still on finance, it was considered that, in developing countries, aid finance for large scale prestige projects could often be more efficiently spent if channelled into integrated rural management or eco-development. Such countries might usefully examine recent experience in developed countries where mixed economy companies were making possible the direct involvement of the private sector in the funding of protected areas in such a way that the private sector element could generate income for its own purposes, while at the same time also providing a community benefit.

In conclusion, there was a general consensus among the workshops of the need to maintain a careful balance between :

- * the legal provisions on the one hand and the interest of the human communities involved on the other so that the latter are not placed in a situation where all decisions are made by other parties;
- * the strength of central legislation and safeguarding mechanisms, on the one hand, and the need for decentralised freedom to act locally on the other; and
- * the impersonal rigidity of basic principles, on the one hand, and on the other the wide diversity of local traditions, customs, 'unwritten' laws (which can often be strong allies) and guidelines from those in charge locally who must recognise and respect their value without being hostage to them.

International Opportunities

Objectives

1. To examine the nature and extent of existing international co-operation between international and national statutory and voluntary organisations in the exchange of information and experience about protected landscapes and in providing and using training facilities for staff.
2. To assess how useful this co-operation is and what it achieves.
3. To develop some practical ideas for improving the current situation.

Case Studies

The first presentation was made by **Angus Stirling**, Director-General of the National Trust for Places of Historic Interest or Natural Beauty in England, Wales and Northern Ireland. He outlined briefly the history of the National Trust movement and then described seven principal characteristics of it. These are : clearly defined objectives primarily directed towards preserving unspoilt landscape and/or fine buildings; an element of statutory responsibility to serve the interests of the whole nation and not any one section of it; an active management role with specialist conservation skills and experience; a general, though not invariable, independence of governments; a firm commitment to the future, with education (particularly of young people) as a moral obligation; an essentially voluntary character, using voluntary effort for self-help and to improve understanding generally about conservation values; and collaboration with other bodies, both public and private, internationally as well as nationally. While National Trusts have existed individually in a number of countries for many years, a sense of international responsibility and an increased strength through shared objectives has been developed by regular international gatherings, the first of which was organised by the National Trust for Scotland in 1978. Member Trusts now meet together from countries as diverse as Australia and New Zealand, Canada and USA, India, Japan, Malaysia, Philippines and Poland to exchange experience and thereby increase their practical skills in a wide range of management and co-operative activities directly relevant to protected landscapes.

The second case study was given by **Professor J Gordon Nelson** of Waterloo University, Canada, on the results of an investigation of nine selected National Conservation Strategies (NCS) prepared following publication of the IUCN's World Conservation Strategy (WCS) in 1980, its purpose being to ascertain what part national parks and protected areas have played in the development of these strategies. While recognising the general nature of the guidelines in the WCS and the lack of previous experience with the concept, the results are nevertheless disappointing, with national parks and protected areas being involved only in rather minor ways. Senegal, UK, Vietnam and Zambia are exceptions and their strategies reflect a broader appreciation of protected areas in the WCS process. Some of the newer and more recently stressed roles of national parks and protected areas received little attention, such as lakes and rivers, historical, cultural and archaeological resources and urban areas. Further studies are needed to find out the reasons why protected areas are not being treated adequately in NCS and IUCN and other international and national bodies need to make greater efforts to ensure that their personnel are fully aware of NCS or comparable strategies and understand how national parks and protected areas can contribute to them. Regional conservation strategies, prepared within the context of the wider development and environmental management context of an NCS may possibly be a more effective mechanism for achieving sustainable development at the vital local level.



The Second International Conference of National Trusts took place in the United States. It was a peripatetic occasion with experiences shared, some out of doors, in different locations of heritage interest in New England. (John Foster)



International meetings, with sessions in the field, provide useful opportunities for managers of protected landscapes, to exchange practical experience and ideas at first hand. (John Foster)

In the final case study Dr Hans Bibelriether, Vice-President of the Federation of Nature and National Parks of Europe, explained how the terms 'nature park' and 'national park' are used in a European context, the latter in particular, having a rather different connotation to some other parts of the world. The Federation uses the following definitions for its own work without attaching any value judgements :

Nature Parks - these are extensive heritage landscapes which require protection for their varied forms, brought about by interaction between man and nature, as well as their diversity and beauty. They are used as leisure areas and conserved through sensitive land use and landscape conservation activities. Local organisations and community representatives take part in their control, financing and administration.

National Parks - these are relatively extensive nature reserves in which natural and semi-natural wildlife communities are left, as far as possible to develop naturally. The predominant conservation objective is the fulfilment of natural succession without direct human intrusion. High-level state authorities are responsible for their administration and management.

The Federation is currently preparing an inventory and uses these definitions as a basis for assessing, with the relevant organisations nationally, what is the system of parks and conservation areas in each country. The inventory will contain details of area, ownership, objectives, achievement of objectives, problems and conflicts, threats, administrative arrangements, finances, and management aspirations. When completed, the Federation will use the results to identify any gaps in the European system and make suggestions for the creation of new parks in order to provide a well balanced park system for the whole of the continent. This work will proceed in parallel with the Federation's ongoing task of improving the quality of existing parks and protected areas where this is seen as necessary.

Workshops

The views of the workshops were all positive about the value of developing the concept of a worldwide network of representative protected landscapes, but there was some concern about the name, which was not felt to be adequately descriptive of the category in an international context. A definition was needed which made the category clearly distinctive from other categories, especially that of the MAB Biosphere Reserve. The name needed greater explanation in terms of the broader concepts of multiple use, sustainable development, regional development strategies and eco-development areas, with the last mentioned favoured as identifying most effectively the purpose and management regime of protected landscapes. It was considered important that the category should be seen as one legitimate element of the total worldwide protected area system, with the United Nations List of National Parks and Protected Areas remaining as the vehicle through which the inventory and use of the category could be regularly monitored.

As well as IUCN, all the major international agencies with environmental and aid programmes were considered to have a part to play in supporting protected landscapes. To these could usefully be added others such as the churches and banks, albeit with a more limited role. While international help could be highly effective, the main responsibility for implementation ultimately rested with individual governments and their agencies.

International help was thought to be most effective in developing countries, with organisations such as IUCN and UNESCO relatively rather less well known in developed parts of the world. There was need for more co-operation between

international agencies, with the role of CNPPA crucial in protected landscape activities, particularly as the lead organisation for promotion and for the collection and exchange of information. PARKS magazine should be revived as a valuable means of communication with all levels responsible for protected areas.

International aid was sometimes thwarted because of concerns about sovereignty and language and regional groupings on a cultural and language basis were considered useful in this respect. The success of FAO's Latin American network was instanced as a particularly good example of this kind of grouping.

Training needs were considered to be greatest for middle management levels of staff with exchange as a useful mechanism if done with careful regard to relevance, objectives and multiplier effect. International meetings could also be useful, providing opportunities for exchanging ideas at first hand and enhancing professionalism. For lower-level field staff it was thought that curriculum development and the provision of materials were the most relevant kinds of international support.

The possibility of instituting new internationally operated award schemes of the character of the Council of Europe's Diploma, specifically for protected landscapes, was considered but was not felt to be a useful way of deploying scarce resources.

The idea of establishing twinning arrangements for protected landscape agencies, both nationally and internationally was touched on briefly and a few examples were identified, mainly at national level or just across national borders. The idea was supported in principle, with the reservation that possibly informal staff exchange programmes might be as effective at less cost.

International campaigns, such as the current European Year of the Environment, were considered potentially useful as a means of raising public awareness of the importance and problems of protected landscapes. However, some concern was voiced that these were becoming too frequent and in themselves beginning to confuse the public. Research was needed into the extent to which they were worthwhile in relation to the effort made in promoting them and into how they might be made more effective in the future.

The trend to include protected landscapes as a specific category in projects funded by development assistance agencies was welcomed.

Finally the merit of organising a regular international seminar on protected landscapes in Europe, similar to that organised presently on national parks in USA/Canada, was considered, in the terms of the precirculated paper on the subject. The idea was strongly supported, but with the proviso that the focus be widened from landscape to embrace all protected areas and that the intended audience be adequately defined. It was suggested that the project should utilise existing regional training centres (eg. Losehill Hall in the Peak National Park, England) and, if successful in a European context, should be expanded to incorporate similar regional seminars in Australia, New Zealand, South America and other parts of the world where there is a relevant body of protected landscape activity.

THE WAY FORWARD

Closing Address by Harold Eidsvik, Chairman of CNPPA

We have emasculated our forests, for example in South Australia 85% of the indigenous forest is gone. We have set up a free trade in acid rain. We did not intend to do it, but that is what has happened in the Federal Republic of Germany, Austria, Canada and elsewhere.

As professionals we may be in danger of losing our vision and our leadership because we come to depend so much on co-operation and collaboration. Public participation and dialogue on management plans are essential, but perhaps they are leading us into a tyranny of the minority. As managers we must ask ourselves if we are becoming guided by the 'polls'.

My view is that we need to recognize that park management is a complex business intertwining the skills of management with a profound knowledge of social issues, economic issues, and ecological considerations. We need to spend more money and time ensuring that our knowledge is indeed profound. We live in a world of judgement values; the science of conservation has not been fully developed. It involves a great range of disciplines and many of us have tended to focus on those with a biological orientation - we have neglected the sociologists and the economists. To continue to do so in the future will place our long term objectives at risk. This is particularly true for North and South America and Africa.

On the other hand, in Europe it strikes me that we have done the opposite; we have reacted to social and economic issues and this is well illustrated in the Lake District. At the same time we have neglected our biology and lost some of our natural ecosystems and species. We are left with postage stamps where we should have total ecosystems protected; our wilderness areas have become biological islands.

I feel that it is very important to remind ourselves that we are in a Protected Landscape that carries the UK designation 'National Park', the latter being a designation that does not conform to internationally agreed upon standards for national parks as established in New Delhi in 1969. I do not make this point lightly because much has been achieved here and we have been witness to that. I am concerned, however, that continued extensive and intensive agricultural use combined with forest operations, prejudices the international value of national parks, not only in Europe but also in North America. In other words, combining the term 'national park' with multiple use resource management threatens the viability of the term national park.

Our challenge is to bring about a change in public awareness so that protected landscapes have a place at the table and are recognised as a significant tool in the conservation chest. This has been a major objective of our symposium.

From a historical point of view we have a lot to learn - some things we would not wish to repeat and some we would. The World Parks Congress in Bali in 1982 is one of the latter and I would like to touch now on its ten major objectives as presenting a practical way forward for us.

Objective 1 was to establish by 1992 a worldwide network of national parks and protected areas to cover all terrestrial ecosystems. There has been remarkable progress in the past few decades. More than 125 countries have established more than 3,500 protected areas incorporating 400 million hectares, but much more remains to be done.

Currently established, we have over 250 million hectares identified in Category II and over 100 million hectares in Category III. There are 27 million hectares in Category V. You will note I said established, not managed, and here is where the future challenge lies - to ensure that established protected areas are brought under a more effective management regime. This involves further inventory, research, staff training and, at the bottom line, public support - leading to political support to provide the essential financial resources.

These goals relate directly to Objective 2, namely, to assist managers to improve the ecological quality of their existing protected areas. Here protected landscapes through local involvement have much to teach us.

Objective 3 is concerned to develop the human capacity to manage protected areas especially through training and, Objective 4 encourages us to incorporate marine, coastal and freshwater areas into the worldwide network of protected areas. Here we have one of our most challenging tasks - for progress has been slow. There are more than 450 marine protected areas and policies are evolving, but real success stories such as the Great Barrier Reef Marine Authority are few in number.

Objective 5 exhorts us to develop the full range of wildland management categories. Here we are making progress and this week's work on Category V is an excellent example. The categories revision currently being undertaken, is another example. The critical factor to remember in the categories paper is that we are developing a global system - it needs to be relatively simple, while at the same time it must be comprehensive.

Objective 6 is closely related and directs us to implement an effective inventory and monitoring service for protected areas. Here our colleagues at the Conservation Monitoring Unit have made extensive progress and the two directories, Protected Landscapes : Experience around the World and Protected Landscapes : The United Kingdom Experience, are major contributions in this sector.

Objectives 7 and 8 have similar thrusts. Number 7 directs us to promote the linkage between the management of protected areas and sustainable development. Here emphasis remains in carrying on our traditional function of protection, education, research and recreational provision. Objective 8 addresses the issue of developing economic tools for supporting protected areas. What is happening is that conservation is moving into the main stream of political and economic security. We see this in the World Bank's recent policy on Wildlands: Their Protection and Management in Economic Development and we see it in various other aid programmes.

Objective 9 is concerned to implement mechanisms for international co-operation in carrying out these objectives and Objective 10 calls on us to implement a global programme to support protected area management.

If we are to have a conservation vision, the means of bringing it about are our political systems. What we are challenged to do is to create a political vision. A vision which becomes a dynamic guiding force for conservation. To do this we must work independently and jointly with governments, with the public and with the productive sectors of our industrial economies.

As park managers, the Protected Landscapes and Biosphere Reserves categories allow us to expand and thus break down our fortress approach. We must move beyond our turf and reach out to a broader constituency. To do this we must use all of the common business practices, which include sweet talk, negotiation, persuasion and political processes as necessary. Usually in the negotiation process

one of these tools will work and a conservation vision will be achieved. As park managers we need to ensure that we are a critical part of the economic package. That is the vision, that is the way ahead.

Thus, the Bali action plan provides a route to the future. We should analyse the plan for its applicabilty to our own organisations and field situations. It is only when the plan is finally implemented at the local level that its exhortations will have real impact on conserving species and sustaining society.



"Drop once and for all the perception of a hierarchy among categories of management ... that the national park is the 'best' ... that the protected landscape is 'second class'" (Dr Kenton Miller in his keynote address). (John Foster)

The Lake District Declaration

We, the participants in the International Symposium on Protected Landscapes held in the Lake District, England in October 1987, building upon the unique natural characteristics of the area and the great cultural traditions established there by Wordsworth and Ruskin,

BELIEVE that :

- People, in harmonious interactions with nature, have in many parts of the world fashioned landscapes of outstanding value, beauty and interest.
- These landscapes, although often much changed from their natural state, make their own special contribution to the conservation of nature and of biological diversity; for many of the ecosystems they contain have evolved and continue to survive because of human intervention. As large areas of undisturbed land become scarcer because of rapidly rising human populations and intensified land use, these landscapes will greatly increase in importance as repositories of biological richness. Moreover, they can serve as vital buffer zones around more strictly protected areas.
- They preserve the evidence of human history in monuments, buildings and the traces of past land use practices. Their continuing use to provide living space and livelihood for indigenous populations allows traditional ways of life and traditional values to endure and to evolve in harmony with the environment.
- They make an important contribution to the physical and mental health of people subject to the stresses of present day life and they offer beauty, pleasure and recreation to many. They give inspiration to writers and artists. They provide young and old with opportunities to learn about their surroundings and comprehend the cultural diversity of the world.
- Even more important, these landscapes are living models of the sustainable use of the land and natural resources upon which the future of this planet and its people depend. They are working examples of principles set out in the World Conservation Strategy and by the World Commission on Environment and Development. They demonstrate that it is possible to design durable systems of use that provide economic livelihoods, are socially and spiritually satisfying, are in harmony with nature, are aesthetically pleasing and preserve the cultural identity of communities. Moreover good conservation has proved to be good economics.

For these reasons, we also BELIEVE that :

- It is vital to protect such landscapes both for their present value and for the contribution that they will make to spreading the philosophy and practices of sustainable development over much larger areas of the world.
- There should therefore be universal recognition for this concept of landscape protection; much greater priority should be given to it; and there should be an active exchange of experience between nations.

- These inhabited landscapes are in delicate and dynamic equilibrium; they cannot be allowed to stagnate or fossilize. But change must be guided so that it does not destroy but will indeed increase their inherent values. This means for each protected area a clear definition of objectives, to which land use policies within it should conform. It means also a style of management that is sensitive to ecological and social conditions. This will be possible by building upon spiritual and emotional links to the land and by the operation of flexible systems of graded incentives and controls.

We further BELIEVE that :

- The protection of these landscapes depends upon maintaining within them a vigorous economy and social structure, and a population that is sympathetic to the objectives of conservation. It means working with people at all levels, and especially with those living and working in the area - the people most intimately affected by what happens to it.

We DECLARE, therefore, the following actions to be of vital importance :

- that governments, international organisations, development agencies and non-governmental organisations should recognise the crucial role that such landscapes can play in sustainable development and in the conservation of the cultural and natural heritage of nations; and should develop programmes accordingly.
- that governments should adopt the protection of these landscapes as a part of their public policies for the use of natural resources and provide sufficient funds to make this effective; and that they should use these protected areas as models - 'greenprints' - for the sustainable management of the wider countryside.
- that governments and development agencies should direct funds destined for the support of agriculture or other economic objectives in these areas towards kinds of development that favour conservation.
- that national and international organisations should promote a worldwide exchange of information and experience on the management of such landscapes and should encourage and extend training in this field.

We PLEDGE ourselves to the promotion of these principles and actions.

Draft Resolution for IUCN

The following draft resolution was approved by participants at the International Symposium on Protected Landscapes held in the Lake District, England in October 1987 and sent thereafter to the Director-General of IUCN for consideration at the Seventeenth General Assembly of IUCN to be held in Costa Rica in February 1988.

INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION FOR PROMOTING THE CONCEPT OF PROTECTED LANDSCAPES AND SEASCAPES

1. Noting that the majority of governments now recognize the necessity to link the conservation of natural resources with economic development, following the basic principles of the World Conservation Strategy and the report of the World Commission on Environment and Development,
2. Recognizing that while Strict Nature Reserves and National Parks (IUCN Categories I and II) contribute to conservation and economic development through non-consumptive uses of natural resources, and conserve areas of natural habitat with minimum human influence, no single approach to conservation is sufficient,
3. Realizing, in this connection, that areas where people are a permanent part of the landscape can demonstrate durable systems of use that provide economic livelihoods, are socially and spiritually satisfying, are in harmony with nature, and preserve the cultural identity of communities,
4. Further realizing that landscapes which have been materially altered by human activities often include species and ecosystems which are dependent on such activities, that such landscapes can serve as buffer zones to more strictly protected areas, that they can provide for recreation and tourism which can make an important contribution to the physical and mental health of visitors as well as help develop public support for environmental protection, and that such areas can form the basis for sustainable development over relatively large regions and thereby be of particular importance in many developing countries,
5. Acknowledging the great value of the management category of Protected Landscape (IUCN Category V) for controlling inappropriate land uses and development pressures in outstanding man-modified landscapes; the value of the Biosphere Reserve concept in linking human concerns with those of protected areas, the specific mention in the World Heritage Convention's Operational Guidelines of the value of areas with significant combinations of cultural and natural features, and the points made in the Lake District Declaration, which was unanimously adopted by the symposium on protected landscapes held in the United Kingdom in October 1987,

The IUCN General Assembly, meeting in San Jose, Costa Rica, recommends :

That within the available funds, IUCN's Director General should :

- encourage IUCN Members having experience and expertise in the establishment and management of protected landscapes and seascapes to make such expertise widely available to other IUCN Members on request, perhaps by using the commissions on National Parks and Protected Areas and on Environmental Planning as conduits,

- assign the Commission on National Parks and Protected Areas to critically evaluate and develop and promote further the criteria for currently applied Category V Protected Landscapes and Seascapes, develop management regimes for such areas, and work with Unesco and ICOMOS to develop criteria for the consideration of sites with mixed cultural and natural values for the World Heritage List.
- request the Commission on Environmental Policy, Law, and Administration to conduct a survey of legal regimes applicable to the establishment, management, and administration of protected landscapes and seascapes, and publish guidelines for establishing and implementing legal, administrative, and fiscal measures appropriate to the circumstances in different countries.
- actively promote the work of the Conservation Monitoring Centre to maintain data files on all categories of protected areas, with a particular effort directed to raising the data level of those categories neglected to date, and to develop simple software which will enable governments and local management authorities to maintain their own compatible databases on microcomputers (PCs).
- encourage the Conservation for Development Centre to work with governments and development assistance agencies to find ways and means to provide effective support to all categories of protected areas in developing countries as a concrete measure to harmonize conservation and development, and to ensure that the concept of different categories of protected areas is fully incorporated in any national conservation strategies that IUCN may be supporting,
- explore via IUCN's regional programme the application of ecodevelopment techniques in the sustainable use of protected landscapes,

That Governments and their Agencies should :

- examine their systems of protected areas and other conservation measures and develop, where necessary, designations and legal regimes for categories of protected areas which include people living permanently within the boundaries of the area.
- encourage the World Heritage Committee to adopt the principle that selected protected landscapes possessing significant, harmonious associations of cultural and natural features can be considered as being of outstanding universal value and worthy of inscription on the World Heritage List.
- support other international efforts - such as the Action Plan for Biosphere Reserves and the Wetlands Convention - which promote collaboration on effective management of protected landscapes in ways which respond to the needs and aspirations of resident populations.
- promote, through the Council of Europe and the European Federation of Nature and National Parks, the establishment of an International Seminar on Protected Areas in Europe, as an effective means of two-way transfer of knowledge about how to manage areas of outstanding conservation value which contain resident human populations.
- develop further ways and means for ensuring that people who live in and around protected landscapes are encouraged, with incentives where appropriate, to maintain a harmonious balance with the environment.

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INTERNATIONAL SYMPOSIUM ON PROTECTED LANDSCAPES
Grange-over-Sands, England : 5-10 October, 1987

P R O G R A M M E

MONDAY 5 OCTOBER

- AFTERNOON** Registration
- EVENING** Welcome Reception and Dinner, by invitation of Sir Derek Barber, Chairman of the Countryside Commission
- 18.45 Reception
- 19.30 Dinner Guest of Honour : The Rt. Hon. Lord Belstead, Minister of State for the Environment, Countryside and Water

TUESDAY 6 OCTOBER : EXPERIENCE AROUND THE WORLD

PLENARY SESSION 1 : WORLD OVERVIEW

- 09.15 **CHAIRMAN** : Sir Derek Barber
 Keynote Address - Dr Kenton Miller (Director-General, IUCN)
- 10.00 Coffee

PLENARY SESSION 2 : THE ROLE OF IUCN

- 10.30 **CHAIRMAN** : Harold Eidsvik (Chairman IUCN Commission on National Parks and Protected Areas)
 Protected Landscapes : Contributing to Conservation - P H C (Bing) Lucas, (Deputy Chairman CNPPA)
 Protected Landscapes : Facts and Figures - Dr Jeremy Harrison (Conservation Monitoring Centre)
 Protected Landscapes : Legislative Background - Dr Malcom Forster (Environmental Law Commission)
 Questions and discussion after each presentation
- 12.30 Lunch

PLENARY SESSION 3 : OTHER INTERNATIONAL PROGRAMMES

- 14.00 **CHAIRMAN** : Dr Hanno Henke (FDR)
 UNESCO's Work related to Protected Landscapes : World Heritage Convention and Biosphere Reserves of Man and the Biosphere - Mrs Jane Robertson (Division of Ecological Sciences, UNESCO)
 Council of Europe's Work related to Protected Landscapes - Mme Marie-Aude L'Hyver (Council of Europe)
 Questions and discussion after each presentation
- 15.15 Tea

PLENARY SESSION 4 : SELECTED NATIONAL APPROACHES

- 15.45 **CHAIRMAN** : Lukito Daryadi (Indonesia)
 Four illustrated presentations
 Australia (Dr Bruce W Davis)
 France (M. F Letourneux)
 Poland (Dr eng. Czeslaw Okolow)
 Venezuela (Dr Pedro Jose Salinas)
- 18.30 Dinner

PLENARY SESSION 5 : THE UNITED KINGDOM SCENE

- 20.00 **CHAIRMAN** : J Roger Carr (Chairman, Countryside Commission for Scotland)
 Statutory Nature Conservation in GB and its relationship to Landscape Protection - Richard Steele, Director-General, Nature Conservancy Council
 Protected Landscapes in the UK - Adrian Phillips, Director, Countryside Commission
 Introduction to the Lake District National Park - John Toothill, National Park Officer, Lake District Special Planning Board

WEDNESDAY 7 OCTOBER : TOUR IN THE LAKE DISTRICT NATIONAL PARK

09.00/18.00 On Tour
18.30 Dinner

PLENARY SESSION 6 : RECONCILING CONSERVATION AND DEVELOPMENT

20.00 CHAIRMAN : Professor Claude Henry (France)
Illustrated case studies related to Workshop 1 (Reconciling Conservation and Development)
Conservation of Natural Landscapes in Japan - Dr Osamu Ikenouye (Japan)
Landscape Protection Options in the Eastern Caribbean Island States - Dr Edward Towle (Virgin Is)
Pinelands, New Jersey ; Co-operative Management of a Mixed Landscape - Glenn Eugster (USA)
Experimental Management and Landscape Protection in Broadland - M Aitken Clark (UK)

THURSDAY 8 OCTOBER : ISSUES AND OPPORTUNITIES

WORKSHOP SESSION 1

09.00 Workshop Groups, each discussing Subject 1 (Reconciling Conservation and Development)
10.30 Coffee

PLENARY SESSION 7 : WORKING WITH PEOPLE

11.00 CHAIRMAN : Samar Singh (India)
Illustrated Case Studies related to Workshop 2 (Working with People)
Annapurna Conservation Area Project - Mingma Norbu Sherpa (Nepal)
Experience in a Small Densely Populated Nation - H H Holden-Jensen (Denmark)
Problems and Solutions in Ngorongoro Conservation Area - J Kayera (Tanzania)
The Red River Agreement; An Example of Regional Heritage Planning - W Douglas Harper (Canada)
12.30 Lunch

WORKSHOP SESSION 2

14.00 Workshop Groups, each discussing Subject 2 (Working with People)
15.30 Tea

PLENARY SESSION 8 : MECHANISMS - WHAT AND HOW

16.00 CHAIRMAN : Mme Marie-Aude L'Hyver (Council of Europe)
Illustrated Case Studies related to Workshop 3 (Mechanisms - What and How)
Japanese and UK Mechanisms Compared : Lessons for Others - Masahiro Ohta (UNEP)
The US Greenline Concept : Its Practical Application - Paul Pritchard (USA)
Papua New Guinea's Wildlife Management Units - Dr Peter Eaton (Papua New Guinea)
The Organisation of Landscape Protection in Colombia - Dr Heliodoro Sanchez Paez (Colombia)
18.30 Dinner

WORKSHOP SESSION 3

20.00 Workshop Groups, each discussing Subject 3 (Mechanisms - What and How)

FRIDAY 9 OCTOBER : ISSUES AND OPPORTUNITIES - AND CONCLUSIONS

PLENARY SESSION 9 : INTERNATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES

- 09.00 CHAIRMAN : Professor Fernando Gonzalez Bernaldez (Spain)
Illustrated Case Studies related to Subject 4 (International Opportunities)
The National Trusts Worldwide - Angus Stirling (UK)
National Strategic Opportunities arising from the World Conservation Strategy
- Dr J Gordon Nelson (Canada)
Contribution of the European Federation to the Development of Protected Landscapes
- Dr Hans Bibelriether (FDR)
- 10.30 Coffee

WORKSHOP SESSION 4

- 11.00 Workshop Groups, each discussing Subject 4 (International Opportunities)
- 12.30 Lunch

PLENARY SESSION 10 : REPORT BACK FROM WORKSHOPS

- 14.00 CHAIRMAN : Bing Lucas (New Zealand)
Report back by chief rapporteurs and consideration of findings of Workshop Groups
- 15.30 Tea

PLENARY SESSION 11 : CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

- 16.00 CHAIRMAN : Adrian Phillips (UK)
- 16.00 Consideration of conclusions with recommendations for symposium declaration and resolution for
General Assembly of IUCN
Closing Address : The Way Forward - Harold Eidsvik (Chairman, CNPPA)

EVENING Reception and Closing Dinner by invitation of the Lake District Special Planning Board

- 18.45 Reception
- 19.30 Dinner (and light musical entertainment)

SATURDAY 10 OCTOBER

- MORNING** Breakfast and disperse

THE INTERNATIONAL SYMPOSIUM ON PROTECTED LANDSCAPES

The term 'Protected Landscape' is internationally recognised as an important category of protected area and criteria for it have been defined by the International Union for Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (IUCN). Such landscapes show how man and nature can interact harmoniously to produce places of outstanding scenic quality, great ecological diversity and great importance for their scenic, educational recreational and cultural associations.

While the approach has been most often employed in European countries to date, the concept has potential for much wider application, in developing as well as developed countries. The protection of man modified environments which best show how man and nature can coexist will undoubtedly become increasingly important in the future as more and more of the unaltered natural environments in the world are either irreversibly altered or effectively protected through national parks or nature reserves. In recent years more and more interest has been shown in the protected landscapes approach.

Conceived and convened by the Countryside Commission jointly with the Council of Europe, this was the background against which the International Symposium for Protected Landscapes was held in the Lake District, United Kingdom, in October 1987.

Published by IUCN and
The Countryside Commission
with support from
Shell U.K. Limited