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The development of place attachment in parks.

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

This report provides a summary of the literature pertaining to the development of place attachment. In presenting an overview of the literature, the report also focuses on the use of the concept of place attachment in the development of a proposed urban park setting, a key requirement of the study. In so doing, the report provides a list of recommendations for the use of the concept in the urban setting. The key findings and recommendations are summarised below.

Key Findings

Place attachment is created as a result of complex human emotions, values and experiences unique to the individual, to form an identity from which we orientate ourselves with the world. The literature has highlighted that place attachment can be created when people invest time or energy into a place through work or recreational activities. Often attachment is not evident to the person until the place of attachment is threatened. Place attachment:

- can be encouraged through memberships to organisations or groups, which use natural settings, or those places that provide solitude and satisfactory experiences
- is strongly influenced by childhood experiences, more so than by engaging in adult activities
- can be affected by social factors such as the different values held by sections of the community or changes in technology
- can be destroyed because of natural events, political unrest or wars.

Place attachment theory can be used in:

- developing community identity
- encouraging healthy communities
- engaging communities
- encouraging and supporting community attachment and sense of ownership.

Key Recommendations

The following recommendations relate to urban parks, and specifically to the proposed development site within the Melton Shire. These recommendations are based on the information in this report, and take into account, the literature review and the demographic profile of the Melton Shire taken from the 2001 Census.

Managing a high use urban park

- Staffing—requires a skills base that needs to be strongly commercial.
- Funding and Impacts—a high prevalence of commercially based funding from leases, rentals, merchandising and sponsorships with limited government support will be required.
- Visitor and Asset Management—the key focus is on providing an entertaining and satisfying experience for visitors within a clean, attractive and safe environment. They tend to require high investment in infrastructure and operating assets to provide human comforts.
- Marketing and Distribution—marketing has a strong consumer orientation, utilizing traditional marketing principles, with the aim of maximising visitor expenditure in the park.
- Governance—these parks may be best operated as autonomous corporative entities reporting to a business or tourism style ministry, rather than an environmental ministry.
Place attachment in urban parks
Urban parks by their location form part of the community, and therefore community attachment should extend to the urban park through strategic planning by managers.

- Children:
  - Encourage children to connect with natural environments, as attachments are formed most strongly in childhood.
  - Develop environmental education programs for children that involve excursions to the park.

- Influencing attachment:
  - Introduce symbols within the park design that reflect the community’s historic and cultural values.
  - Avoid decisions that will lead to dislocation, desegregation or displacement of members of the community.

- Developing community identity:
  - Encourage community identity by the development of symbols that represent Australian heritage throughout the park, as a place for people to reconnect with their heritage. These may be an indigenous walking track, a plaque or war memorial, or an avenue of honour.
  - Conduct cultural and community events.
  - Develop interpretative facilities for historic and cultural heritage.

- Encouraging healthy communities:
  - Make the park accessible to a range of users.
  - Encourage community to use the park by providing a range of facilities such as nature based sport activity circuits, walking or bike tracks, or kite flying.

- Engaging community and encouraging a sense of ownership by providing:
  - Natural amphitheatre space or display area sponsored by local businesses and community groups for artworks, fetes, art/craft, painting workshops or pet days.
  - Natural facilities sponsored by businesses that will draw people to use the park for family and leisure activities, natural picnic spots with shade.
  - Tearooms and picnic/barbeque facilities.

- Encouraging and supporting place attachment:
  - Facilitate the development of trust and improve relationships with community through open discussion and encouraging community involvement.
  - Engage those with the strongest attachments and those affected by issues in management processes.
  - When community participation is weak, consider global events that may assume importance at this time.
Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

Objectives of the Study
This report discusses the concept of place attachment and the literature that is most relevant to the management of parks and protected areas. Although the focus of this report is on the use of place attachment in the design of metropolitan parks, the literature review includes information relevant to national parks as well. In particular, the study relates to the Toolern Creek Park, a proposed and yet to be developed Metropolitan Park site in Melton, Victoria.

Methodology
The hypothesis to be examined is the extent to which place attachment or lack of place attachment plays an important role in park visitation patterns. The hypothesis raises a number of questions about how place attachment is created; influences on place attachment; and how management can use place attachment theory to develop community identity, encouraging healthy communities, engaging communities in park planning, and allow communities a sense of ownership in parks.

To explore these questions, the study will involve three phases. The first phase will be a review of the place attachment literature, which is the main form of data collection. The second phase will examine the community demographics, so that the concept of place attachment can be viewed in context with the demographic profile of the region. In the third and final stage of the project, key recommendations based on the literature review and the demographic profile are put forward to assist in the development and management of the new urban park.

Place attachment studies that involve proposed urban development sites require a different approach to established urban parks. Generally, place attachment to established parks, can be examined through a questionnaire distributed to the community. The method can also apply in some instances to a national park that has a community situated close to its boundaries, such as Croajingolong National Park in south-east Victoria. Place attachment studies that involve proposed development sites require an approach that considers the attachment that people have to their community. This rationale is based on the premise that the proposed park will become part of the community fabric, and therefore understanding residents’ attachment to community is integral to the study. Strategies can then be applied in developing the site that will encourage residents to extend their community attachment to encompass the new urban park.

The outcome of the study will be the identification of strategies that can be incorporated into the design and management of the park to encourage residents to use the new park and reconnect with the natural environment. Ballinger and Manning (1997) assert that by understanding attachment to places, park managers can make better informed decisions. While place attachment has been used extensively in national park studies, the use of the concept in developing urban parks is not evident, although community urban studies are well represented in the literature. This report presents a conceptual framework for the application of place attachment theory within an urban park setting.
The literature review into place attachment was conducted to test the hypothesis that ‘Place attachment or lack of place attachment may play an important role in park visitation patterns.’ Furthermore, the literature was examined to determine:

- how place attachment is created
- what affects place attachment
- how management can use place attachment theory in developing community identity, encouraging healthy communities, engaging communities in park planning, and allowing communities a sense of ownership in parks.

Limitations

Existing research in place attachment covers a broad range of subject areas such as social psychology, sociology, environment, anthropology, and human geography (Pruneau et al. 1999). In consideration of the volume of studies available, the review is confined to studies most relevant to park management within the context of this work. Therefore, omitted from this review are the psychology behind place attachment development, the health sciences literature, and the work relating to regional identity. However, if the reader is interested in the psychology of place attachment development they are referred to the work of social psychologists, Ajzen (1985; 1991), Fishbein and Ajzen (1974a; 1974b), Low and Altman (1992), Fishbein and Middlestadt (1995), Kuller (2004) and others. Similarly, health science studies that explore attachment concerning diagnosis or recovery of psychological or physical illnesses or human development processes do not form a major part of this work. Examples of these are attachment in childhood development (Crittenden & Claussen 2000; Kerns & Richardson 2005; Rolfe 2004), addiction (Farber 2000; Flores 2004), trauma (Freeman 2005; Webb 2004) and abuse (Howe 2005; Kagan 2004). Researchers examining place attachment initially examined the health science studies as it is believed by some that a person’s place attachment is developed from their attachment to people (Fried 2000b). The third area, regional identity, which is the identification of a region, its territorial boundaries, symbolism, and institutions (Paasi 2003), will not be addressed in detail. It is argued in this current report that place identity of regions has more synergy with the characteristics of destinations and tourism regions as referred to in some geography and tourism studies (Dredge & Jenkins 2003; Jeong & Santos 2004; Paasi 2003). The main purpose of this work is to examine a person’s place attachment to a park or to their community, not the characteristics or identity of a landscape. The report will discuss the two key dimensions of place attachment used in recreation research, place dependence (PD) and place identity (PI).
Chapter 3

PLACE ATTACHMENT AND SENSE OF PLACE

In examining this area of research, the terms, ‘place attachment’ and ‘sense of place’, are the most common expressions used in the literature. The term ‘place attachment’ is mainly used in environmental psychology, and ‘sense of place’ in human geography (Kaltenborn & Bjerke 2002; Sharpe & Ewert 1999), although the word ‘place, usually implies geographic space imbued with meaning through personal use’ (Kaltenborn & Bjerke 2002, p. 383).

Human geographers, Ballinger and Manning (1997) and Hay (1988; 1998) view place attachment as a sub set of sense of place, although social scientists and recreational researchers, like Williams and colleagues (1992), deem that place attachment and sense of place are interchangeable. Perceptions of these concepts are provided in Table 1.

Table 1: Perceptions of sense of place

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>THEORIST</th>
<th>CONCEPT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hay (1988)</td>
<td>Sense of Place</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ballinger and Manning (1997)</td>
<td>Place Attachment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human Geography</td>
<td>Considers Sense of Place in a broader context than Place Attachment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Williams, Patterson, Roggenbuck and Watson (1992)</td>
<td>Sense of Place/Place Attachment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Science &amp; Recreation</td>
<td>PD/PI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Considers Sense of Place and Place Attachment to have similar meanings, and Place Dependence and Place Identity as dimensions of Place Attachment</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adapted from information in Bow and Buys (2003, p. 4) and Ballinger and Manning (1997)

Place attachment studies evolved from studies of sense of place, which began with the work of Tuan (1974; 1977), Relph (1976) and Steele (1981) and generally ‘emphasize the inter-connectiveness of feelings, attitudes and behaviour’ (Kaltenborn & Bjerke 2002, p. 384). In his early work, Tuan (1974) considered that motivation to address environmental issues relied on the self understanding of human perceptions, attitudes and values, and that place attachment was linked to self identity. Similarly, Relph (1976) noted that place attachment can be profoundly affected when a landscape is changed, because people project their lives into a place. Furthermore, according to Steele (1981), places have shaped human history and visible surroundings will affect the perspective of a person’s view of the world.

The early work of human geographers, Tuan (1974; 1977) and Relph (1976) put forward a comprehensive explanation of the importance of place attachment in the use of private, personal and public spaces. Their work has substantially progressed research in geography and other disciplines (Stokowski 2002). Place attachment was introduced to recreation by Schreyer, Jacob and White in 1981 (Wickham & Kerstetter 2000) and later to tourism and natural resource management. For example, recreation researchers, Kyle, Graefé, Manning and Bacon (2004a) studied the attachment of hikers, boaters and anglers to settings and activities. Hwang, Lee & Chen (2005) examined tourists attachment and involvement, while visitor attachment and the visitors’ view of key park issues such as grazing and hunting was examined in natural resource management by Smaldone, Harris, Sanyal and Lind (2005).

Terms

Researchers have used a number of terms within the place attachment literature to describe aspects of place attachment, which are referred to in Table 2. Some of these terms may be familiar to the reader or will be self-explanatory, such as ‘community attachment’, ‘emotional linkages to places’, ‘environmental sensitivity’, ‘valued environments’ and ‘emotional investments’. However, an explanation of terms such as ‘topophilia’, ‘domicide’, ‘memoricide’ and others, are briefly explained, while the terms ‘place dependence’ and ‘place identity’, will be discussed in detail, as they are a major focus in this work.
Tuan (1974) introduced the term, ‘topophilia’, to describe an affectionate bond between people and places, which he believed contributed to the formation of values. Terms used by Relph (1976) such as ‘insiderness’, refers to experiencing, belonging and identifying with a place, and ‘rootedness’ which refers to being settled in a place. Additionally, the loss of place attachment is referred to as ‘outsiderness’ which is a lack of involvement, disinterest or self-alienation from a place, or ‘placelessness’ which refers to a lack of recognition of special places, the erosion of symbols, or the severing of roots with a place (Relph 1976). Sharpe and Ewert (1999) identified ‘place interference’, which is a term used to describe the deliberate reversal of place attachment, and Blizard and Schuster (2004) use ‘displacement’, to describe moving away from a place or deciding to visit at another time, when place attachment is disrupted through noise or crowding.

‘Place annihilation’ originally referred to the destruction of places during war (Hewitt 1983), however it now includes place destruction caused by administrations (Windsor & McVey 2005). The term ‘domicide’, a subset of place annihilation, refers to the deliberate destruction of places by agencies driven by individuals seeking personal gain or to achieve personal ambition (Porteous & Smith 2001). The term ‘memoricide’ refers to ‘the destruction of memories that people have of a place through the deliberate destruction of public and/or private records, photographs and documents etc’ such as in Kosovo, Yugoslavia (p. 148).

Table 2: Place attachment terms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Place Attachment Terms</th>
<th>Researchers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1952</td>
<td>Need for Roots</td>
<td>(Weil 1952)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1974</td>
<td>Topophilia</td>
<td>(Tuan 1974)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1978</td>
<td>Emotional Linkages To Places</td>
<td>(Hunter 1978)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>Environmental Sensitivity</td>
<td>(Tanner 1980)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1981</td>
<td>Sense Of Place</td>
<td>(Hay 1988; Steele 1981)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1982</td>
<td>Valued Environments</td>
<td>(Hall 1982; Lee 1982)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1983</td>
<td>People-Place Relationships</td>
<td>(Shumaker &amp; Taylor 1983)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1986</td>
<td>Community Identity</td>
<td>(Hummon 1986)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>Settlement Identity</td>
<td>(Feldman 1990)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1992</td>
<td>Emotional Investments</td>
<td>(Hummon 1986)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>Ecological Identity</td>
<td>(Thomashow 1995)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>* Place Interference</td>
<td>(Sharpe &amp; Ewert 1999)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>* Displacement</td>
<td>(Blizard &amp; Schuster 2004)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* For clarity, a brief explanation of these terms follows
** These terms will be used in the study and therefore are described in more detail in the chapter

Concept
The concept of place attachment is described by Pruneau, Chouinard, Arsenault & Breau (1999, p. 27) as ‘the conscious relationship that people have with their community, their culture or a natural or man-made environment’. Attachment is the result of ‘emotional, cognitive, social, cultural and behavioural factors’ (Pruneau et al., p. 28) and is evident through a positive attitude towards a place, extensive knowledge of an area, or frequent visitation (Brown & Perkins 1992). Tuan (1974; 1977) defines place attachment as a space that has been given meaning through knowing the place, while Riley refers to place attachment as an ‘affectionate relationship between people and the landscape’ (Sharpe & Ewert 1999, p. 218). Broudehoux (2001) expands on the concept to explain that human values are structured from places, and forms the means of our cultural identity, from which to orientate ourselves with the world. Combined with lifetime experiences and inner development, place attachment can reflect the basis of a person’s life (Fried 2000b). Harvard biologist, Edward Wilson’s Biophilia Hypothesis explains attachment as a deep connection with nature that is ingrained within us (Johnson 1994).

Views
Throughout human history, there have been views, theories and concepts that can influence an individual’s attitude and attachment to places. For instance, the Noble Savage Concept considers that ‘humans in their natural state see value in nature’. This view can influence how humans value nature, which finds expression through place attachment. For instance, a person with a place identity attachment can have a symbolic or emotional attachment to nature, while a dependant attachment, would indicate a reliance on nature for employment or lifestyle. This reliance may also lead to considering nature only as a human commodity. A summary of views that may influence attitude and in turn affect place attachment is set out in Table 3.
Table 3: Views influencing place attachment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>View, Theory or Concepts</th>
<th>Attitude to Place Attachment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Noble Savage Concept (Rousseau 1755)</td>
<td>Humans in their natural state see value in nature (place dependence &amp; place identity)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theory of Natural Selection (Darwin 1858)</td>
<td>Nature as part of human self (place identity) &amp; Nature as object (place dependence)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Ecology (Bookchin 1962)</td>
<td>Humans as part of nature but possessing a second nature, a human nature and free will (place dependence)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tragedy of the Commons (Hardin 1968)</td>
<td>Humans reliant on nature (place dependence)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GAIA Hypothesis (Lovelock 1979)</td>
<td>Humans as part of a self regulating organism (place dependence)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sustainability (Strong 1972)</td>
<td>Humans reliant on nature (place dependence)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ecofeminism (D'Eaubonne 1974)</td>
<td>Interconnectedness of humans and non-humans (place dependence) Advocate a reconnection with nature (place identity)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Animal Liberation (Singer 1975)</td>
<td>Animals have absolute rights Respect for humans and non-humans (place identity)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bioregionalism (Berg &amp; Dasmann 1977)</td>
<td>Recognises humans as part of nature Must reconnect with their place in nature, for human wellbeing (place identity)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eco-Socialism (Morris 1979)</td>
<td>Humans reliant on nature (place dependence)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biophilia Hypothesis (Wilson 1984)</td>
<td>Humans evolved deeply interconnected with nature Aversion to nature (Biophobia) due to modern societies (place identity)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ecopsychology (Roszak 1992)</td>
<td>Nature is part of self Sense of place is beneficial to human wellbeing Separation can lead to suffering for both the environment and humans (place identity)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ecotheology (Berry 1996)</td>
<td>Humans and non humans as a single integrated community Mutual benefits coming from reverence for nature (place dependence and place identity)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural Capitalism (Hawkins, Lovins &amp; Lovins 1999)</td>
<td>Humans reliant on nature (place dependence)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Similarly, societal factors can influence values, which can affect place attachment. Some of these factors, which have preceded societal changes in the 21st Century and require consideration in management practices, are set out in Table 4.

Table 4: Societal factors influencing change

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Societal factors influencing change</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Technological Advances</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economy Diversification</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural Differences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alterations to Environment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Media coverage of natural ecological processes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increased understanding of natural processes and loss of protected areas</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adapted from information in Watson (2000)
These shifts are responsible for the changing values and attitudes of societies towards conservation and the protection of wilderness areas (Watson 2000). As urbanised societies ‘will continue into the future’ (p. 57), the importance of preserving natural areas has taken on new significance. It is essential for management to understand this shift in society’s values and attitudes, to allow them to engage community effectively in conservation and management.

Approach

Various concepts held about place attachment make it necessary to clarify the approach adopted for this study. A summary by Bow and Buys (2003) put forward three different concepts which are illustrated in Table 5.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>THEORIST</th>
<th>CONCEPT</th>
<th>Comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hay (1988) Human Geography</td>
<td>Sense of Place</td>
<td>Considers Sense of Place in a broader context than Place Attachment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Place Attachment</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bricker and Kerstetter (2000) Environmental Psychology</td>
<td>Place Attachment</td>
<td>Considers Sense of Place, Place Dependence and Place Identity to be forms of Place Attachment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sense of Place/PD/PI</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Williams, Patterson, Roggenbuck and Watson (1992) Social Science &amp; Recreation</td>
<td>Sense of Place/Place Attachment</td>
<td>Considers Sense of Place and Place Attachment to have similar meanings, with Place Dependence and Place Identity as dimensions of Place Attachment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PD/PI</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adapted from information in Bow and Buys (2003, p. 4)

The difference between the three concepts is the position that sense of place holds in each place attachment concept, which varies across the disciplines. Bow and Buys (2003, p. 4) summarise that ‘the most prominent concept within environmental psychology is place attachment, while human geographers promote the concept of sense of place which incites their interest’. In examining the concepts, it is argued here that the work by Bow and Buys (2003) can be aligned with theorists, Williams, Patterson, Roggenbuck and Watson (1992), as ‘place attachment is conceptualised as being comprised of two components: place dependence and place identity is frequently used in social science outdoor recreation research’ (Sharpe & Ewert 1999, p. 218).
Chapter 4

PLACE DEPENDENCE AND PLACE IDENTITY

Introduction
Place attachment, within the recreation literature, primarily consists of two components: a goal directed/functional attachment referred to as place dependence (PD), and an emotional/symbolic attachment referred to as place identity (PI) (Presley 2003; Sharpe & Ewert 1999; Williams et al. 1995). The role of place dependence and place identity within the model put forward by Williams et al (1992) is set out in Figure 1.

Figure 1: Place Dependence & Place Identity

Adapted from information in Williams et al (1992)

Studies listed under the categories of place dependence and place identity often extend beyond their listed category to incorporate elements of the other. For instance, those that have an emotional or symbolic attachment may also be place dependent for occupational or recreational use.

Predictors of place attachment
Predictors of place attachment may include age, length of residence, perceptions of a place, symbolic meanings, environmental attitudes (Jorgensen & Stedman 2005), physical attributes and involvement with the destination (Hou, Lin & Morais 2005), level of experience, motivation and evaluation of management actions (Kyle, Graefe & Manning 2004a).

Place Dependence

Introduction
The goal directed/functional attachment, place dependence (PD), explains the dependence on a place for a specific activity such as recreation or employment. In Australia, for example, farmers may be reliant on a national park, for cattle grazing and a dune buggy club may be reliant on a coastal park for their recreational activities. Most place dependence studies include two or three community groups within each study. These may be active recreational users, who use the park for sport related activities; passive users, who use the area for picnics or family gatherings; or users that rely on the resource for their livelihood such as graziers and farmers. These users are place dependant; however, passive users may also choose an area due to an emotional or symbolic link, and will be dealt with under the place identity section of this chapter. Place attachment studies can examine the level of dependence on the resource, as some communities may be heavily dependant while others are not. Furthermore, this knowledge can provide insight into attitude or behaviour towards the resource, management decisions, conservation activities and other matters.

Place dependent recreational users
Recreational users are those who use the resource for formal or informal sports activities, such as hiking, boating, fishing, bush-walking, rock climbing, horse riding and similar activities. This section briefly considers
the effect of place dependence on place attachment development through providing an opportunity to use a resource, and activity involvement; the role of place dependence on motivation; solitude; satisfaction; and interpretation; and the role of place attachment in support for the resource.

Opportunity to use the resource
Andrews, cited in Kaltenborn and Bjerke (2002), believes that the degree of attachment can be influenced by natural landscapes, a person’s workplace, or social or recreational opportunities. When members of a community have the right to enter a region, an attachment is formed even prior to entering the space (Chawla 1992; Marcus 1992; Riley 1992; Sharpe & Ewert 1999). This is evident in an Australian study of new residents to the Atherton Tablelands and Woodstock (Measham 2004), however a person may not be aware of their place dependence until an area is under threat, at which time a person’s link to a place is recognized (Pruneau et al. 1999).

Activity involvement
The influence of dependence on activity involvement was the subject of numerous studies (Cavin et al. 2004; Kyle et al. 2003; Mowen & Graefe 1999; Mowen, Graefe & Virden 1997; Proshansky, Fabian & Kaminoff 1983). The outcome of these studies showed that activity involvement enhanced the relationship with the setting, which led to positive experiences for those involved.

Solitude, motivation and satisfaction
Daigle and colleagues examined the emotional, symbolic and functional attachment of river and lake users on the St Croix Waterways (Daigle, Hannon & Stacey 2001). They found that solitude was linked to high levels of place attachment. However, motivation to visit a place did not necessarily lead to the development of place attachment (Kyle, Mowen & Tarrant 2004).

Satisfaction has also been the subject of various studies in regard to satisfaction and willingness to engage in place decisions (Stedman 2002), satisfaction and interpretation (Hwang, Lee & Chen 2005), and satisfaction and crowding (Wickham & Kerstetter 2000). The first two studies conclude that ‘positively influencing place attachment and activity involvement is an effective strategy for increasing visitor satisfaction’ (Wickham & Graefe 2001, p. 362). The first two studies showed that place attachment had a beneficial effect on satisfaction, and interpretation (Wickham & Graefe 2001), while increased attachment to community led to more positive feelings about crowding at community events (Wickham & Kerstetter 1999, 2000).

Support for the resource
Research within park and protected areas has examined active recreational users attachment to natural areas, such as white-water rafting (Bricker & Kerstetter 2000), rail-trail users (Moore & Graefe 1994) and hikers, boaters and anglers (Kyle, Graefe & Manning 2004b). Presley (2003) believes that this knowledge can be used to identify groups that can support and assist in planning and management. He concludes that these users are likely to donate time and money to assist with the management of this resource for their continued use.

The degree of acceptance for management actions as well as the reasons for taking river trips was examined in a comparative study by Warzecha, Lime and Thompson (1999) in the Canyonlands National Park and Mount Rushmore National Memorial in the USA. Both the agreement levels for management actions and the reasons for the trips differed amongst the groups, and correlated with different levels of agreement to the statements given about place attachment. A study by Daigle, Hannon and Stacey (2001) showed that differing levels of agreement to place attachment statements had no influence when it came to impacts on the resource, which all groups in the study saw as important.

Interpretation
Visitors seek to understand and be inspired by a park, which according to Williams and Vaske (2002) are the reasons for most visits. By understanding the meaning that visitors bring with them to a site, Chen and colleagues (2001; 1999) believe that the desired outcomes of fostering stewardship and intellectual or emotional connections to the resource can be achieved partly through the role of interpretation of the resource.

The role of place attachment in interpretation, planning, and zoning decisions is summarised by Lee (2001). He stated that management must re-evaluate their decision-making practices to include place meaning for various groups. The value of place attachment to management and interpretation is recommended in various studies (Chen et al. 2001) and is important to resource managers during the decision making process (Williams & Vaske 2002). In addition, the results of the study by Chen et al (2001) suggested that visitors exposed to the interpretive experience may also cultivate a stronger place attachment. However, a number of researchers have noted that the role of place attachment in interpreting cultural heritage requires particular consideration in cultural planning (Markwell, Stevenson & Rowe 2004; McCool & Moisey 2001).
**Place dependent occupational users**

Occupational users are those reliant on the resource for their livelihood. These users may be landowners, business owners such as tourism operators, graziers, farmers, local and indigenous communities, and national park employees or volunteers. This section considers the effect of place dependence on levels of attachment, conflict amongst user groups and the influence of place dependence on place identity and environmental behaviour.

**Levels of attachment**

Natural resource managers must understand why people consider places as special in order to consider their concerns during the planning process (Schroeder 2004). Furthermore, Ryan (2005) found that the attachment of volunteers and management varied to those of other users, as did the perspective on how an area should be managed.

A study of national forest user groups by Confer, Graefe, Absher & Thapa (1999) revealed higher levels of place attachment amongst those dependant on the resource. The study showed that landowners and horse users had a higher level of attachment than day visitors and other groups. The outcome of this study suggested that management give consideration to these groups during any planning processes.

A strong functional attachment was also found in a study by Zwick and Solan (2001) where attachment was stronger amongst those involved in harvesting activities in Denmark that those not involved. These authors concluded that people form attachment to places through resource use. Likewise Bricker and Kerstetter (2000) in their study of active recreational resource users also found that those with a specialisation in an activity had a stronger place attachment than those less experienced. A study in Tigray, Ethiopia by Beyene, Gibbon and Haile (2005) showed that land use can also be shaped by historical processes and cultural values. The sense of place and identity associated with farming in Ethiopia has developed over time ‘as generations pass through the [same] family dwelling’ (p. 1). Beyene and colleagues have called on policy makers to pay attention to the attachment farmers have to their lands in matters regarding policies on land distribution and agricultural extensions.

**Conflict amongst users**

Those dependant on a resource for their activities or lifestyle are more prone to conflict amongst user groups as they see the activity or place as central to their wellbeing (Jacob & Schreyer 1980). Managing diversity in attitudes to resource management was addressed in a study by Kaltenborn and Williams (2002) in Femundsmarka National Park in Southern Norway. The study examined tourists and local community attachment to places in relation to attitudes to the resource and to management priorities. The study concluded that management objectives were more important to those with a higher level of place attachment, which in this case was the local community. Key park management issues such as grazing and hunting was the subject of a study in the Grand Teton National Park in the USA. The finding of this study concluded that while place attachment was strong amongst visitors, those negatively affected by issues portrayed a stronger emotional attachment than those unaffected. The study concluded that in discovering place attachment levels management could identify community groups for public involvement in management processes (Smaldone et al. 2005). Opposition to development and landscape change was evident in a study on river communities in Nebraska, which provided management with a meaning based framework for addressing controversial problems (Davenport & Anderson 2005). Trust and community involvement in decisions in natural resource management agencies were examined by Payton, Fulton and Anderson (2005). The study found that trust was a major issue in mediating civil action, and by understanding place attachment, would lead to developing trust and improve civic relationships.

**Influence on identity and environmental behaviour**

The influence of place dependence on place identity was examined by Pretty, Chipuer and Bramston (2003) in Australian rural communities, by Vaske and Kobrin (2001) on youth in natural resource work programs, Kaltenborn (1997) on homeowners in Norway, and Moore and Graefe (1994) on rail trail users. The study by Vaske and Kobrin confirmed that place dependence influenced place identity, and was strongly linked to environmental behaviour. However a study of traditional mountain farmers in the Hohe Tauere National Park in Austria showed that they did not consider themselves as protectors of the environment although this may have been the perception of others (Ploner 1995). Further studies reveal that people with a strong place dependence, also had a strong place identity and this attachment can influence environmental behaviour (Kyle et al. 2004b; Vaske & Kobrin 2001). Homburg and Stolberg (2006) deem that when environmental stresses threaten individuals, then a shift towards pro environmental behaviour is experienced.
Summary of place dependence

The goal directed/functional attachment, place dependence (PD), explains the dependence on a place for a specific activity such as recreation or employment. Place attachment studies conclude higher levels of place attachment amongst those that are dependant on the resource. In addition, recreation users with a specialisation in an activity had a stronger place attachment than those less experienced.

Furthermore, studies found that in discovering place attachment levels management could identify community groups for public involvement in management processes (Smaldone et al. 2005). In addition, people with a strong place dependence, also had a strong place identity and this attachment can influence environmental behaviour (Kyle et al. 2004b; Vaske & Kobrin 2001).

Place Identity

Introduction

Within the context of the place attachment literature, place identity (PI) refers to the emotional/symbolic attachment to a place. Williams et al (1995) explains that the way a person identifies with a place is linked strongly with a special childhood memory, adult memory or a place of special significance such as a symbol of heritage. A person may have particularly happy childhood memories of holidays in a seaside town; a couple may have special memories of their honeymoon destination; while a historic site such as Anzac Cove in Gallipoli, may hold particular historic importance for many Australians. Users with an emotional or symbolic attachment can be passive recreation users, users of walking trails or picnic grounds, or users that have an interest in historic aspect, or have an emotional or symbolic attachment developed from a specific need for work or recreation referred to as place dependence.

Emotional attachment

Emotional attachment to a place, Proshansky (1978) explains is linked to a person’s unique socialisation in the world revealed through their place identity, which reflects their personal identity established through a complex web of conscious and unconscious ideas, feelings, preferences and values. Expanding on this concept, other social and physical characteristics of places may also be linked to a person’s place identity (Measham 2004; Mura 2004) which will evolve over time with life experience and inner growth (Measham 2004; Speller 2000). A case in point was a study that examined the effect of climate on place identity. The study concluded that a person’s perception of a place may be influenced by climate, and showed to be a strong influence on those with a high emotional attachment to their residential area (Knez 2005). There are many influences on place identity, and some are discussed below. This section considers place identity/emotional attachment in relation to environmental education, past experience, community, destination choice and the role of narrative in identifying emotional attachment.

Environmental education

A study by Blizard and Schuster (2004), examined children’s reactions after a woodland area used for creative play was removed from their use. Blizard and Schuster observed that the children had formed a strong emotional attachment to the trees, plants and animals. The bond to the natural area was evident through the sense of wonderment and care the children displayed towards the area, and the subsequent emotional loss they expressed for both the ‘loss of nature, their place and the animals that had made their homes in the trees’ (p. 60). This expression of loss was also an expression of the loss of the social and physical link to their place identity, that is, their link to their forest home and the community of children that played in the forest and participated in building the forest forts. The study supports environmental education in schools as suggested by Measham (2004), who found that the emotional attachment of place identity is strongly influenced by childhood experiences, more so than by engaging in adult activities such as land production or recreational activities. Additionally, Measham (2004) explains that environmental education in childhood can encourage learning about places and foster links between ourselves and the environment.

Past experiences

A person’s past experiences is considered an important influence in developing identity, and underlies various studies into the role of past experience in developing place attachment (Bricker & Kerstetter 2000; Moore & Graefe 1994; Williams et al. 1992). Zajone (2001) explains that if repeated exposure to a place either through the written or visual media can form place attachment, ‘...then past experience should also be a powerful predictor of place identity’ (Backlund & Williams 2003, p. 321).

Negative past experiences however, can have the reverse effect on emotional attachment as demonstrated in a study by Johnson (1998). The study showed that black Americans had a lower level of attachment to wilderness
than white Americans did. Johnson suggests that the collective memory of the groups past experience was linked with the negativity associated with slavery, sharecropping and lynching (Johnson 1998) which caused displacement and the breaking of emotional connections (Inalhan & Finch 2004). Alternatively, inattentiveness or disinterest in local affairs can still occur when community attachment is strong. A study by Lima and Castro (2005) explained that residents were more concerned with global catastrophic events than local ones as they did not feel threatened and believed that science was quite capable of dealing with this. Additionally, the residents believed that their community ‘could not be contaminated with the same problems that concerned them globally’ (p. 33). The exception to disinterest in local affairs were those residents individually affected by local issues, which is sometimes referred to as ‘not in my backyard’ (Lima & Castro 2005).

Community
The formation of communities is the result of common experiences and a shared context of meanings (Ballesteros & Ramirez 2006). ‘These contexts of meanings shape situations in which participants create values’ (p. 2). Furthermore, communities as well as the individual are strong reference points for the creation of identities, which are symbolic realities. According to Auge (cited in Ballesteros & Ramirez 2006, p. 1), ‘when strong collective identities are linked to life spaces, a solid sense of community is formed’ (p. 1).

A study by Kim and Kaplan (2004) on community identity in an urban environment showed that residents had a strong sense of community identity when natural features and open spaces were present which allowed social interaction. Likewise social interaction was relevant in a study on residents’ place attachment to their homes, neighbourhood and city (Hildago & Hernandez 2001). Further studies included the level of support for tourism development in communities (Mc Cool & Martin 1994) and government planning of landscapes (Al-Hathloul & Aslam Mughal 1999) the process which Russell and Harris (2001) believe can foster and result in a strong sense of community identity. In an effort to understand the relationship between identity and choices that people make in their lives, a study on the elderly in rural communities revealed that they strongly identified with their homes and community and because of this emotional attachment were reluctant to move in their autumn years (Ponzetti 2003). In contrast, Mark Halstead, in a review on Yemeni girls who have settled with their families in America (Sarroub 2005), commented that while struggling with two cultures, the girls must come to terms with an identity constructed mainly from the influence of males, family members and community leaders.

Williams (2002) believes that globalisation has removed the traditional place based community identity which he refers to as Politics of Place. He explains that Politics of Place is when leisure activities are used to ‘affirm connections to places which in turn can create and structure social differences between locals and outsiders and assert power and authority over place’ (p. 352). This will have implications in a global context as communities compete for claims on places.

Displacement
Displacement is a term used to describe a way of coping with disruptions to attachment. To illustrate this, an individual may cope by moving to another location or by visiting a site on a different day to avoid noise or crowding (Blizard & Schuster 2004). Desegregating communities can dislocate personal or community identity (Dixon & Durrheim 2004) and likewise shifts in social and community attachments can also result in displacing communities (Fried 2000a). A study by Windsor and McVey (2005) on the displacement of indigenous communities in Canada through dam construction in the 1950s resulted in displacement and a loss of place identity, through the forcible removal of the community from their lands. According to Snyder, Williams & Peterson (2003, p. 109) in regard to indigenous communities, ‘to move a culture is tantamount to destroying it’, this is because so much ‘is woven into special patterns and localized meanings’. Displacement and loss of identity for indigenous cultures is the result of how modern societies interpret human relationships with nature (Snyder 2003). Modern societies use valuation methods based on legal and economic criteria, ‘while in a subsistence culture, meaning and relevance of much of the culture’s knowledge and practices are specific to geographic places, for example, the knowledge of the particular location and timing of harvestable plants and game’ (p. 110).

The displacement of cultures is also evident in a study by Possick (2004) on evicted Jewish settlers. The study showed the trauma of separation and an ideological place attachment amongst those affected. Similarly, a study on immigrants by Van Ecke (2005) supported these results. The complexity of attachment, place identity and displacement accentuated through the Kashmiri Hindu migrants who settled in New Delhi is worth noting. Displacement occurred through increased military activity and an unstable political climate, and many migrants still cling to the hope of one day returning to their homeland (Duschinski 2004).
Destination choice
As place identity refers to the emotional or symbolic attachment to a place, repeat visitation can play a significant role in strengthening this attachment (Altmann & Low 1992; Belk 1992). Additionally, an emotional, symbolic or functional attachment also serves to shape activities and preferences for specific settings (Backlund & Williams 2003), for when we are exposed to a place, we can develop a preference for that setting (Zajonc 2001).

Alegre and Juaneda (2006) assert that the reason for repeat visitation is due in part to developing an emotional attachment to the destination. Similarly, Marles and colleagues (2001; 2003) discovered that a link existed between place identity and repeat tourist visitation, and that emotional bonds are strengthened through repeat visits to a place. Another study of visitors to Myrtle Beach and Charleston in the USA by Lee, Backman & Backman (1997) supported the view that place attachment can help to explain repeat visitation. The two destinations offered a different experience; one offered an historic resource while the other offered a family facility. Both experiences strengthened emotional attachments to places while the latter also strengthened attachment within the family unit. However, attachments that children form to places may vary with gender and age. For instance, Min and Lee (2006) established that children in the 10–12 age group preferred city fringe settings, sports facilities and vacant areas, while children in the 7–10 age group preferred play grounds and green spaces. However, common to all children was the preference for natural settings, private and secret places and rest areas, uninterrupted by adult interference. In regard to urban environments, Min and Lee (2006) believe that if a child is exposed to the safe, comfortable built playground environment, they accept this setting as special to them for their psychological and social play needs.

Understanding the significance and meaning of the destination to the visitor is important to managers, if they are to meet the needs of the user (Lee 2001). Hailu, Boxall and McFarlane (2005) found that place attachment ‘formed through previous trips to a destination can also influence recreational demand and travel costs’ (p. 581). Hailu and colleagues integrated place attachment into a recreational demand and travel cost model. They hypothesised that ‘as place attachment develops, visits to a site increase, as recreationists perceive fewer sites as adequate substitutes’ (Hailu, Boxall & McFarlane 2005, p. 583). By examining the link between place attachment and recreational habits, they were able to ascertain potential costs associated with such trips, therefore having ‘the potential to affect the estimate of per trip consumer surplus’ (p. 595).

Williams et al (1992) in a study of visitors to four wilderness sites, highlighted differences between attachment to a wilderness setting and attachment to a place for other recreational use such as a holiday. The study identified an alliance between wilderness and lifestyle choice, such as membership to an organisation or group, while attachment of other users related to lower socio-economic status. However a study by Harris and Orams (1990), of regional parks in Auckland, New Zealand found that a lower economic status was more a characteristic of non park users (Griffin, Wearing & Archer 2004).

Narrative
The travel experience is particularly valuable for people in transitional stages of their lives, a theme explored by White and White (2004) in a study of visitors to the Australian Outback. The study concluded that self-identity can be revitalised, or changed through the travel experience, and is relayed through postcards, photos or talk about travel. A study by McCabe and Stokoe (2004, p. 602), explained the role of narrative as an expression of place identity ‘… when tourists relay their experiences of a place their talk about the place becomes their talk about their identity’. Place attachment can be expressed as a visual narrative such as a postcard (Pritchard & Morgan 2003), or in the tourists description of a place (McCabe & Stokoe 2004). Similarly Johnstone (1990) explains that the sense of self identity is rooted in narrative, as stories about places can create meaningful attachments. Trauer and Ryan (2005, p. 483) conclude that ‘narrative serves to structure a person’s sense of self and place while also influencing interactions with others on a personal as well as a community level’.

Symbolic attachment
Symbolic attachment to a place is assigned by ‘individuals, groups and societies, and is not necessarily related to the physical attributes of a place’ (Williams et al. 1992, p. 33). Moreover, the recreational experience, according to Tuan (1977) can be either a ‘direct experience of the senses’ or it can be experienced through ‘cognitive/symbolic processes’ (in Williams et al. 1992, p. 33).
Most community studies are in urban or rural settings, and within these communities are symbols that contribute to self-identity and a distinctive community identity. Place identity studies generally support the view that a person’s identity is closely linked to their community identity (Dixon & Durrheim 2004; Fried 2000a; Hildago & Hernandez 2001). A study by Hull, Lam and Virgo (1994) on community icons exposed a connection to the past through symbols which represented social groups that the residents belonged to or identified with, or were reminders of personal accompaniments and concerns which evoked feelings and emotions.

This section considers place identity/symbolic attachment to national parks, historic and cultural sites, cultures and spirituality, all of which contain symbolic meaning to particular individuals or communities.

**National parks as symbols**

National parks are considered national symbols which can ‘evoke memories of experiences, developed through cultural and social meanings attached to the place’ (Griffin, Wearing & Archer 2004, p. 265). Recognition of the cultural and psychological benefits of a quiet untouched setting as found in national parks has been well recognised in the research (Mace, Bell & Loomis 2004). It is important to note that ethnic groups may not relate to the park as a national symbol but are more likely to use urban parks or national parks that are close to their community as a social space, as they are large enough to accommodate family gatherings (Griffin, Wearing & Archer 2004, p. 274). Moreover, those who have never been exposed to national parks, are unlikely to visit ‘because they do not have the cultural attachment and traditionally will follow their own cultural habits’ (p. 267). However, if park managers are aware of these cultural differences, they can develop strategies that will encourage new users, such as gatherings or events that will attract specific community groups. This will support the development of community identity and social meaning for the users. Social value has become an important feature of community identity and maintaining broad community support for national parks is important if environmental, economic, socio-cultural, physiological or psychological benefits are to be realised (Griffin, Wearing & Archer 2004). Using a site for family gatherings can result in attachment through the process of identifying with the site for social or cultural activities.

**Historic or cultural sites**

Symbolic attachment was examined in a study on visitors to the Historic Lincoln, Vietnam and Korean War Veteran Memorials in America (Chen, Wang & Larsen 1999), the study showed that the connection to the past was deep and profound for most visitors. Visitors ‘reconnected with the principles and values of the sites, reflected and reconnected with the past and honoured those that had passed before them’ (p. 343). People who visit historic or cultural sites according to Svensson (1998), were reconnecting with their separation from culture and nature through the tourist experience, and by understanding the tourists relationship to the resource, managers may be in a better position to stimulate and foster stewardship.

Fredrickson (2001) examined symbolic attachment through studying visitors’ knowledge of the cultural and natural history of the region they were visiting. The importance of this study showed that those who considered this knowledge important had a stronger place attachment, which in turn had a favourable influence on their environmental ethic. A further study of Taiwanese cultural tourists found that ‘the meaning and the formation of place attachment may differ depending on the background of the tourist’ (Hou, Lin & Morais 2005, p. 221). Hou and colleagues found that those tourists with the same cultural background as the host community expressed identity with the community, while those from non-ethnic backgrounds expressed a dependence on the resource to define their place attachment. These authors also found that destination attractiveness and involvement were linked to the formation of place attachment and the formation of cultural identity (Hou, Lin & Morais 2005).

**Cultures**

People’s symbolic attachment to environments is studied extensively in Finland by Tauhinu & Pietka (2004), where the lakes and waterways form part of everyday life and hold iconic meaning in the Finnish Culture. Similarly, ‘island communities often have the sea as a major active force in their mythic history, while American Indians may emphasise a relationship between earth and sky’ (Steele 1981, p. 6). Similarly, symbolic attachment and community identity reflected the heritage of mining towns in Spain. Furthermore, features such as ‘geographical, social and economic isolation’ are common to many mining communities worldwide (Ballesteros & Ramirez 2006, p. 3). ‘Strong nostalgic feelings and the desire to preserve cultural heritage’ (Cunningham 2004, p. 505) were considered most important in a community study in the Ogasawara Islands. Consisting of thirty islands, Ogasawara was declared a National Park in 1994, and the community retains strong cultural links to activities in the islands during the Second World War.

The symbolic attachment of cultures can be an emotional experience and ‘create intense and heated views and lead to conflict amongst groups’ (Presley 2003, p. 27). Symbolic attachment and conflict amongst user groups is evident in a case study of Devils Tower Monument in the USA. The American Indians, who held a
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deep symbolic attachment to the monument as a sacred site, were in conflict with the rock climbing community who were place dependant on the site for rock climbing (Dustin et al. 2002). Avoidance of this issue in the future requires an understanding of the meaning attached to places by user groups.

The symbolic attachment of cultures has implication for communities displaced by natural events or unrest. A consideration of cultures and establishing community attachment was examined in the resettling of immigrants (Mazumdar et al. 2000; Ng 1998). These authors found that re-establishing the social and ritual activities of the migrant groups, helped them to settle in the community. Low (in Griffin, Wearing & Archer 2004, p. 265) explains that these activities bring cultural meaning and worth to a new community as ‘a symbolic relationship exists between people and places’.

**Spirituality**

Spiritual attachment in ancient philosophies and eastern religions began with the worship of nature spirits (Wall 1994). This attachment is evident in contemporary society in those with a great compassion for animals, as displayed by the Buddhist community (Wall 1994), and activists such as animal liberationists. In comparison the Judeo-Christian traditional religions taught the domination of nature, through which Mebratu (1998) believes the attachment to the natural world was compromised. Ecotheology seeks to address this by calling for reverence for nature and the continuity between humans and non humans as a single integrated community (Berry 1996).

Spiritual attachment is evident in a study of the community of Nazareth, which consisted of Christian and Muslim-Arab residents. The purpose of the study was to establish the attitudes of the community towards heritage tourism development. Uriely, Israeli & Reichel (2003) found that the Christian minority were more likely than the Muslim majority to support the development as it would promote their beliefs and culture. The authors also suggested that the culture that was not promoted (Muslim-Arab) should be allowed to develop their own sites and benefit from promoting the region as a heritage tourism site through tax incentives and other initiatives.

The effect of wilderness attachment to spirituality has been examined by researchers (Brayley & Fox 1998; Driver et al. 1996; Stringer & McAvoy 1992). A summary by Heintzman (2003) concludes that people who visit wilderness places ‘alone and participate in nature orientated experiences are more likely to experience spiritual benefits’. Likewise, some places have a spiritual resonance for particular groups such as the rapport that Buddhists have to the Himalayas (Frumkin 2003), which is likened to a retreat experience at a monastery (Ouellette, Kaplan & Kaplan 2005), or the spiritual attachment of indigenous communities to their ancestral land. This capacity of humans to reconnect with the earth is also an anticipated outcome of James Lovelock’s GAIA hypothesis. A study by Kidd (2002) examines the impact of laws that took away traditional land rights of the Australian Aboriginal people and subsequently lead to severing their spiritual attachment, which was closely linked to the landscape. Kidd states that from the perspective of the aboriginal community, without traditional lands, the ancestral spirit totems that reside in the landscape, as well as the personal and community identity of these people has disappeared. Similar to the American Indians, the indigenous communities linger with nowhere to direct their spirituality and community identity.

Frumkin (2003) found that the attachment that people have with places can have either a positive or negative impact on a person’s wellbeing, and he concluded that health should be synonymous with place. Additionally religious rituals have a positive effect on place attachment (Mazumdar & Mazumdar 1993, 2004), while the rituals of indigenous cultures also have a positive effect in their reconnection with the earth through songs, chants and prayers (Dunbar 2000).

**Health**

The spiritual and restorative aspect of the nature experience, which may include adventure and health therapies, has been the subject of examination in the area of eco-psychology. Eco-psychology considers that sense of place in nature is beneficial to human wellbeing (Devereux 1996) and when humans are separated it can lead to suffering for both the environment and humans (Seed 1994). Bioregionalism (Metzner 1999) and deep ecology (Taylor & Zimmerman 2005) also recognise that the relationship of humans and environment have mutually restorative benefits.

The restorative benefits of holidays have been reported in the tourism literature by Gilbert and Abdullah (2004) and Mura (2004), while the restorative benefits of natural settings have also been examined (Hartig, Kaiser & Bowler 2001; Korpela & Hartig 1996; Korpela et al. 2001). The first two studies examined the restorative qualities of favourite places though the authors noted that the physiological benefits of travel had not been adequately explored in the tourism literature. The study by Hartig et al. (2001) considered that people who believe the restorative aspects of nature are important also behave more responsibly towards natural environments.
Summary of Place Identity

Within the context of the place attachment literature, place identity (PI) refers to the emotional/symbolic attachment to a place. A person’s past experiences is considered an important influence in developing identity, and underlies various studies into the role of past experience in developing place attachment (Bricker & Kerstetter 2000; Moore & Graefe 1994; Williams et al. 1992). Furthermore environmental education in schools is supported by Measham (2004), who found that place identity is strongly influenced by childhood experiences, more so than by engaging in adult activities such as land production or recreational activities. A study by Kim and Kaplan (2004) on community identity showed that residents had a strong sense of community identity when natural features and open spaces were present which allowed social interaction. Williams (2002) believes that globalisation has removed the traditional place based community identity which also can occur through integrated communities (Dixon & Durrheim 2004).

As place identity refers to the emotional or symbolic attachment to a place, repeat visitation can play a significant role in strengthening this attachment (Altman & Low 1992; Belk 1992). A study by McCabe and Stokoe (2004, p. 602) explained the role of narrative as an expression of place identity ‘… when tourists relay their experiences of a place their talk about the place becomes their talk about their identity’. Symbolic attachment to a place is assigned by ‘individuals, groups and societies, and is not necessarily related to the physical attributes of a place’ (Williams et al. 1992, p. 33). Within communities are symbols that contribute to self-identity and a distinctive community identity. Place identity studies generally support the view that a person’s identity is closely linked to their community identity (Dixon & Durrheim 2004; Fried 2000a; Hildago & Hernandez 2001).
Place attachment research within parks and protected areas is important due to the resources contained within these areas, which represent important attachments for a range of users. Understanding the attachment to places allows park managers to make informed decisions (Ballinger & Manning 1997). Within national parks, place attachment is significant as the designation of regions acts to protect as well as identify significant historic, cultural and natural resources, which can form part of a community’s regional identity and character (Atkisson 1989).

Implementing place attachment into park management strategies was explained by Presley (2003) and Smaldone, Harris, Sanyal and Lind (2005) to have many benefits for managers and communities some of which are listed in Table 6.

Table 6: Using place attachment in management

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Outcomes</th>
<th>Strategies</th>
<th>Uses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Inform Park</td>
<td>To identify user groups</td>
<td>Volunteers, donors, board members, fee supporters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management</td>
<td>Planning and management involvement</td>
<td>Planning and management involvement</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Empowering communities</td>
<td>Empowering communities</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>To identify the diversity of place</td>
<td>Assist with conflict resolution</td>
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<tr>
<td>attachment</td>
<td>Attachment</td>
<td>Accommodate diversity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Planning landscapes</td>
<td>Inform staff</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Educate communities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community Benefit</td>
<td>Build knowledge and respect for</td>
<td>Planners consider ecological, emotional, symbolic and cultural meanings in allocating management zones and resource use</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefit</td>
<td>places</td>
<td>Inventory of place meanings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Foster environmentally responsible behaviour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Enhance respect for community diversity</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adapted from information in Presley (2003) and Smaldone, Harris, Sanyal and Lind (2005)

For instance, place attachment studies of park user groups, can inform management about a communities attachment and purpose for using the park. This understanding will allow resource managers to identify groups most suited for involvement in planning, management and volunteerism. Understanding place attachment will also allow planners to understand the meaning of parks to the users and consider this during planning. The ability to build knowledge and respect for protected areas, as well as responsible behaviour can be enhanced by a deeper understanding of the community and the attachment and value users place on the park or protected area.

The use of place attachment in management will become more evident as the reader progresses through this chapter; however four key aspects particularly relevant to protected area management are conservation, stewardship, landscapes and land management, which are presented below.

Conservation

Those that show concern for natural resource conservation recognise the attachment of people to the environment, as detailed in the previous chapter. Encouraging action that will benefit and protect natural settings has its beginnings in deep ecology and bioregionalism concepts (Pruneau et al. 1999). Understanding these underlying views is important as they may significantly influence a person’s place attachment. Deep ecology considers the interconnectedness of human with the natural world (Zimmerman 1998), while bioregionalism describes finding a sense of place in nature (Thayer 2003, p. xiv). Research areas that reflect a bioregionalism, deep ecology influence include environmental education (Sobel 1996; Tanner 1980), social psychology (Low,
Altman & (eds) 1992; Proshansky, Fabian & Kaminoff 1983) and cultural geography (Hay 1988) (Pruneau et al. 1999). Additionally, social ecology recognises that people should be involved in environmental solutions (Bookchin 2004), while eco-feminists propose that place attachment has been disrupted through hierarchy causing a disconnection with nature which they believe has lead to the environmental crisis (Atkisson 1989).

Stewardship

While place attachment can encourage conservation stewardship, it can also explain conflict, therefore understanding community views has become a significant aspect of park management (Ballinger & Manning 1997; Kaltenborn & Williams 2002). Furthermore, Kaltenborn and Williams (2002) confirmed that an individual’s attachment influences their views towards environment and the value they place on natural resource management. Likewise when place attachment is supported and encouraged by management, stewardship and sensitivity to management initiatives is also enhanced (Greene 1996).

Landscapes

Most of the place attachment literature refers to attachment to places as a complex process of beliefs, attitudes and emotions, which can inform an individual’s view of the world. However studies by Stedman (2003) and Parsons and Daniel (2002) expanded on this to examine the importance of the physical features of a landscape and their contribution to place attachment. Both studies concluded that physical features did matter in constructing meaning to places, and Stedman noted that if the physical features changed then the meanings that people attach to a place might also change. Parsons and Daniels also noted that an appreciation of the landscape could lead to sustainable practices. Other landscape studies such as Kaltenborn and Bjerke (2002) confirmed the link between residents land preferences and place attachment in Roros, a town in a World Heritage area in Southern Norway. While Waterton (2005) explored the diverse cultural meaning of landscapes in a study in England, which led to questioning ‘why landscape is underplayed in legislation and policy development although it provides a vital ordnance of cultural meaning in relation to identity, belonging and sense of place’ (p. 309).

Activism and Involvement

When place attachment is strong within an individual, group or community, then activism and community involvement is probable (Pruneau et al. 1999). Similarly, Belk (1992) believes that a prerequisite to positive action is a fondness or attachment to a place. In contrast, an earlier study by Lewicka and also by Perking and Long (in Lewicka 2005) showed that place attachment had a ‘negative correlation to civic activity’ (p. 382) and to pro environmental behaviour (Bonaiuto et al. 2002). The study by Bonaiuto and colleagues ‘supported the motivation to preserve the status quo in places of residence’ (Lewicka 2005, p. 382). According to Lewicka (2005), a strong predictor of community activity is a persons social (neighbour ties) and cultural status (cultural capital). However, the author considers that neighbourhood ties and cultural capital are variables of place attachment. Neighbourhood ties relate to the place dependant variable, while cultural capital related to place identity either emotional or symbolic.

Land Management

Ways to incorporate place attachment into public land management was explored by Mitchell, Force, Carroll and McLaughlan (1993) and Smaldone et al (2005). While Williams and Stewart (1998) Williams & Patterson (1999) Galliano and Loeffler (1995) and others examined the application of place attachment to ecosystem management (Eisenhauer, Kranich & Blahna 2000; Schroeder 2004). Place attachment ‘can be the source of heightened levels of concern about management practices’ and therefore deserve consideration in ecosystem management (Eisenhauer, Kranich & Blahna 2000, p. 421). The value of places and how these are integrated into management decisions, in deciding boundaries and how places are interpreted are also matters for consideration (Stokowski 2002).

Conclusion

An important aspect of the human-environment relationship is place attachment, the connection that people have with places. This chapter has looked at a selection of the place attachment literature and its purpose and use in park management. Omitted from the review are the psychology behind place attachment development, and the
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health sciences literature. The author has aligned this work with the concept put forward by Williams, Patterson, Roggenbuck and Watson (1992), who use the two dimensions of place attachment, place dependence and place identity.

Place attachment reflects the basis of a person’s life, through a complex process of beliefs, attitudes and emotions, which inform an individual’s view of the world. When place attachment is strong, then activism and community involvement is probable. Changes to landscape can affect place attachment, because people project their lives into a place. Place interference, refers to a deliberate reversal of place attachment, while displacement describes moving away from a place when a person’s place attachment is disrupted. Place attachment is an important concept in addressing planning issues for tourism, local culture and heritage to avoid conflict between local communities and visitors. Place attachment studies have been used to inform public land management, ecosystem management and interpretation.

Place dependence
Place dependence explains the dependence on a place for a specific activity such as employment, sport or recreation. Through place dependence studies management can identify community groups suitable for public involvement in conservation and management processes. The outcomes of current studies suggest that those that are dependant on the resource have higher level of place attachment than others do. Place attachment shapes activities and preferences for specific settings for sport and recreation users. People with a strong place dependence, also have a strong place identity and this attachment can influence their environmental behaviour.

Place identity
Place identity refers to the emotional or symbolic attachment to a place. Understanding this attachment allows park managers to make informed decisions that consider a communities attachment to avoid conflicts. Studies have shown that a persons past experience is considered an important influence on their place identity. Repeated exposure to a place either through written or visual media can encourage place attachment. Repeat visitation can play a significant role in strengthening place attachment, while motivation to visit a place does not necessarily lead to the development of place attachment. A person’s identity is closely linked to their community identity and shifts in social and community attachments can also result in displacing communities and likewise desegregating communities can dislocate personal or community identity.

A review of the literature has shown that place attachment can inform management and influence views about conservation. The role of place attachment in the management of parks is summarised as a process of re-evaluating decision making practices to include place meaning for various groups in interpretation, planning, and zoning decisions. The value of places and how these are integrated into management decisions, in regard to who decides boundaries and how places are interpreted are also matters for consideration, as well as trust and community involvement in decisions in natural resource management agencies.

Testing the hypothesis
The literature review has shown that the hypothesis that ‘Place attachment or lack of place attachment may play an important role in park visitation patterns’ is accurate. Furthermore the literature has determined how place attachment is created, what affects place attachment and how management can use place attachment theory in developing: community identity, encouraging healthy communities, engaging communities in park planning, and allowing communities a sense of ownership. These questions will be addressed and answers determined in chapter three, through an outline of the pertinent literature and suggested recommendations. However understanding the demographics of the community is equally important for place attachment theory to be applied effectively.
Chapter 6

PLACE ATTACHMENT AND THE URBAN PARK

Introduction

Applying place attachment theory to urban parks requires a different approach to its application in national parks. Urban parks are often developed and set within communities. These parks become part of the urban landscape and are closely linked to a community’s collective identity. They are a reminder that nature exists, they encourage people to engage with natural environments and promote community and environmental wellbeing. National parks on the other hand are areas of wilderness put aside to preserve unique habitat and important geological formations of the region. Although people can visit national parks, the parks are not developed within communities. Community use of an urban park can assist people to reconnect with nature. Once the attachment is formed, the literature suggests that if the experience is positive, it may encourage visits to explore a national park.

When place attachment is formed to urban parks, it becomes an extension of a community attachment, which the literature has shown may reflect a person’s personal identity. The proposed site in Melton has not been developed and therefore place attachment cannot be measured toward the park. However, park managers can gauge the community attachment by considering some predictors of place attachment such as age, ancestry, lifestyle and other factors. Once these aspects are understood, the urban park through careful planning can be designed to extend the community attachment to the proposed site.

Melton Shire Profile

The Victorian Government as part of its Melbourne 2030 vision has put fifteen billion towards developing Melton Shire to include an area called Toolern. The focus for the project will make Toolern a major growth centre and a state of the art city, which will encompass the latest green technologies in urban design, as well as home to 100 000 people in the next two decades.

Melton Shire is situated west of Melbourne and consists of fifteen municipalities:
- Melton
- Melton South (Brookfield)
- Melton East
- Melton West
- Melton Township
- Burnside
- Caroline Springs
- Diggers Rest
- Hillside
- Taylors Hill
- Kurunjang
- Eastern Rural
- Northern Rural
- Southern Rural
- Rockbank

This semi rural municipality is located thirty-five minutes from Melbourne and is the western gateway to the townships of Ballarat and Daylesford. The urban rural lifestyle the shire offers also caters for many traditional sport activities as well as bike riding, pony and hunt clubs, skateboarding, hockey and water sports such as water-skiing. The municipality is also well known for its equestrian facilities and is known as ‘The Heart of Thoroughbred Country’ (Shire of Melton 2006).
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Population and ancestry
Based on the 2001 population census, the current population of the Melton Shire is 51,685, of which 73.69% were born in Australia, with the majority of those born outside Australia coming from north-east and south-east Europe. The top ten countries of origin for those born overseas are:

- United Kingdom 5.07%
- Malta 2.11%
- Philippines 1.24%
- New Zealand 1.02%
- Italy 1.02%
- Germany 0.69%
- Macedonia FYROM 0.64%
- Croatia 0.62%
- India 0.49%
- Poland 0.44%

There are 6.9% of the population who are not fluent in English (Australian Bureau of Statistics 2001).

Age
The Melton Shire is a relatively young population, and the medium age of residents is thirty years old. The population is made up of 82.06% of people fewer than fifty years. That is 64.4% of people are between 18 and 64 yrs; mature adults between 64 and 84 yrs make up 4.5% and those over 85 yrs make up 0.4% of the population. There are 26.4% of the population currently attending school and tertiary institutions, with 22.56% between the ages of 5 and 17 years. This group is the second largest age group in the shire, behind the 35 to 49 year olds age group which accounts for 23.63% of the population (Australian Bureau of Statistics 2001).

Family
Couples with children make up 48.1% of families, with the mean household size of 3.1 persons. Couples without children make up 20.9% of families, while 13.4% are single parent families and 13.3% represent people who live alone. 80.6% of families are purchasing or have brought properties, while 91.15% of families’ own cars, with 62.03% owning two or more. The majority of the workforce use their car to commute to work (Australian Bureau of Statistics 2001).

Employment and income
The majority of the workforce (92.6%) is employed in a range of industries, the largest being manufacturing 18.51% and retail trade 16.47%, property and business services 9.40%, construction 7.77%, transport and storage 7.53% health and community services 7.18%, and wholesale trade 6.07%. Due to the rural location, agriculture and equine industries are also well placed to contribute to the local economy. Occupations that make up the largest percentage of the workforce are intermediate clerical, sales and services 19.20%, tradespersons and related 14.96%, intermediate production and transport 12.97%, elementary, clerical, sales, service 11.16%, professionals 10.66%, associate professionals 10.31%, labourers and related 8.90%, managers and administrators 5.58% and 2.57% not stated.

A large proportion of the workforce (61.8%) live and work within the shire and 40.3% of the workforce earn between $300 and $999 a week while 40.4% earn above $1000 a week (Australian Bureau of Statistics 2001).

Conclusion
The demographics of a region, which in this study are used as predictors of place attachment, can be used to provide an overlay to the place attachment literature. Considered in this context, markers of community attachment will emerge to provide a perspective in which to develop the new urban park. The literature has highlighted that place attachment can be formed through use. The new park design must anticipate the potential use of the Melton community. The community consists of young families, both with and without children, as well as single people. The majority of the population are under fifty years old, employed, born in Australia, own or are buying their home, and own at least one car which they use to commute to work. The profile has shown that many people live and work in the shire, which would suggest that their place attachment is one of identifying with the region for work, lifestyle, sport and recreational activities. This attachment is referred to as place dependence.
Chapter 7

KEY FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

There are various forms of place attachment, which are expressed in different ways. This study on place attachment and urban parks considers the hypothesis that ‘Place attachment or lack of place attachment may play an important role in park visitation patterns’. This statement raises a number of questions about how place attachment is created; influences on place attachment; how management can use place attachment theory in developing community identity, encouraging healthy communities and engaging communities in park planning and a sense of ownership. The authors have drawn on the place attachment literature discussed in chapter one and the demographics of the Melton Shire discussed in chapter two to inform the key findings and recommendations for this study. The literature relevant to each question is summarised under the key findings, and recommendations discussed at the end of this chapter.

Key Findings

Creating place attachment

Referring to the literature set out in chapter one, place attachment is created as a result of complex human emotions, values and experiences unique to the individual, to form an identity from which we orientate ourselves with the world. Combined with lifetime experiences and inner development, it can reflect the basis of a person’s life (Fried 2000b). Edward Wilson’s explains attachment as a deep connection with nature that is ingrained within us (Johnson 1994).

The literature has highlighted that place attachment can be created when people invest time or energy into a place through work or recreational activities. Similarly, place attachment is formed when emotional energy is invested in a place through special memories or because the place holds some symbolic significance to the individual. Place attachment can also be formed through an appreciation of land or seascapes and just by knowing that a person has the right to enter a place. Often attachment is not evident to the person until the place of attachment is threatened. People become attached to places through involvement in activities in a setting while those with expertise in an activity are considered to form stronger attachments. Place attachment can be encouraged through memberships to organisations or groups which use natural settings, or those places that provide solitude and satisfactory experiences. When people are exposed to a place through the media, or they can relate the place to similar past experiences then attachment is likely. Equally, repeat visitation also encourages place attachment.

People can express their place attachment through videotapes, photos and postcards. Similarly, a person can create a meaningful attachment through talking about a place to friends and family. Because people project their emotions and feelings into places, these verbal expressions are actually talking about their own identity. Some predictors of place attachment may include the age of a person, the length of residence, the perception of a place, symbolic meanings associated with a place and environmental attitudes (Jorgensen & Stedman 2005). In addition, the physical attributes of a place, involvement with the destination (Hou, Lin & Morais 2005), the level of experience in activities, motivation and the evaluation of management actions (Kyle, Graefe & Manning 2004a) may also indicate place attachment.

Attachment is strongly influenced by childhood experiences, more so than by engaging in adult activities. Measham (2004) explains that environmental education in childhood can encourage learning about places and foster links between ourselves and the environment. The research discussed in the literature review has shown that childhood attachments will vary with age and gender, but common to all children is the preference for natural settings that can provide rest areas and private and secret places away from adult interference. Children can become attached to comfortable and safe built playground environments that satisfy their psychological and social play needs.
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**Influences on place attachment**

Place attachment can be affected by social factors such as the different values held by sections of the community or changes in technology. Changes to a landscape may also affect place attachment because people lives are often interlinked with a place. Therefore changing physical surroundings may affect a person perspective on how they view their world. Other disruptions to place attachment include moving away from a place or deciding to visit a location for leisure activities at another time to avoid noise or crowding.

Place attachment can be destroyed because of natural events, political unrest or wars. Similarly, place attachment can be ruined through decisions made by administrators, who are driven by ambition and personal gain. Shattering the memories that people have of a place through the deliberate destruction of public or private records, photographs and documents will also destroy place attachment.

As discussed in the literature chapter, negative past experiences can result in breaking emotional bonds to places for whole communities. Desegregation, displacement or forcible removal of communities can also result in loss of place attachment and the destruction of the community.

**Use of place attachment theory**

**Developing community identity**

Community identity is developed through an emotional attachment to a place, as well as through the social and physical attributes of a place, such as the climate, landscape or the plants and animals that inhabit the place. Common experiences and a shared context of meanings also shape situations, which create values, which become strong reference points through which a community can identify themselves. These reference points therefore become the symbols of that community. According to Auge (cited in Ballesteros & Ramírez 2006, p. 1), ‘when strong collective identities are linked to life spaces, a solid sense of community is formed’ (p. 1). Community identity is enhanced when open spaces and natural features that allow social interaction are present.

**Encouraging healthy communities**

The restorative benefits of quiet untouched settings are well recognised in the literature as a means to promote physical and psychological health in communities. The health professions use adventure and health therapies in natural settings to restore psychological well being, while also recognising that the relationship of humans and environment have mutually restorative benefits (Taylor & Zimmerman 2005).

The land is important to all humans for both its restorative benefits as well as for the soul connection of peace and tranquillity that it provides to many individuals. Heintzman (2003) states that people who visit wilderness places ‘alone and participate in nature orientated experiences are more likely to experience spiritual benefits’. The spiritual attachment that indigenous communities have to their ancestral land has its parallel in the capacity of humans to reconnect with the earth, which is the anticipated outcome of James Lovelock’s GAIA hypothesis. Additionally religious rituals have a positive effect on place attachment (Mazumdar & Mazumdar 1993, 2004), while the rituals of indigenous cultures also have a positive effect on their reconnection with the earth through songs, chants and prayers (Dunbar 2000). Frumkin (2003) found that the attachment people have with places can have either a positive or negative impact on a person’s wellbeing, and he concluded that health should be synonymous with place.

**Engaging communities**

Understanding who the users are and what they value in the park is a prerequisite to engaging the community for public involvement in management processes (Smaldone et al. 2005). For instance, active users are likely to donate time and money to assist with the management of a resource for their continued use, and those negatively affected by issues will portray a stronger emotional attachment than those unaffected. Trust can be a major issue in community engagement and by understanding the type and levels of attachment, trust can be developed and civic relationships improved. Disinterest in local affairs does not always indicate a lack of place attachment. Research has shown that residents can be more concerned with global catastrophic events than local ones, with the exception of those residents individually affected by local issues, which is sometimes referred to as ‘not in my backyard’ (Lima & Castro 2005).

**Encouraging and supporting community attachment and sense of ownership**

Understanding the different forms of place attachments held within the community is important if place attachments in communities is to be encouraged and supported, and for communities to feel a sense of ownership. For instance, management and volunteer attachments will vary to those of other users, as well as views on how an area should be managed. Sense of ownership is achieved when residents feel welcome to enter the space, while both visitors and residents alike seek to understand and be inspired by a park. When people are
dependant on the park for their activities, or have a specialisation in an activity, higher levels of place attachment are found. How an area is used is shaped by historical and cultural values of the participants and can lead to forming an historic or cultural attachment. The place attachment associated with historical and cultural values at a site need special consideration during planning, as well as place meanings for other groups.

Many ethnic groups have not been exposed to parks within their cultures and therefore are more likely to use parks as social spaces, such as for family gatherings (Griffin, Wearing & Archer 2004, p. 274). Using a site for family gatherings can result in attachment development by identifying with the site for social or cultural activities. Understanding these cultural differences, may allow managers to develop strategies that will encourage new users, and support the development of community identity and social meanings for the users. Social value has become an important feature of community identity and maintaining broad community support for parks is important if environmental, economic, socio-cultural, physiological or psychological benefits are to be realised (Griffin, Wearing & Archer 2004). The interpretive experience may cultivate a stronger place attachment, while interpreting cultural heritage requires particular consideration in cultural planning (Markwell, Stevenson & Rowe 2004; McCool & Moisey 2001).

Recommendations

The recommendations relate to urban parks, and specifically to the proposed development site within the Melton Shire. These recommendations are based on the information in this report, and take into account, the literature review and the demographic profile of the Melton Shire taken from the 2001 Census. The shires demographic profile relevant to this study portrays a young community, mostly made up of couples with children, between 5 and 17 years. Most people either own or are buying their homes and work in the shire. The majority of the community were born in Australia; however there is also a small immigrant population.

Extending the community identity to encompass the new urban park requires an understanding of the community and the social, cultural and historic bonds that people associate with their homes, their community and work and recreational places. Cultural differences will affect these attachments, and understanding this will allow for planning that will encourage a reconnection with natural areas by all groups within the community.

Recommendations are presented in two sections, the first relates to the management of the urban park which draws on the work of Inglis, Whitelaw and Pearlman (2005), and the latter to place attachment. The recommendations are intended to assist in the design and management of the park. Additionally, a park that will support and encourage community attachment and encourage strong community identity will lead to a healthy engaged community that will have a sense of ownership of the park.

Managing a high use urban park

Recommendations for managing a high use urban park are set out in a park management model by Inglis, Whitelaw and Pearlman (2005). Their integrated research draws on the classification system adopted by the United Nations. The model has visitor servicing and environmental value forming the two axes. A matrix is divided into four quadrants in which parks are placed, which establishes the management framework for each park. The quadrants that represent each prototype park are described as high use urban parks, low use urban parks, high use protected areas and low use protected areas. An explanation of high use urban parks is included in this report; however for further details on the other park categories, the reader is referred to the work of Inglis, Whitelaw and Pearlman, whose model is illustrated in Figure 2.
The proposed site in Melton is located in the high use urban park quadrant. High use urban parks have a strong emphasis on servicing visitors and less emphasis on ecological integrity. Examples in Victoria include Jells Park and Albert Park. Characteristics of this prototype park which includes staffing, funding and impacts, visitor and asset management, marketing and distribution and governance have been summarised by Inglis, Whitelaw and Pearlman and is included in this report as follows:

**Prototype Parks**

![Diagram of Prototype Parks]

**Staffing**

High use urban parks—the skills base needs to be strongly commercial. Staff requires a range of business skills with a particularly strong understanding of customer service and marketing principles. Staffing levels will increase in peak periods or in relation to major events, when there will be a need to employ temporary contract staff.

**Funding and impacts**

High use urban parks—a high prevalence of commercially based funding from leases, rentals, merchandising and sponsorships with limited government support. There will be a mix of strategic expenditure programs on visitor infrastructure and tactical expenditure programs on maintenance and upkeep. The economic benefits to the local area will generally be low in yield as these parks typically attract local audiences. However, in some cases there may be the opportunity to generate significant economic impacts through events by attracting a greater non-local audience (e.g. the Formula One Grand Prix at Albert Park). As these are high use parks, social impacts will be large, whether they are the positive benefits of social interaction experiencing large-scale events, or the negative impacts of crowding and the broader impacts on local communities.

**Visitor and asset management**

High use urban parks—the key focus is on providing an entertaining and satisfying experience for visitors within a clean, attractive and safe environment. They tend to require high investment in infrastructure and operating assets to provide human comforts. Similar to staffing, the level of the service offer will vary between peak and off-peak periods. Temporary infrastructure will also be required (e.g. portaloos, marquees) to ensure human comfort levels are maintained and risk is appropriately managed. Often this may involve a cooperative arrangement with one or more commercial partners.
Marketing and distribution
High use urban parks—marketing has a strong consumer orientation, utilising traditional marketing principles, with the aim of maximising visitor expenditure in the park. Marketing activity is generally highly visible in the form of brochures and web-based distribution, informing potential visitors of products, activities and events that have the potential to generate revenue.

Governance
High use urban parks—these parks may be best operated as autonomous corporative entities reporting to a business or tourism style ministry, rather than an environmental ministry. We note the use of the term 'parastatal model’, and whilst there is still some uncertainty in properly defining and conceptualising this term, the use of semi-professional independent boards with a commercial charter appears to be a consistent style of governance for these types of parks. In the case of high use urban parks of a commercial nature, the parastatal form provides for greater financial independence and devolved decision making.

Place attachment in urban parks
Urban parks by their location form part of the community, and therefore community attachment should extend to the urban park through thoughtful planning by managers. Community attachments are a dependant attachment, as communities use their region for work and lifestyle choices. By encouraging people to use urban parks, attachments can be formed which also create a bond with nature and a predisposition to visit national parks.

Children
- Encourage children to connect with natural environments as attachments are formed most strongly in childhood.
- Support children to use the park, by providing safe, private and secret places away from adult interference, for them to engage with nature and thereby meet their psychological and social needs.
- Develop environmental education programs for children that involve excursions to the park.
- Have nature based activities and entertainment in the park that will attract children.
- Consider endangered species breeding programs located within the park boundaries.

Influencing attachment
- Introduce symbols within the park design that reflect the community’s historic and cultural values.
- Avoid decisions that will lead to dislocation, desegregation or displacement of members of the community.
- Avoid decisions that will drastically alter the landscape.
- Avoid decisions that destroy symbols of attachment such as papers, photos or documents representing memories of an historic past.

Developing community identity
- Encourage community identity by the development of symbols that represent Australian heritage throughout the park, thereby establishing it as a place for people to reconnect with their heritage. These may be an indigenous walking track, a plaque or war memorial, or an avenue of honour.
- Conduct cultural and community events.
- Develop interpretative facilities for historic and cultural heritage.

Encouraging healthy communities
- Make the park accessible to a range of users.
- Encourage the community to use the park by providing a range of facilities such as walking tracks and nature based sport activity circuits, walking or bike tracks or kite flying.
- Engage marketing to reflect accessibility and use.
Engaging community and encouraging a sense of ownership

- Utilise natural amphitheatre space or display area sponsored by local businesses and community groups for artworks, fetes, art/craft, painting workshops or pet days.
- Natural facilities sponsored by businesses will attract people to use the park for family and leisure activities.
- Create tearooms and picnic/barbeque facilities.
- Use the media to promote events and encourage participation.
- Involve industry in sponsorship or management of commercial projects.
- Involve conservation and friends groups to participate in non commercial projects.

Encouraging and supporting place attachment

- Conduct ongoing research to understand community place attachment (those dependant on the resource and those that have emotional or symbolic attachments).
- Facilitate the development of trust and improve relationships with community through open discussion and encouraging community involvement.
- Engage those with the strongest attachments and those affected by issues in management processes.
- When community participation is weak, consider global events that may assume importance at this time.
- Give consideration to those with high levels of attachment or specialisation in an activity during any planning processes.
- Encourage involvement by volunteers and community to be involved in aspects of managing the park.

Conclusion

This research has drawn together key themes from the place attachment literature that is most relevant to the design and management of an urban park. The hypothesis that place attachment or lack of place attachment may play an important role in park visitation patterns has been tested and proved to be probable. The questions raised by the hypothesis have also been addressed—how place attachment is created; influences on place attachment; how management can use place attachment theory to develop community identity, encouraging healthy communities, engaging communities in park planning, and allowing communities a sense of ownership in parks.

Place attachment studies conclude higher levels of place attachment amongst those that are dependant on the resource. Furthermore, studies found that in discovering place attachment levels management could identify community groups for public involvement in management processes (Smaldone et al. 2005). In addition, people with a strong place dependence; also had a strong place identity and this attachment can influence environmental behaviour (Kyle et al. 2004b; Vaske & Kobrin 2001). As place identity refers to the emotional or symbolic attachment to a place, repeat visitation can play a significant role in strengthening this attachment (Altman & Low 1992; Belk 1992). Additionally, attachments that children form to places may vary with gender and age.

Understanding the attachment to places allows park managers to make informed decisions (Ballinger & Manning 1997). When place attachment is strong within an individual, group or community, then activism and community involvement is probable (Pruneau et al. 1999). Changes to landscape can affect place attachment, while displacement describes moving away from a place when a person’s place attachment is disrupted. Place attachment studies have been used to inform public land management, ecosystem management and interpretation; and also shape activities and preferences for specific settings for sport and recreation users.

Applying place attachment theory to urban parks requires a different approach to its application in national parks. When place attachment is formed to an urban park, it becomes an extension of a community attachment. However, park managers can gauge the community attachment by considering some predictors of place attachment such as age, ancestry, lifestyle and other factors. Place attachment can be created when people invest time or energy into a place through work or recreational activities. Similarly, place attachment is formed when emotional energy is invested in a place through special memories or because the place holds some symbolic significance to the individual. The Shire of Melton population have invested time and energy into their community through employment, home and lifestyle choices. The challenge for managers is to create environments that will extend the strong attachment the residents have to their community to include the new proposed urban park and that will support the community in developing emotional, symbolic or dependant attachments to the park and to natural areas.
Place attachment in urban parks, national parks and proposed sites require differing approaches to measuring place attachment. Most established urban parks are set within communities, and therefore become an extension of the fabric of the community. The attachment that people have to their community will extend to facilities, which includes the urban park. While urban parks can be assessed through a place attachment instrument, a proposed site, which is an undeveloped park, cannot be assessed in this manner as place attachment has not been formed. However, it is possible to assess community attachment, by examining the predictors of place attachment, such as demographic indicators, then using these indicators to develop a park that will extend attachments in the community to the park. Urban parks can encourage the development of place attachment through constant use, which may have a flow on effect to national parks. Design and planning is important to encourage residents to use the park, and for the park to take on emotional or symbolic significance in the minds of the community.

On the other hand, place attachment to national parks can be examined through an established place attachment instrument. National parks are traditionally located outside and away from communities, and require people to make a conscious choice to visit. The literature has shown that visitors to national parks have most likely experienced natural settings before and seek them out for the benefits they can offer. Thus, place attachment can be measured in established urban parks and national parks with a traditional place attachment instrument. Alternatively, a proposed site required that the place attachment predictors, the literature and the demographic profile be examined to enable strategies that will support and encourage the community attachment to extend to the park.

Place attachment is formed most strongly during childhood; however attachments are also formed when people invest time and energy into a place. Managers can encourage attachment by understanding the community and developing strategies that will support the community to reconnect with nature and that will extend the community attachment to the park.
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The Sustainable Tourism Cooperative Research Centre (STCRC) is established under the Australian Government’s Cooperative Research Centres Program. STCRC is the world’s leading scientific institution delivering research to support the sustainability of travel and tourism – one of the world’s largest and fastest growing industries.

Introduction
The STCRC has grown to be the largest, dedicated tourism research organisation in the world, with $187 million invested in tourism research programs, commercialisation and education since 1997.

The STCRC was established in July 2003 under the Commonwealth Government’s CRC program and is an extension of the previous Tourism CRC, which operated from 1997 to 2003.

Role and responsibilities
The Commonwealth CRC program aims to turn research outcomes into successful new products, services and technologies. This enables Australian industries to be more efficient, productive and competitive.

The program emphasises collaboration between businesses and researchers to maximise the benefits of research through utilisation, commercialisation and technology transfer.

An education component focuses on producing graduates with skills relevant to industry needs.

STCRC’s objectives are to enhance:

• the contribution of long-term scientific and technological research and innovation to Australia’s sustainable economic and social development;
• the transfer of research outputs into outcomes of economic, environmental or social benefit to Australia;
• the value of graduate researchers to Australia;
• collaboration among researchers, between researchers and industry or other users; and efficiency in the use of intellectual and other research outcomes.